

MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS INFLUENCING WOMEN'S DECISIONS TO PURSUE
UPPER-LEVEL ADMINISTRATIVE POSITIONS IN HIGHER EDUCATION

by

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B.S., Kansas State University, 1986

M.S., Kansas State University, 1988

AN ABSTRACT OF A DISSERTATION

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ABSTRACT

Much of the research on women advancing in higher education has been focused on the external barriers and how to break down the barriers. Initiatives and programs have been implemented, but the number of women in upper-level administrative positions in higher education, although increasing, is not increasing in proportion to women's overall numbers in education and the work force. The structure and processes at work in a particular situation can change more readily than changing people's behaviors directly. With this in mind, the purpose of this study was to take a positive approach by looking to women who have reached the upper-level administrative arena and investigate what influential factors were responsible for motivating them to this achievement.

This qualitative multi-case study used the elements of Bandura's Model of Reciprocal Determination, specifically self-efficacy, personal behavior, and environmental factors to determine the factors motivating women to upper-level administrative positions. Eighteen women who have reached the upper-level administrative positions (e.g., provost, vice-president or vice-provost) at land-grant universities were interviewed.

The themes of this study suggest that support groups and individual mentors were important motivating factors because these groups and individuals encouraged, coached, and supported women administrators on their decisions to enter higher education and then as they pursued upper-level administrative positions. In addition, women felt successful when they were able to be the nurturers, assisting and influencing others to succeed. Also, the women administrators recognized the need for knowledge, skills, and experience to assist in their career advancement. Furthermore, they emphasized

developing and evaluating personal values, and ensured their personal values fit with institutional values. At the same time, women administrators stressed the value of time and the choices they made to balance time between work and family and between work and personal time. Recommendations to implement initiatives to promote and support the motivational factors identified in this study are discussed.

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Approved by:

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Dedication

To the 18 women who gave of their time to participate in this study and expounded on their diverse experiences in higher education. These women are an inspiration to all women aspiring to advance in their careers.

CHAPTER 1

Introduction

Almost 160 years after the first women's U.S. political movement meeting in Seneca Falls, N.Y. in 1848 (Osborn, 2001), women are still discussing, researching, and lobbying for many of the same issues and resolutions to problems laid out in the first meeting. The issues are equal opportunities for employment and equitable means to advance in one's career choice. Throughout history, women fought to improve their lives and the lives of women who came after them. As educators, women challenged the comforts of familiarity to reach new understandings. Unfortunately, it takes time to change long held beliefs and values regarding the role of women in society. Fueled by the women's movement, affirmative action, feminists, and women's strong work ethic and abilities, women have made great strides in becoming more visible within the workforce and attendance at colleges and universities. However, the one arena where women have yet to become a predominant force is in prime leadership or decision making positions, especially within higher education (Walton & McDade, 2001).

Prior to the turn of the 20th century, women took advantage of the opportunity to become educated by gaining acceptance to higher education institutions, but not necessarily in fields "designated" for men. Interestingly, women were more accepted at land-grant institutions because of their tie to the Morrill Act, which provided higher education to the laboring classes. As Allison Thorne (1985) points out, the mandate of the Morrill Act said laboring "classes" not "men." Therefore, in keeping with the democratic tradition by which the Morrill Act was framed, women were readily accepted. However, it was not until determined women and caring men urged for equal educational

opportunities, and lobbyists were successful in showing state legislatures the economical values of not having separate facilities for women, that women were able to advance their career endeavors (Thorne, 1985).

As a result of increased numbers of women seeking higher education, more women were prepared for professional employment. Conversely, employment opportunities for women in higher education were not available. Congress tried to remedy this through the passage of the Equal Pay Act of 1963, which prohibited discrimination of salaries based on sex. The passage of Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 prohibited discrimination of employment, including treatment of pregnancy, salaries, training, and fringe benefits on the basis of color, gender, or race (Civil Rights Law, 1989). This affirmative action mandate was further amended by the Equal Employment Opportunities Act of 1972, which made the nondiscrimination provision applicable to employers with 15 or more employees. More important, for the first time, federal, state, and local governments as well as educational institutions were required by law not to discriminate against minorities or women (Rai & Critzer, 2000). Essentially, this 1972 Act forced institutions of higher learning to deal with issues of gender, racial equity, and treatment of students as citizens with constitutional rights (Sandeem, 1991) and prohibited colleges and universities from employment discrimination based on race, color, religion, or sex.

Affirmative action and equal opportunities were created to hire and promote according to qualifications and not on sex or race/ethnicity. Ideally, the goal of affirmative action is to ensure that qualified female and minority job candidates are considered for hire or promotion until no group is underrepresented.

Unfortunately, affirmative action is widely misunderstood as giving preference to female or minority candidates. This misunderstanding arose from the fact that hiring procedures were normally meritocratic and that affirmative action was needed to compensate for a candidate's poor qualifications (Valian, 1999).

In addition, the number of women in the paid workforce increased. Women were represented in almost every occupation (Kaplan & Tinsley, 1989). Furthermore, the number of females enrolling in college after high school increased by 20 percent from 1967 to 2000, according to the U.S. Census Bureau. In fact, more women than men were enrolled in graduate and professional programs.

Women within the public sector have shown more progress within specific job categories than those in the private sector. From 1993 to 2003, the percent of women at four-year degree granting public institutions classified as executive/administrative/managers increased from 37.2% to 46.4%. During the same time frame, women in other professional staff categories remained unchanged (around 59%) until fall 2003, at which time the percent of women in this category dropped to 57.9% (see Table A-1). The women in the non-professional staff category (technical, clerical, skilled craft, service personnel) decreased from 64.0% in 1993 to 61.5% in 2003.

As indicated by these statistics, it would appear that women have broken through the "glass ceiling" and have become a more visible force within the executive and management areas at public four-year institutions. However, the executive/administrative/managers category is very broad, including positions like president, chief academic officer, associate dean, director, and program manager. Therefore, from these statistics, it is difficult to determine specifically if women are moving into positions that

are within the upper-level administrative branch of a university (president, vice president, and chief academic officer).

As of 1998, increases in the upper-level administrative branch were found at women's colleges, private institutions, and small liberal arts colleges. In fact, the largest percentage of women presidents (27 percent) led private two-year colleges. Moreover, the percentage of women presidents at public colleges and universities has jumped from five percent in 1975 to 19.3% in 1998. Basically, women were more likely to head smaller schools (71 percent preside over schools with less than 3,000 enrolled students) or lead community colleges, which traditionally emphasize teaching over research (Wenniger & Conroy, 2001).

Similar trends have occurred for the second in command or the chief academic officer (CAO) at most institutions. In fact, a small number of women have reached the CAO position at large doctoral institutions. The largest percentage of women CAOs were found at the Baccalaureate I and II liberal arts colleges (49.7%), while 35.8% were at Masters I and II comprehensive institutions, and 12.8% at Research I and II and Doctorate I and II universities (Walton & McDade, 2001). On the other hand, women at research universities continue to hold positions that are traditionally classified as female positions (clerical or support staff), while men are promoted into positions with more decision-making responsibilities, problem solving opportunities, and visibility by others across the institution.

Essentially, when reviewing an organizational chart, women are most likely clustered within the middle and bottom portions of the pyramid. Thus, women are far more likely to be assistants and associates than directors, deans, provosts, and vice

presidents (Kaplan & Tinsley, 1989). These middle management type positions are where women's skills have minimal chance of impacting the overall university policy, and opportunities for advancement are virtually non-existent (Wenniger & Conroy, 2001). Basically, women who are employed in lower administrative positions must have skills and expertise to do the job, but do not impact the future of the organization because there is less communication with the primary organizational hierarchy (Ferguson, 1984).

According to Wenniger and Conroy (2001), we live in a patriarchal society, and therefore, leadership and power are assigned to men. Because men continue to fill upper-level administrative positions, our cultural images, attitudes, and beliefs associate men with leadership. As a result, society has begun to accept with little question or hesitation that leadership is associated with masculine traits.

On the other hand, leadership strategies are changing. In today's organizations, strategies such as inclusion, webbing, cooperation, and quality control have become popular, even among male leaders (Wenniger & Conroy, 2001). Women understand and can easily adapt to inclusive leadership, team orientation, and empowering others. "Women have a profound talent for making order out of the most confounding intricacies of apparent chaos, moving well from the pieces to the whole, creating quilts from scraps and baskets from plants" (p. 14).

The Statement of the Problem

The number of women in the administrative branch (includes executives, directors, and managers) at four-year public institutions increased 46.4% over the last 10 years. In contrast, the number of men during this same time period only increased 0.2% (See Table A-1). From 1993-94 to 2003-04, the number of women earning doctorate

degrees also increased 31.5% in comparison to men who had a 5.9% decline in the number earning doctorates. The U.S. Department of Education also projected that the number of women receiving doctorates will surpass men by the year 2013-14 (see Table A-2). These data support the premise that women made progress and achieved many of the goals established by the first adopters of the women's movement. However, female administrators are stalled in their career advancement to executive level positions. Despite the efforts of Congress (enacting laws to ensure equal opportunities for employment), more women earning doctorate degrees, and an increased number of women gaining management experience in higher education, women continue to be underrepresented in the upper-level administrative positions.

Much of the research of women in administrative roles has been concentrated on the external barriers that exist in higher education and are considered particularly troublesome for professional women (Baugher & Martin, 1981; Bowers & Hummel, 1979; Kanter, 1977). For instance, colleges and universities, like most institutions, were established by men. Consequently, they tend to have processes and structures in place that are reflective of male values and lifestyles (e.g., no accommodation for child care). These already established values and processes are difficult to change and one cannot mandate them. Change is a journey that takes time (Fullan, 1993).

In addition, Valian (1999) would consider these barriers to be gender schemas or unacknowledged beliefs about gender differences. All schemas influence how we perceive and treat group members. Valian contends that "only by recognizing how our perceptions are skewed by nonconscious beliefs can we learn to see others and ourselves accurately" (p. 3).

Further studies were conducted and several barriers were found in recruitment and hiring practices, training, formal and informal communication networks, and sex typing of certain types and levels of administrative positions. In fact, fields identified with women are often downgraded as in the case of home economics, nursing, library science, and student affairs. Women in these fields often are overlooked and find that their experience is disregarded when institutions initiate a search for vice-presidents, provosts, or other top administrative positions (Sandler, 1986).

Other studies coined the phrase “Chilly Climate” in higher education or the “Glass Ceiling” affect. These studies were focused on the countless intangible inequities of women in the workforce such as fewer resources, fewer opportunities, and sexual harassment that prohibited or barred women from applying or accepting positions within upper-level administration. The compounding effect of fewer opportunities for administrative promotion perpetuates the lack of women in the pipeline (Nidiffer, 2001).

While research has identified barriers, documented the external forces inhibiting a woman’s ability to move upward in her career, and developed methods to overcome, eliminate, or change the barriers, patriarchal culture, and masculine leadership roles, the research has made limited impact on the advancement of women to upper-level administrative positions. Consequently, researchers need to look through a different lens and consider the motivational factors that influence a woman’s decision to pursue and succeed to upper-level administrative positions, particularly in higher education.

As Millicent McIntosh (1974), former president of Barnard College from 1947 to 1962 suggested, both individual and institutional initiatives contributed to her success, and neither was sufficient without the other. Basically, with more women holding

positions that are stepping stones to upper-level management, it is apparent that doors of opportunity have opened for the advancement of women. The number of women in upper-level positions, however, is still fairly sparse in comparison to the number of men, indicating that the individual component of McIntosh's success formula is the missing key to women's interest and consideration of advancing in their careers.

At a 1993 Office of Women in Higher Education (OWHE) sponsored meeting, the Women Presidents' Summit, a quote from Constance H. Buchman on the cover of the conference program stated, "Women are poised to shape American values publicly on a scale to which they have never before had access. Much is riding on whether and how they choose to lead" (Nidiffer, 2001). Based on this statement, the fundamental component of women advancing into an upper-level position is women making the choice to lead.

Purpose of the Study

In view of the fact that women tend to be "stuck" in the mid-level or support staff positions, Hackett (1995) sees self efficacy playing an important role in governing whether women lower their aspirations and settle for a career that is "good enough" rather than attempting to pursue more challenging careers. According to Valian (1999), women tend to harbor such doubts about their ability and how their work will be received. These doubts tend to distract attention from the job at hand. Women should modify their perceptions of the causes of their successes and failures. Women need to analyze the reasons for their successes, especially their own contributions. Luck and other uncontrollable causes no doubt play a role in success, but those causes should not

eclipse the importance of women's own abilities and efforts. Women need to investigate their own psychology, understand it, and change it.

In general, the social cognitive theory of motivation focuses on how self-efficacy affects academic learning or in this case women's desires to pursue leadership positions. In addition, it recognizes that people choose goals and that goals influence how people act. Goals of moderate difficulty are likely to be motivating, and at the same time, satisfying. Therefore, self-efficacy is an assessment of all the personal factors that could affect one's performance such as past performance, ability, adaptability, capacity to coordinate skilled sequences of actions, and resourcefulness (Locke & Latham, 1994). For instance, if a woman has a high self-efficacy, she possesses a personal belief in her ability to pursue and achieve her stated goals for career advancement.

Women have not commonly been educated, trained, or mentored to become leaders, nor has there been the social atmosphere and cultural climate to succeed in a male dominated world (Yeakey, Johnson, & Adkinson, 1986). However, promotional opportunities were improved when a mentor was involved (Nidiffer & Bashaw, 2001). In fact, Ragins and Cotton (1999) made an unexpected finding in their study on mentoring. Women with a history of male mentors received more promotions than their male counterparts.

Essentially, the successful female administrator needs to create a blueprint for personal ownership and professional growth. She is the architect of her future, creating all the changes, building upon personal beliefs and prior experiences, shaping her life by purposes and principles (Ausejo, 1993). In other words, women's motivation for upward

career mobility are influenced by the establishment of a career path or career goals that are set for advancing to upper-level administrative positions.

Based on these findings, the purpose of this study was to explore the motivational factors that influence a woman's decision to pursue upper-level higher education administrative positions. Primarily, the intent of this study was to look to women who have reached the upper-level administrative arena and use Bandura's Model of Reciprocal Determination to investigate in-depth what influential factors were responsible for motivating them to this achievement, specifically self-efficacy, personal behavior, and environmental factors.

According to Bandura's Model (See Appendix B for Figure B1), the person (beliefs and expectancies), behavior and environment interact in ways that have reciprocal influence on each other. For this study, the researcher investigated specific elements of each of the three factors. The researcher examined the first factor of women's career goals and how self-efficacy influenced these goals. Self-efficacy was one of the personal factors in Bandura's model. Bandura (1986) suggested that personal factors affect behaviors and interpretation of environmental cues. Self-efficacy influenced effort, persistence, and choices of responsibility. In this case, women need to possess the confidence in their ability to perform the job and to take on additional responsibilities required in an upper-level administrative position.

Secondly, the study determined how a woman's action or reaction (personal behavior) to situations or events affected her beliefs and attitudes in fulfilling her career goals. Essentially, women need to actually aspire to higher education upper-level administrative roles (career path) and want to move through the requisite career paths

(mobility). Women can help to advance their careers and the profession and to nullify stifling stereotyped images of leaders by being well-prepared and qualified for the position (Gupton & Slick, 1996).

Finally, this study considered the role of a mentor, the organizational structure and culture (the environmental factors) in a woman's decision toward career advancement. Mentoring was determined to be critical for women aspiring to higher education administrative positions. Stewart (1986) found that for women's career development, mentoring had a positive effect on goal achievement, timely introduction into administrative professions, role model identification, network expansion, and political familiarity with the institution. In addition, a person's inability to understand or become fully integrated into the structure, reward system, and culture can lead to powerlessness, frustration, and even failure. For that reason, the structure and culture of the organization should provide opportunities and not limit access for women to attain experiences in the organization and prepare them for attaining administrative positions (Kanter, 1993; Wernick, 1994).

Research Questions

An understanding of motivation can serve as a valuable tool for understanding the causes of behavior in any organization, which in turn helps to predict the effects of any action within the working environment and directs behavior so that individual goals can be achieved (Nadler & Lawler, 1977). With this in mind, this study answered the following overarching question along with four sub-questions related to Bandura's model of self-efficacy, personal behaviors, environmental factors and the interaction of these three components:

What motivational factors are perceived by women to influence their decision to pursue upper-level administrative positions?

1. What are the perceptions of women's self-efficacy related to career advancement?
2. How do women's career path, mobility, and overall skills (personal behaviors) affect their beliefs and attitudes towards career advancement?
3. What are women's perceptions of the affects from outside influences or environmental factors, such as organizational structure, the campus culture, or mentors in regard to their career advancement?
4. In what ways do self-efficacy, personal behaviors, and environmental factors interact to influence women's motivation towards career advancement?

Together the responses to these questions created a composite of the factors influencing women's motivation to pursue upper-level administrative positions in higher education administration.

Methodology

A multi-case study approach was used to provide a more in-depth understanding of the motivational factors affecting women's decision to advance in their careers, specifically to upper-level administrative positions. According to Merriam (1998), a qualitative case study "is an intensive, holistic description and analysis of a single instance, phenomenon, or social unit" (p. 27). The topic of this study was women's motivation to pursue upper-level administrative position in higher education. The sources of data included in the study were: (1) in-depth, semi-structured, individual

interviews with each female and (2) pertinent documents related to their career progression, (e.g., vita, organizational chart, etc.). Each respondent had the opportunity to choose the method of interview, either face-to-face or telephone, depending upon which method would work best within her schedule. All respondents, except one, chose telephone interviews. The one participant who chose the face-to-face interview was located fairly close in proximity to the researcher and thus, preferred to be interviewed in person rather than by telephone.

With the variety of higher education institutions located in the U.S. ranging from public to private, small to large enrollments, and masters emphasis to doctorate research extensive, participant selection was achieved using purposive sampling (Patton, 1990) in order to satisfy criteria seen as having the potential to enhance its descriptive quality. Goetz and LeCompte (1984) refer to this type of sampling as criterion-based whereby a predetermined set of criteria or list of attributes possessed by the participants is used for selection.

For this study, participants were identified from one specific type of higher education institution, land-grant college or institution. Using the land-grant system provided the opportunity to receive a sample of participants from institutions with similar roles and missions and located in each of the fifty states.

The land-grant college or university is an institution that has been designated by its state legislature or Congress to receive the benefits of the Morrill Acts of 1862 and 1890. The original mission of these institutions, as set forth in the first Morrill Act, was to teach agriculture, military tactics, and the mechanic arts as well as classical studies so that members of the working classes could obtain a liberal, practical education. Thus, the

original 19th century beliefs were that the land-grant university exists to provide (1) broad access to higher education, irrespective of wealth or social status, (2) educate and train the professional cadres of an industrial, increasingly urban society, and (3) to strengthen and defend American democracy by improving and assuring the welfare and social status of the largest, most disadvantaged groups in society (Bonnen, 1996).

Exploration of the early historical materials tells one that the land-grant idea was not about a specific institutional arrangement, but was a set of beliefs about the social role of the university in society (Bonnen, 1996). In addition, the land-grant institutions have not shown the same trend in representation of women at the upper administrative ranks. The executive/administrative/managers category employed 28.9% women in 1987, 32.5% in 1991, 37.5% in 1997, and 38.0% in 2001 (see Table A-3). In 2001, land-grant institutions had almost 6% less representation of women at the executive branch than did all four-year public institutions. Given this set of beliefs as well as the gap in the percentage of women in executive positions, the participants from land-grant institutions provided a unique view of higher education administration, especially from a woman's aspect.

Because this study focused on women who were currently employed in upper-level higher education administrative positions, participants who were invited must be considered successful in their careers. For this study, success is defined as retaining an upper-level administrative position for at least three years. By using women acknowledged to be successful, the study had an advantage of exploring the critical decisions and behaviors encountered by women in upper-level administrative positions. Furthermore, the interviews were more informative because success fosters openness.

These participants were likely to be more comfortable in describing their contributions and experiences in their career paths and at the same time, recognize the contributions of others. The cohort invited to participate in this study consisted of 61 upper-level female administrators.

Significance of the Study

Because of the glacial pace of change in the advancement of women to upper-level administrative positions, the low percentage of women in these positions has been perpetuated by setting subtle limitations on other women's perceptions of what is possible and thus, the overall reward or value of striving to achieve career goals. This topic has suggested the importance of a study that emphasized success rather than failure; what enhanced rather than what inhibited; and how aspirations were achieved rather than how they were foiled.

Extensive studies have been conducted to identify external as well as the internal barriers impeding women's career advancement. These studies have also provided strategies to overcome these barriers. However, academic institutions, bound as they are to tradition and somewhat isolated from the demands of the outside world, are by nature more resistant to change than other kinds of organizations (Abramson, 1975; Bundy, 1974). Thus, this study provided an alternative approach by focusing on the individual rather than changing an entire culture or the behaviors and beliefs of an institution. In addition, this study considered the organizational readiness of women and recommended the professional development strategies necessary to prepare women for upper-level administrative leadership roles.

The Career Development Quarterly noted the need for more studies in the investigation of motivation as it relates to diverse racial groups and women and career development (Flores et al., 2003). A small amount is known about what motivates minority groups and women as compared to what is known about what motivates Caucasians and men. By revealing the lives of women in this study and attempting to construct meaning from their voices, not only can the organization as a whole better understand the motivational factors of women in upper-level administrative positions, but women themselves can begin or continue to understand and move to erase or minimize their feelings of isolation, anger, and a personal disconnection from their institution (Lightfoot & Davis, 1997; Nisbet, 1976; Spradley, 1979).

Finally, the campus commissions on the status of women have tended to seek consensus and equity, but not deal with fundamental change in the individual. By conducting in-depth interviews with members of the upper-level women administrator cohort, this study contributed needed information to assist woman organizations at higher education institutions with programs and initiatives that would advance the careers of other women in the profession. More importantly, these programs and initiatives influenced the future of women in higher education, specifically those women aspiring to advance into upper-level administration.

Delimitations

Several parameters were established for this study. First, women who were invited to participate in this study were currently employed at a university designated as a land-grant college or university through the 1862 Morrill Act. All these universities are public four-year research universities except for one private institution. Sixty-one

women were invited to participate, which represented 37 of the 50 designated land-grant universities. Since the study's intent was to identify motivational factors that influence women's decisions to pursue upper-level administrative positions, the best source to identify those factors was from the women who currently held upper-level administrative positions. Thus, only women who currently hold one of the three upper-level administrative positions (president, provost, or vice-president) within their specific institutions and had been in that position or similar position at another land-grant university for at least three years continuously were interviewed. Finally, interviews were conducted during the summer between May and September.

Limitations

For the women in upper-level administrative positions (president, provost, vice-presidents), time was a limited resource. For that reason, a lengthy in-depth interview or a series of interviews may not have been possible for the women who declined to participate. In addition, for those who did participate, time was also a factor by limiting the length of interview to 90 minutes, and all but one of the interviews were conducted by telephone. The telephone interviews were convenient for the interviewee as well as the researcher, but observation of the participants in their own environment and gaining a feel for the institutional environment and culture were lost. Furthermore, in higher education, career paths were different for each of the upper-level administrative positions. For example, the vice-president for finance may not require faculty rank and tenure, but the chief academic officer must have faculty rank and tenure. Thus, the women interviewed have had varied backgrounds and different experiences on their pathway to upper-level administration.

Definitions

Academic Leadership: Colleges and universities are unique in that the functions of teaching and research give great authority to a decentralized faculty rather than to a centralized administration. Administration in higher education is often viewed as providing support for the faculty, rather than the faculty members providing support for administrative activities (this is a working definition for this study).

Career Path: A process in which individuals identify skills, knowledge, and performance criteria needed to move to the next employment level. This is a process by which individuals are empowered to plan his/her own growth and advancement. In addition, it shows the route taken by individuals to move from one level of employment to the next in order to reach their career goal (U.S. Glass Ceiling Commission, 1993).

Executive, administrative, and managerial: A primary function or occupational activity category used to classify persons whose assignments require management of the institution, or a customarily recognized department or subdivision thereof. Assignments require the performance of work directly related to management policies or general business operations of the institution, department or subdivision. Assignments in this category customarily and regularly require the incumbent to exercise discretion and independent judgment. Included in this category are postsecondary education administrators such as: presidents, vice presidents, deans, directors, department heads, and including assistants and associates (NCES, 2005).

Formal mentoring: Supportive relationships occur when a particular mentee is paired with a mentor to help him or her learn and understand the processes and culture of higher education. The institution officially supports mentoring relationships and plays a

role in facilitating mentoring relationships by providing some level of structure and guidelines (this is a working definition for this study).

Glass Ceiling: Artificial barriers based on attitudinal or organizational bias in which qualified individuals are prevented from advancing upward in their organization (US Glass Ceiling Commission, 1991).

Informal mentoring: Supportive relationships just happen because of mutual identification, interpersonal comfort, and compatible chemistry. Through informal mentoring, the two get together to share ideas and learn, and it is the primary responsibility of the mentor or mentee to initiate, maintain, and end a relationship with little or no official institutional support (this is a working definition for this study).

Mentor: Supportive relationships where older and experienced adults contribute to younger colleagues career development (Kanter, 1977).

Mentoring: Described as a set of roles or role activities. This would include coaching or teaching, whereby the coach or teacher develops many interpersonal and intellectual skills in their protégés. In addition, mentors are counselors who provide socioemotional support and seek to bolster self-confidence and self-esteem of protégés. As sponsors, mentors actively intervene on behalf of their protégé to give them exposure and visibility through assignments or other work opportunities which endorses their protégés for promotions or special projects (Kram, 1985).

Mobility: Conceptualized as a movement from one job to another through a sequence of jobs (Spilerman, 1983).

Motivation: A desire to accomplish something or reach a standard (Hoy & Miskel, 2005). People decide what to do on the basis of their goals and their assessments of whether or not various behavioral alternatives will lead to these goals.

Multi-case study: A form of qualitative descriptive research, the case study looks intensely at an individual or small participant pool, drawing conclusions only about that participant or group and only in that specific context. For this study, several participants were used to gain an in-depth understanding of the situation and meaning of those involved, thus a multi-case study (Merriam, 1998).

Other professional (support/service): A primary function or occupational activity category used to classify persons employed for the primary purpose of performing academic support, student service, and institutional support, whose assignments would require either a baccalaureate degree or higher or experience of such kind and amount as to provide a comparable background. Included in this category are all employees holding titles such as specialists; analysts; planners; accountants and auditors; computer programmers; computer software engineers; database administrators; network and computer systems administrators; counselors; librarians, curators and archivists; coaches (NCES, 2005).

Self-efficacy: Individual's beliefs in their abilities to perform particular behaviors successfully and are developed from their experiences with the effects of their own past behavior (Bandura, 1977, 1982).

Success: The achievement of something desired, planned, or attempted (The American Heritage Dictionary, 1981). Specifically, for this study, success is defined as

the attainment of an upper-level administrative position in a higher education institution and remaining in the position for at least three years.

Upper- or senior-level administration: Positions that oversee major administrative units within higher education, such as president, chancellor, provost, chief academic officer, vice-president. These positions are considered the highest or next highest level within a given position listing and require direct reporting to the institution's highest administrative level or board (this is a working definition for this study).

Value system: A coherent set of enduring beliefs or ideals adopted or evolved by a person, organization, or a society about what is good or desirable and what is not, and influences the behavior of an individual and serve as broad guidelines in all situations (this is a working definition for this study).

Summary

In this chapter, a brief historical background of the status of administrative women in higher education was provided. Statistics indicated that women have succeeded in making significant strides toward establishing themselves within the higher education administrative arena. On the other hand, the statistics also showed significant gaps in employment of women in one primary area of administration – upper-level (decision making) positions. In addition, this chapter described some of the barriers faced by women and the leadership roles of women. This chapter introduced the concept of motivation and how it relates to a woman's career advancement. The research questions, purpose and significance of the study, limitations and delimitations were also addressed. Chapter 2 expands further on what was briefly described in this chapter. While the body of literature is extensive, the review presented is limited to five areas, (1) history and

background, (2) motivational theories, specifically Bandura's Model of Reciprocal Determination, which will be the foundation of this study, (3) personal beliefs, primarily self-efficacy, (4) personal behaviors which would include career paths, mobility, and leadership skills, and (5) environmental factors such as culture, organizational structures, and mentorship.

Chapter 3 describes the research design and methodology used to collect and analyze the data. A brief overview of the participants is also provided in Chapter 3. Chapter 4 presents a summary of the findings and examines the findings in relation to the original research questions. Finally, Chapter 5 summarizes the study, presents and discusses the implications of the overarching themes and provides recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

Even with the extensive quantity of research conducted to identify barriers hindering women's career advancement in higher education and the steps to dissolve these barriers, the progress of women advancing into upper-level administrative positions has been relatively slow. Basically, women have a higher rate of employment but a lower likelihood of professional advancement (Glazer-Raymo, 1999) in higher education. Based on the historical understanding of American's patriarchal past, it is fathomable that the resistance and friction encountered by professional women in their daily professional activities and their struggle for equality are simply the embodiment of resistance to change (Oakes, 1999). Change clearly does not come in a gentle evolutionary way and women have ceased to wait for this, with many leaving the profession and others giving up on ambitions to reach the top.

Women's academic careers are a barometer of change in higher education, and their accumulated experience shows that there will have to be a more profound change for real power-sharing to happen (Spurling, 1997). However, perceptions of roles and behaviors appropriate for women are slow to change. One can change the structure and processes at work in a particular situation more readily than one can change people's behaviors directly (Kanter, 1993; Madden, 2002).

Tinsley (1985) questions the ability of organizational and institutional cultures within higher education to accept change within dominant culture. The resistance to change is often demonstrated through questions about a woman's ability to "fit in" within the sociopolitical culture of the university. Tinsley further elaborates on the comfort

observed within organizational behavior as seen by those chosen as leaders and those relegated to support positions. This study's focus is not to find steps to promote organizational change, but to explore motivational factors that influence women's decision to move upward in their higher education careers. As women obtain a greater share of leadership positions at all organizational levels, it becomes important to objectively study their behaviors and strategies for success (Mark, 1986), in order to promote changes in the individual's beliefs and perceptions.

The purpose of this chapter is to review the current literature examining the motivational theories, in particular, Bandura's motivational theory of reciprocal determination which was used to structure this study. This literature review first describes the historical organizational and structural changes that have occurred to assist in women's efforts to advance in their careers. It then provides an overview of the motivational theories followed by a discussion about the components of Bandura's theory, specifically personal beliefs, personal behavior, and environment. Because these components are fairly broad, the researcher included only the specific factors within each component that the literature supported as contributing significantly to the study of a woman's career advancement. However, the researcher was not limited to these specific factors in the interviews and allowed additional items to emerge. In a sense, the factors discussed in this chapter provided a place to start the conversation. Overall, the goal of this review is to promote a fuller understanding of motivation as an important "ingredient" influencing a woman's decision to advance in her career.

History and Background

In 1792, Mary Wollstone-Craft published her book A Vindication of the Rights of Woman in England. She rebuked the notion that women's purpose was to give men pleasure and children, and she further advocated that equal rights be extended to women in political, educational, and workforce endeavors (Oakes, 1999). Ms. Wollstone-Craft was probably considered eccentric by most people's standards and ostracized by men and women alike by making such bold statements regarding the equal rights of women in a strongly patriarchal society.

Almost 130 years after Ms. Wollstone-Craft published her book, women finally obtained the right to vote in the United States, which signified public and political recognition of the female mind. In addition, other numerous factors fundamental to women's traditional dependency on men changed early in the twentieth century. For example, couples began to plan smaller families. Electrical household appliances allowed housewives more spare time (Oakes, 1999). During World War II and preceding the depression, women were launched into the work force to help support their families. Rosenberg (1992) points out the effect that World War II had on employment opportunities for women in that it "dramatically increased the options for their livelihoods in a way that political organizations had been unable to accomplish" (p. 126). Still, the context following the war led to women's reinstatement as "homemakers," whose primary responsibility was not bread-winning, but bread-baking. They were encouraged to "live your gender" and, as mothers, to be "ever present, but never controlling" (p. 151). Women were again discouraged from participating in higher

education, as it represented turning away from a woman's family. The tendency, then, was for women to derive their power from the limited social sphere of their family.

With the rapid industrial advancements, jobs were created that could be done by either sex. But, for women, working outside the home had three purposes (1) temporary activity until marriage, (2) supplement husband's income, and (3) a substitute for husband's income because of illness, death, or having left the home (Mark, 1986).

In 1961, the Commission on Status of Women was established by President Kennedy, to examine the status of women in the labor force and in education (Levandowski, 1977). Then, in 1966 the National Organization of Women was founded. This organization proactively sought equality for women in work, compensation, and other public arenas (Oakes, 1999). The 1970s and 1980s brought to the forefront differing views about how and in what direction women should proceed. Divorce reform, reproductive rights, employment opportunities, and the Equal Rights Amendment served to fuel the women's movement (Ropers-Huilman, 1998).

Research studies indicate that the degree of under-utilization and under representation increase in direct proportion to the degree of power associated with the role in question (Woo, 1985). A good example is in 1994, whereby women represented 51.2% of the U.S. population. White males, on the other hand, comprised only 33% of the U.S. population, but represented 88% of tenured professors, 90% of membership in the House of Representatives, 92% of the Forbes 500 CEOs, 97% of the school superintendents, and 100% of the U.S. Presidents (Jackson, 1995). Surveys by the Families and Work Institute revealed that 41% of employees nationwide agreed in 1997

that men should be the breadwinner and women should care for the home and children, down from 64% in 1977 (Bond, Galinsky, & Swanberg, 1997).

Female Administrators

The historical literature on women's administrative status is important because it illustrates women's achievement to enter post-secondary education as a student. In addition, it shows the meager progress made in the advancement of women into upper-level higher education administrative positions.

In 1836, the first women's college was established in Macon, Georgia (The Wesleyan Female College). When Oberlin College admitted female students in 1837, this was the first time women gained entry to higher education institutions in the United States (Chamberlain, 1988). More importantly, it was almost 50 years later (1871) that Frances Willard was the first woman to be named to a presidency of an American college (Evanston College for Women). Sophia Smith was the first woman to establish and lead a college (Smith College) in 1875. She was an exception to the rule since most presidents of other women's colleges were men (Neal, 1991).

Prior to the Civil War, three private colleges in Ohio and two state universities, Utah and Iowa, admitted women. As a result of declining enrollments after the Civil War, more colleges and universities opened their doors to women. Opportunities for women's education began at Vassar College in 1865. Vassar was among the earliest to offer women curricula comparable to men. Smith and Wellesley opened in 1875 while Bryn Mawr and Mount Holyoke opened in the 1880s (Graham, 1978).

The American Council on Education (ACE) Fellows program began in 1965, which prepared senior leaders to move into higher education presidential or chief

executive officer position. The Office of Women in Higher Education (OWHE) was established in 1972 by the American Council on Education (ACE) in order to document the lack of women in senior positions and advocate for equal opportunities for women candidates. In 1977, OWHE established the National Identification Program (NIP) to recognize promising female administrators and assist them in preparing for presidencies (Nidiffer, 2001).

Of all the students attending post-secondary U.S. institutions in 1994, 90% were attending institutions with the top three administrative offices held by men (Sadker & Sadker, 1994). Women tend to be clustered in entry level positions within administrative staffs, are more likely to be found in staff positions or positions that are considered peripheral to the primary mission of the institution, or hold positions such as dean of women, director of library services, director of food services, and dean of home economics or nursing (Frances & Mensel, 1981; Keller, 1983; Ross & Green, 1990; Sagaria & Johnsrud, 1991).

According to Knopp (1995), women held 48% of all administrative positions in academic affairs, 47% in student services, 35% in admissions, and 27% in other executive positions. Knopp argued these percentages demonstrated that women held positions mainly in “traditional” areas and made only limited progress in representation in the CEO arena. On the other hand, Touchton and Ingram (1995) found that 453 women or 16% were presidents of regionally accredited colleges and universities in 1995 compared to 148 (6%) two decades earlier. Slightly half of the women presidents in 1995 were in public colleges and universities which is a dramatic change from 1975 (11%) and

1984 (36%). In 1995, two thirds of the women presidents presided over 4-year private and public institutions (see Table A-4).

While these data may be viewed as positive strides for women and show that women have made significant inroads into higher education administration, it also indicates that the “ascent of women into top leadership positions does not happen by accident,” (Walton & McDade, 2001, pp. 85-86). In other words, it is the women’s responsibility to choose experiences which will prepare them to assume administrative positions (Moore, 1987).

Motivational Theories

Motivation is perceived as the central focus to understanding behavior and is a concept used to describe forces that initiate or direct behavior. Motivation is not measured directly. Instead, a stimulus is manipulated and then the behavior is measured in the form of a response. In other words, motivation serves to link the stimulus change to the behavior change and provides a possible explanation for this relationship (Petri, 1991). Essentially, the study of motivation is based on a theory built on a set of assumptions about the nature of people and about the factors that give impetus to action (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

Research in motivation may be classified as falling along a continuum that proceeds from strictly nomothetic approaches to idiographic approaches. The nomothetic approach involves research in determining how people or animals are similar. On the other end of the continuum, the idiographic approach proposes that behavior is understood by examining how people are different from each other (Petri, 1991).

Humanism

One example of an idiographic approach is the humanistic motivation theory. Humanist theory, according to Weiner (1980), recognizes that “individuals have a higher understanding of nature, with a need for meaningful work, responsibility, and an opportunity for creative expression.” (p. 409). The humanistic existential view considers that a human being is essentially free to choose his or her own way of life. According to one of the chief proponents of humanism, Sartre, human beings create their own outcomes. This is done freely and creatively using their own resources (Cavalier, 2000). Humanism sees each person as an individual capable of growth and adjustment. In addition, humanistic psychology places confidence in one’s capacity for growth to achieve new dimensions of living by actualizing his or her potential as a free, competent, and creative human being.

Motivation may also be studied by examining the source of the motivation, internal versus external. For instance, needs are often considered internal sources of motivation that activate and direct behavior to items in the environment to alleviate some state of deprivation. Content theories focus on understanding specific desires, needs, or motives that propel an individual’s behavior. Maslow’s (1943) hierarchy of needs theory assesses how behavior is affected in accordance with two basic principles – the deficit and progression principles. The deficit principle centers on individuals striving to satisfy unfulfilled needs, whilst the progression principle indicates that an individual’s needs only become important to accomplish once all former needs are adequately satisfied. Basically, Maslow found that physiological or life-supporting needs must be met before one would feel safe, secure or comfortable. Once these lower level needs are met, people

would feel comfortable with love, sense of wholeness, and belonging. The final two levels that would be achieved are esteem or feelings of confidence and mastery and finally self-actualization (Maslow, 1971). A self-actualized person is doing what he/she is best suited to do. Basically, these needs are related to each other with the fulfillment of each need being prerequisite to fulfillment at the next level. Gratification of needs at one level allows a higher level of need to emerge. Maslow contends that the first three levels are regularly satisfied and no longer have much motivational effect. However, the last two levels are rarely satisfied and must be continually sought after (Maslow, 1970). Maslow notes that not all behavior is determined by needs. External factors are rarely an exclusive explanation for behavior and must be interpreted in terms of the individual. Maslow considers social factors to be an integral part of an individual's external field.

The external sources, such as goal objects or social relationship, are examined as to how these are affected by motivation (Petri, 1991). Essentially, motivation seems to be a factor in completing goals (Weiner, 1980). The major role of motivation is in continually regulating and actively directing behavior toward a goal object. Motivation transforms segmental activities into a meaningful action (Nuttin, 1984).

Achievement Motivation

The expectancy of reaching valued goals is an important aspect of social learning theory. At the same time, the expectancy and valued goals have played an important role in the development of achievement motivation theories. The research cited on achievement motivation exemplifies expectancy-value theory in that the need for achievement is a stable personality characteristic. In other words, people have a motive for success and a fear of failure. According to Petri (1991), achievement behavior is

dependent upon one's expectancy of succeeding in a particular situation and the value of reaching the goal in terms of pride of accomplishment or shame of failure.

Achievement motivation is defined as a tendency to strive toward performance excellence. This theory is perceived as a result of an individual's tendency to approach success, to avoid failure, and seek extrinsic rewards, which in turn is determined by intrinsic motives to achieve (Thorne, 1995).

Expectancy Theory

Expectancy theory relates choices to outcomes. Individuals assess the probability of success if a certain behavior is performed and choose to act based on the probability of certain outcomes, which may be intrinsic or extrinsic (Nadler & Lawler, 1977). Self-determination theories are developed through the choices individuals make and the behavior toward the interaction with and mastery of one's environment. Self-determination is the capacity and need to choose and to have these choices be determinant of one's actions (Deci & Ryan, 1991).

According to expectancy motivation theory, effort, performance, and outcomes determine motivation. High motivation develops when individuals believe a realistic amount of effort will result in successful performance leading to desired outcomes. When an individual does not expect performance to bring a desired result, then effort will not be worth expending and motivation will be low. Thus, the key to motivation is to understand those elements that will enhance the linkages between effort and performance and outcomes (Nahavandi, 1997). As a cognitive choice theory, expectancy theory focuses on the manner in which decisions are made regarding allocation of effort, highlighting key components of the motivation process, such as effort-performance and

desired outcomes, and how they work together intrinsically and extrinsically as the basis for such decisions (Mowday & Nam, 1997).

Herzberg (2003), author of Motivational-Hygiene Theory, focused his study on the question, “What do people want from their jobs?” Basically, Herzberg determined that it is only from the performance of the task that the individual can get the rewards that will reinforce his aspirations (p. 114). The hygiene factors described by Herzberg (2003) would include company policy, salary, interpersonal relations, and working conditions. Herzberg developed two theories: (1) workers can become dissatisfied with their jobs when these factors are absent or lacking, and (2) the presence of these factors does not necessarily increase job satisfaction. Herzberg suggests that authentic job satisfaction is derived from internal, self-actualization factors.

Argyris’ (1957) Predisposition Model attempts to explain work motivation as it relates to the job. Individuals produce work energy for personal gain and individual needs are influenced by the organizational context. Jobs should be structured so that they allow individuals to develop naturally and provide maximum motivation.

Finally, motivation may be triggered automatically by changes in internal or external states or it is controlled by rational or purposeful thought. The most significant dichotomy is that of the mechanistic and the cognitive view of the nature of motivation. Mechanists are interested in the internal needs such as drives, reflexes, instincts, and their interrelating mechanisms as well as innate patterns of behavior. Cognitive approaches have more to do with people’s efforts to achieve something and the manner in which information is interpreted (Marsh, 1981). The cognitive approach assumes that the

manner in which information is interpreted influences motive states, such as attribution theory.

Attribution Theory

To understand why people behave the way that they do, we must understand the processes by which people attribute the causes of events. Attribution theory attempts to help gain such an understanding. Fritz Heider, considered to be the founder of Attribution Theory, looked at the causal structure of the environment, or the underlying causes of events that would explain or give meaning to the motives of human behavior (Weiner, 1980). Factors of explanation would include effort, ability, and goals.

Attribution theory has been applied most directly to achievement by Bernard Weiner. An attribution is a causal explanation of one of those events. Weiner's approach assumed that inferences we make about our abilities primarily result from past experiences. Weiner (1985) contends that past successes will lead us to conclude that we have certain abilities, while past failures will reduce our beliefs in our abilities. Basically, a person will evaluate the outcome (either success or failure), attribute this outcome to a particular cause, elicit an emotional reaction, and then respond in a particular way. Attributional responses vary along three casual dimensions: (1) locus of control, internal verses external; (2) stability and instability; and (3) controllability or the amount of effort and persistence an individual devotes to a task.

Rotter's internal-external locus of control construct is not strictly motivational. However, it is conceived to be a generalized expectancy construct concerning one's ability to control the reinforcement one receives (Petri, 1991). Basically, locus of control is the general belief that one's behavior can have an impact on the environment and that

one is capable of controlling outcomes through one's own behavior. Although it sounds similar to self-efficacy expectancy, locus of control is a generalized outcome expectancy because it is concerned with the extent to which one believes one's behavior controls outcomes, not confidence in one's ability to perform certain behaviors (Bandura, 1986).

Therefore, attribution theory emphasizes cognitive information processing which is crucial to understanding behavior. Attribution approaches generally acknowledge the importance of motives in generating attributions or the future direction of behavior. Thus, the attribution of past success to high ability probably serves to motivate future achievement behaviors.

Intrinsic Motivation

Another cognitive model from Edward L. Deci (1972) proposed intrinsic motivation which emphasized dual themes of competence and control. Intrinsic motivation generates behaviors that cause a person to feel competent and self-determining. Choices are made from information available or from memory. These decisions are also based on subjective states such as attitudes and feelings. According to Deci, the energy that drives behavior is the awareness that goals can be obtained with potential satisfaction then activates behaviors to lead to the goal. Once the goal is obtained, the reward occurs.

Rewards may be of three types, extrinsic, intrinsic, and affective. Extrinsic rewards refer to behaviors that are performed to achieve some externally prized consequence, not out of interest or a personal desire for mastery. Intrinsic reward involves the feeling of competence one has after successfully completing a task. Affective reward is the positive emotional experience that one gains when a goal is

reached. Although affective reward and intrinsic reward appear to be very similar, presumably, one could feel competent without feeling good about it (Petri, 1991).

Behaviorism

In contrast, the behaviorist attempts to understand human behavior in terms of rules overlooking the person who is behaving. Behaviorism is the motivational theory of learning from the consequences of your actions and seeing what happens to your behavior. Traditional behaviorist theory is based on the original work of John Watson at the beginning of the century. Watson, and later B.F. Skinner, insisted that human behavior must be understood in terms of natural forces which are observable and measurable. Their attention focused on the environment as the primary determiner of behavior. Essentially, for Watson and Skinner's behaviorism, the person counts very little (Cavalier, 2000).

Social Learning Theory

Social learning theory inserts the person back into the model, but still insists on the behavioral paradigm of observation and measurement. Albert Bandura is the leading proponent of social learning theory. Bandura modified the behaviorist view on environmental determinism to include personal variables such as beliefs. Social cognitive theory deals with cognitive and emotional aspects of human behavior. Bandura broadened this theory to include environmental factors (Bandura 2001). Bandura asserted that people acquire and maintain behavioral changes in response to environmental factors. According to Bandura, people and environmental factors are constantly influencing each other, and consequently affecting human behaviors. Bandura

used the term reciprocal determinism, in which the environment, behavior, and the person interact in ways that have reciprocal influence on each other.

Social cognitive theory is an approach to understanding human cognition, action, motivation, and emotion that assumes people are capable of self-reflection and self-regulation and are active shapers of their environments rather than simple passive reactors to them. Basically, people have powerful symbolizing capabilities that allow for internal models of experience, the development of innovative courses of action, the hypothetical testing of such courses of action through the prediction of outcomes, and the communication of complex ideas and experiences to others. Most behavior is purposive or goal-directed and is guided by forethought. People are self-reflective and capable of analyzing and evaluating their own thoughts and experiences. People are capable of self-regulation by influencing direct control over their own behavior and by selecting or altering environmental conditions that, in turn, influence their behavior. People adopt personal standards for their behavior, evaluate their behavior against these standards, and thus create their own incentives that motivate and guide behavior. People learn vicariously by observing other people's behavior and its consequences. Environmental events, inner personal factors, and behavior are mutually interacting influences (Maddux, 1995).

In order to understand motivated behavior, we must examine how learning contributes to its development. A large part of human behavior is a result of vicarious learning or from simply observing others. Bandura (1977) argued that humans are neither compelled by inner forces as is suggested by Freudian model, nor totally controlled by the environment as held by strict behaviorist model. Rather, humans

function as a result of the interactions between particular behaviors and the conditions that control them. In this case, considerable emphasis is placed on vicarious, symbolic, and self-regulatory processes as determiners of behavior.

The study of motivation is broad and may be analyzed using four main categories, physiological, individual, social, and philosophical. Although each of these levels of analysis is important, the focus for this study was on the individual analysis. Basically, the study of motivation at the individual level involves understanding motivational changes that occur within a person as a result of internal or external conditions. This level is conducted in order to provide insight into the important motivational factors that influence the behavior of the individual (Petri, 1991).

Bandura's research is important for an understanding of motivation at the individual level because it strongly suggests that some motivated behaviors are learned through observation. Learning through observation (modeling) allows for building patterns of behavior, rather than doing it by trial and error. One also learns to be motivated by particular objects in his or her environment and he/she learns emotional responses to particular situations through modeling. Observed behaviors are stored symbolically and retrieved at some later time to guide behavior. Bandura (1977) contends that observational learning is a major way in which learning occurs in humans.

Motives are personal possessions which have subjective reality. Motivated behavior, on the other hand, is evaluative which implies choice and decisions. Evaluating and deciding are distinctly human acts. Human decision making is an integrating process that takes account of the multiplicity of variables including facts, values, and feelings. Human nature, therefore, is best seen in terms of purpose and values rather than in terms

of previously rewarded behavior. To understand human behavior is very different from explaining behavior (Cavalier, 2000).

Triarchic Theory

A triarchic theory proposed by Cavalier (2000) provides a useful rationale for how people function. The triarchic theory calls for a modified open systems approach whereby three motivational subsystems are seen as autonomous, interactive, and highly independent. The first component is the formative motivational system, which consists of all developmental experiences and provides color and quality to life. Formative motives also include attitudes and habits. Operational motivational system includes all current awareness, evaluation, judgments, and decisions. Basically, operational motives are those acted upon and lived through from day to day. They evoke conscious participation on the part of the individual to make decisions and choices. The thematic motivational system includes directional activity of the person in terms of life's purpose, goals, and ultimate values in living.

In summary, emerging motivational theories are struggling with the notions of authentic agency, free will, and self-determination. The source of motivation increasingly is being seen as something inside the person, an intrinsic part that needs to be supported or elicited rather than established. Eliciting natural motivation requires supportive interpersonal interactions and environments that provide for autonomy support and a match of personal and organizational goals (McCombs, 1994).

Bandura's Motivational Model

Bandura (1989) contends that within a system of "triadic reciprocal causation" self-generated influences are just one source of human action along with other personal

factors (background) and the environment which both have a determining influence on action. Essentially, persons are neither autonomous agents nor mechanical conveyors of environmental influences. Because self-generated influences are contributing factors, personal behaviors operate within an interactional causal structure.

The following sections will take a closer look at the literature related to the three components of Bandura's model. Although several factors and elements can be discussed, for this study the review is limited to the factors related to a woman's career advancement. First, personal belief of self efficacy will be discussed, then the personal behaviors of leadership skills, mobility and career path, and finally the environmental cues which includes culture, organizational structures, and mentoring.

Personal Beliefs

Self Efficacy

One of the beliefs that promote autonomy is the strength of personal self-efficacy. As efficacy increases, individuals feel a greater sense of control, which leads to less anxiety, greater persistence, more task-related effort, and better use of feedback. In other words, high self-efficacy positively affects performance, whereas good performance, in turn, positively affects one's sense of self-efficacy. However, self-efficacy should not be confused with general self-esteem. According to Bandura (1990), self-efficacy is a judgment of one's ability to perform a task within a specific domain. High efficacy in one setting does not guarantee high efficacy in another.

Self-efficacy theory is one of the more recent in a long tradition of personal competence or efficacy theories, and has generated more research in clinical, social, and personality psychology in the past decade and a half than other such models and theories

The crux of self-efficacy theory is that the “initiation of and persistence at behaviors and courses of action are determined primarily by judgments and expectations concerning behavioral skills and capabilities and the likelihood of being able to successfully cope with environmental demands and challenges,” (Maddux, 1995, p. 4). Essentially, self-efficacy theory maintains that all processes of psychological and behavioral change operate through the alteration of the individual’s sense of personal mastery or self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977, 1982b, 1986).

Originally, self-efficacy was defined as a specific type of expectancy concerned with one’s beliefs in one’s ability to perform a specific behavior or set of behaviors required to produce an outcome (Bandura, 1977). The definition has expanded to refer to “people’s beliefs about their capabilities to exercise control over events that affect their lives” (Bandura, 1989, p. 1175), and their “beliefs in their capabilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources, and courses of action needed to exercise control over task demands” (Bandura, 1990, p. 316). Thus, self-efficacy judgments are concerned “not with the skills one has but with judgments of what one can do with whatever skills one possesses” (Bandura, 1986, p. 391).

Self-efficacy expectations are viewed as varying along three dimensions: magnitude, strength, and generality (Bandura, 1977, 1982b, 1986). Magnitude of self-efficacy, in a hierarchy of behaviors, refers to the number of steps of increasing difficulty or threat a person believes himself capable of performing. Strength of self-efficacy expectancy refers to the person’s unwavering convictions that he or she can perform a behavior in question. Most studies rely on unidimensional measures of self-efficacy expectancy that most resemble the strength dimension. In other words, research focuses

on the confidence in one's ability to perform a behavior under certain situations (Maddux, 1995). Generality of self-efficacy expectancies refers to the extent to which success or failure experiences influence self-efficacy expectancies in a limited, behaviorally specific manner, or whether changes in self-efficacy expectancy extend to other similar behaviors and contexts.

Several factors influence level or magnitude, generality, and strength of self-efficacy. First, successful performance leads to higher self-efficacy and failure leads to lower self-efficacy. Observation of others often improves efficacy, especially when the model is judged to be similar in ability to the observer. Vicarious influences are strongest when observers are uncertain about the difficulty of the task or their own ability. Self-efficacy becomes stronger with verbal persuasion. Depending upon one's psychological state such as sleepiness or physical fatigue, may often lower efficacy even though it may be unrelated to the performance of the task. Also, strong emotional arousal often reduces efficacy, chiefly by invoking fear-inducing thoughts (Bandura, 1986).

Performance experiences (success and failure) are the most powerful sources of self-efficacy information (Bandura, 1977). Success at a task, behavior, or skill strengthens self-efficacy expectancies for that task, behavior, or skill, whereas perceptions of failure diminish self-efficacy expectancies.

Vicarious experiences (observational learning, modeling) influence self-efficacy expectancy when people observe the behavior of others, see what they are able to do, note the consequences of their behavior, and then use this information to form expectancies about their own behavior and consequences. The effects of vicarious experiences depend on such factors as the observer's perception of the similarity between

himself and the model, the number and variety of models, the perceived power of the models, and the similarity between the problems faced by the observer and the model (Bandura, 1986; Schunk, 1986).

Verbal persuasion is less potent source of enduring change in self-efficacy expectancy than performance experiences or vicarious experiences. The potency of verbal persuasion as a source of self-efficacy expectancies should be influenced by such factors as the expertness, trustworthiness, and attractiveness of the source (Maddux, 1995). In addition, Schunk (1986) found that feedback about ability has a stronger effect than feedback about effort. In other words, information regarding ability is linked more closely with one's sense of efficacy than is information about effort.

Self-efficacy beliefs determine people's selections of situations and activities. People enter situations in which they expect success and for which they believe they possess the necessary skill level, and their subsequent success enhances their sense of efficacy. When faced with complex decision making tasks, people who believe strongly in their problem-solving abilities remain highly efficient and effective problem solvers and decision makers. Conversely, those who doubt their abilities become erratic, inefficient, and ineffective. Therefore, people generally choose to enter situations in which they expect to perform successfully and avoid situations in which they anticipate that the demand placed on them will exceed their abilities. However, because people often avoid situations and activities in which they expect not to perform skillfully (although they may have the requisite skills), they deprive themselves of potential success experiences that would counteract their low sense of efficacy (Maddux, 1995).

McClelland (1985) proposed a general behavior theory that considers motivation, incentive value and probability of success to be the major determinants of achievement-related behavior. Probability of success “is determined not only by actual skill but also by the individual’s beliefs about the efficacy of making a response that may be somewhat independent of the individual’s skill in making it” (p. 814). McClelland makes a distinction between beliefs about “efficacy of effort in bringing about a consequence through a particular response in a given situation” and “generalized confidence in which a person that he or she can bring about outcomes through instrumental activities of any kind” (p. 814).

Hackett and Betz (1981) recognized the importance of social cognitive perspectives in informing theory and research on career development, and have proposed some of the ways self-efficacy theory could enrich career development theory. They argued that self-perceptions of ability are more predictive of career choice behavior than commonly used objective ability measures. The problem of the underutilization of women’s talents and abilities in career pursuits and the under representation of women in higher status, higher paying male-dominated occupations has long been a concern. Furthermore, Hackett and Betz hypothesized that traditionally feminine sex-typed experiences in childhood often limit women’s exposure to the sources of information necessary for the development of strong perceptions of efficacy in many occupational areas. Lowered perceived efficacy along important career-related dimensions could, in turn, unduly restrict the types of occupations considered and affect performance and persistence in the pursuit of a chosen occupation.

The more gender-stereotypical an activity or occupation is perceived, the more likely it is that gender differences in self-efficacy will appear (Hackett, et al., 1990). Furthermore, women seem to be more likely to modify their efficacy expectations in response to the gender-stereotypicality of a domain than men. For example, several studies have reported that men's career self-efficacy is similar across occupations, whereas women modify their efficacy expectations upward when anticipating performance in feminine gender-typed domains, and downward with respect to masculine gender-typed domains (Betz & Hackett, 1981; Bridges, 1988; Matsui et al., 1989)

Campbell and Hackett (1986) found a similar pattern of results using a gender stereotypical task. In this study, task success (i.e., successful completion of math or verbal problems) produced enhanced task self-efficacy and, to a lesser extent, increased task interest, whereas task failure resulted in lowered self-efficacy and task interest. Gender differences were found on the gender-stereotypical task (math), but not on the gender neutral task (verbal), and gender differences in attributional patterns were reported. The results suggest that college women tend to ascribe task success externally (e.g., to luck) and task failure internally (e.g., to lack of ability), whereas college men may exhibit the opposite attributional pattern, with successful performance attributed to ability (internal attribution) and unsuccessful performance attributed to task difficulty (external attribution). Women were more strongly and negatively affected by task failure than men.

Research findings strongly suggest that efficacy beliefs not only exert a strong, direct influence on career decision making and career choice, but self-efficacy also significantly affects the development of core vocational choice predictors, such as

interests, values, and goals (Bandura, 1986; Betz & Hackett, 1986; Hackett & Lent, 1992). Expectations concerning mastery or efficacy have generative capability and determine choice of goals and goal-directed actions, expenditures of effort in the pursuit of goals, persistence in the face of adversity or challenges, and emotional or affective experiences (Bandura, 1986; Locke & Latham, 1990). Motivation toward difficult goals is enhanced by overestimates of personal capabilities which then become self-fulfilling prophecies when people set their sights high, persevere, and then surpass their usual level of accomplishment. At the same time, people are more likely to attempt new behaviors and persist in the face of difficulties if they expect improvement in ability to come quickly rather than slowly (Maddux, 1995).

In higher education administration, the lack of positive self-image and low esteem are two of the greatest hurdles to women (Mitchell, 1993a). Essentially, a woman must have a positive self-image, a sense of self-worth, and confidence in her abilities to be considered successful in higher education administration. The high number of women at the support level or right below the upper-level administrative type positions may be explained by the fact that women do not have the self-efficacy or confidence in their abilities to move upward into those positions (Hackett, 1995). In a sense, the more confidence people have in their decision-making capabilities, the more likely they will actively pursue information about their career options.

Research on the sources of career self-efficacy suggests that mastery experiences are powerful contributors to the development of a strong sense of personal efficacy. It is likely, for example, that career-related modeling, encouragement, and lowered anxiety

and arousal not only enhance efficacy directly, but also facilitate successful performance attempts in occupationally related areas (Hackett, 1995).

Kanter (1993) concluded that those with promising career opportunities tend to have high aspirations and self-esteem, to consider work a central part of life, to be more committed to the organization, and to be willing to make more concessions for it. For women, they need to gain self-confidence and understand that they can self-consciously establish a leadership tone just as men so naturally do. They can also indulge their people orientation. Basically, the people one serves, works with, and works for are the beginning and end of managing (Harter, 1993). Essentially, women need to learn that perfection at individual tasks or details means virtually nothing. The translation of focused activity to broad issues or problems is the key to developing an executive perspective.

As the vast majority of research on attitude-behavior relationships has demonstrated, specific cognitive measures predict specific behaviors more accurately than do omnibus or global measures of traits or motives. For this reason, self-efficacy is conceptualized and measured not as a personality trait, but instead, is defined and measured in the context of relatively specific behaviors in specific situations and contexts (Maddux, 1995).

Personal Behaviors

In contrast to personal beliefs, personal behaviors are the responses one makes in a given situation either it be positive or negative. In relation to career development, targeted behaviors would be identified in relation to a specific outcome. For instance, if a woman chooses to seek a senior level administrative position, she must meet certain

criteria such as holding certain positions within the hierarchy, possessing the appropriate educational credentials to assume a position of leadership, and taking control of her career by participating in professional development activities. As supported in the literature review that follows, the targeted behaviors, for a woman in higher education administration, would include her career path decisions, her ability to be mobile, and her actions and styles as a leader.

Career Paths

As was mentioned in the prior section, self-efficacy strongly influences the development of career goals. Career goals assist in directing women's career development. Thus, career development, as opposed to training for job skills (e.g., vocational education), can be defined as the preparation for, choice of, entry into, and adjustment to work through the life span (Super, 1990). Interestingly, when women are asked about their career goals, most women are less likely than their male counterparts to seek promotion (Warner & DeFleur, 1993). In fact, according to a survey administered by Sorcinelli and Andrews (1987), the 112 faculty members, 28% of whom were women, not one woman listed academic administration as a long-term career goal (p. 17).

About one third of the women in senior administrative positions started their careers in higher education immediately following graduation from an undergraduate program. The remaining two-thirds made the decision to enter the academic arena late in their educational preparation and did not attend graduate school immediately upon completing the bachelor's degree (Christiansen, et al., 1989; Slimmer, 1984). Even those women who have academic credentials often choose traditionally female fields or study women's issues, remaining outside the male disciplines. Or, they are asked to take on

nurturing roles within their faculty role and then left outside the power structure because they are not concentrating their efforts on teaching and research.

Kanter (1977) identified three types of dead end situations for job advancement: (1) the job itself leads to no positions higher up in the hierarchy, (2) the person in the job fails, eliminating all changes for personal advancement, or (3) the person took the “wrong route” to the job and does not have the organizationally defined background for advancement, (p. 139). Essentially, women who aspire to advance into positions of leadership in higher education should actively plan and develop multi-dimensional career paths (LeBlanc, 1993).

The ability to take risks is a necessary behavioral trait in effective administrators. A career cannot be built without taking risks. Men perceive risks as opportunities for success. Women, on the other hand, look at risks with a fear of failure. Risk taking is a learned behavior. According to Ausejo (1993), one of the best ways to learn the art of risk-taking is by observing it in others. Find role models in other women. Determine what has made them successful in taking risks.

Even with established career goals which include educational attainment and years of experience, prior position has a major impact on the outcomes of promotion. The power of the prior position is to be expected in that the position most recently held is highly related to the next position one holds (Johnsrud & Heck, 1994).

The normative career ladder gives importance to holding line positions for achieving career advancement toward a college presidency. Moore and Sagaria (1982) define academic line positions as the organizational chain of command directly connected with facilitating teaching, research, and service processes. Line includes chief academic

officer, dean, and chief librarian. Staff refers to functions that are adjunct to primary tasks and generally intended to support line functions. This would include, associate and assistant deans, assistant to the chief academic officer, and assistant to the president. Also, Moore and Sagaria (1982) indicate that most research on administrative careers suggests that individuals holding administrative line positions frequently move from the faculty directly to line positions. The contribution of staff positions for vertical advancement to line positions is less clear, although the limited available data on academic staff and middle management suggest that movement from a staff position to a line position is atypical. Thus, if the existing pattern holds, women's career advancement may be more constrained than men's by the kinds of administrative positions they hold. In addition, the woman who takes a nontraditional career path to administration faces other problems related to her outsider status, her limited support system, and the differential standards to which she is held (Glazer-Raymo, 1999).

The career path to the presidency in higher education as defined by Cohen and March (1974) is a climb up a hierarchical ladder, denoting four common positions on the ladder: faculty member, department chair, academic dean, and provost (chief academic officer). Basically, in a hierarchal organization, careers have direction. The metaphor of a career ladder with positions clearly defined and tightly ordered in a sequence of increasing responsibility is one way of describing the career path to senior positions in higher education (Moore, 1984a; Twombly, 1990).

In contrast, when Moore, et al. (1983) surveyed senior-level line administrators in an attempt to gain a better understanding of the paths to both presidency and academic deanship, they found that a strictly linear hierarchical model did not accurately reflect the

actual experience of most college and university presidents described by Cohen and March. In fact, the results identified 15 different variations were necessary to capture all the presidents' career paths. Most started their careers as faculty, however, 19% never held a faculty position. Their paths were nonlinear, but they all held at least one of the four common positions as faculty, department chair, dean or provost.

For women to reach the presidency, Touchton, et al. (1993) found three "springboard" positions of academic affairs, vice presidencies, and presidencies of other, smaller institutions. However, the best predictor of a presidency was a position as provost. In contrast, Ross and Green (1990) studied higher education administrative careers and found that academic administrative careers are serendipitous or administrators "fall into" administrative positions. Few people start their careers in academe intending to become administrators, yet most academic administrators start their careers as faculty members.

Furthermore, research on women college presidents found that 84% did not start their careers in higher education. These women aspired to senior-level administrative positions in higher education only after many years of experience and after returning to graduate school. In fact, most women in top administrative positions took deliberate steps to assure their success. They took on increasing responsibility by serving on numerous committees and task forces, making themselves available for special assignments, and attending professional meetings. Most took deliberate steps to garner experience in public speaking, teaching, and institutional politics (Touchton et al. 1993).

In a qualitative study, Ironside (1982) found broad implications for understanding women's aspirations and careers paths. Thirty women from 25 different four-year

institutions in North Carolina were interviewed. The study identified several themes which suggested the importance of continuous work lives, accepting invitations for responsibility and service, and skills in utilizing background and experience. The most significant finding was in the area of personal goals and a vision of success which shaped motivation and opportunity to assist in making career choices possible.

Using administrators in the University of North Carolina system, Leach (2001) surveyed 312 men and women to ascertain their career paths and variables influencing their career paths. The only significant differences between men and women were found for marital status and years in current position. In addition, women were more likely than men to have their career path interrupted because of family-related responsibilities. Interestingly, the study found no significant difference between men and women regarding job satisfaction, aspiration to upper-level positions, opportunities for advancement, motivation to seek upper-level administrative positions, and support from individuals at their current institution.

McGee's (1994) research findings confirmed that women's career progression is influenced by life experiences that extend from early childhood through early career stages. McGee's 1994 qualitative study of women state directors in Cooperative State Research Extension Education Service (CSREES) suggested the following experiences influenced the development of self-confidence: being raised in an environment that is free of gender bias, a strong father figure, and recognition of their leadership abilities by others, including being chosen for leadership roles which allowed them to take charge.

Mobility

Sagaria's (1988) research documented that in the 1970s women were more mobile than men and were more willing to advance their careers. Women showed more willingness to move and felt that it was a requirement for advancement. Sagaria also found that being married did not limit mobility for the number of women surveyed. Because institutions were pressed to meet affirmative action guidelines, during the early 1970s, more women than men were selected for intra-university promotions. Basically, the administration felt that internal candidates were less threatening than bringing in unknown women from the outside. Sagaria further suggests that after the enactment of affirmative action legislation (1969-72), women may have been promoted more frequently as the most visible and least disruptive approach for a college and university to satisfy affirmative action expectations. Due to the external pressure of affirmative action legislation, promoting women may have served the interest of the institutions, thus may have acted as an advantage for women in their rate of promotion. However, research has not been conducted that studied the outcomes of those promotions.

In recent years, family responsibilities may have reduced geographic mobility. Consequently, this has led to internal factors limiting women's activity in administrative positions including reduced leadership aspirations, unwillingness to accept increased responsibilities, and deliberate curtailment of professional achievement due to family demands (Mark, 1986). With this in mind, research now has shown that women are less mobile than men. For example, women are more likely than men to remain in the same geographic area where they attended graduate school and to be concentrated in larger

metropolitan areas where, presumably, the probability of both partners finding satisfactory employment is higher (Rosenfeld & Jones, 1987).

Women are more likely to move within the institution, whereas men are more likely to be recruited from outside the institution (Moore & Sagaria, 1982; Sagaria, 1988). However, for top positions within an institution, women have tended to build their careers by moving between institutions (Johnsrud, 1991; Moore, 1983; Sagaria, 1988). This pattern fits the circumvention theme in that female executives make more lateral moves among institutions to attain an upper-level administrative position (Bullard & Wright, 1993).

The family values argument, which dominates much current political discussion, contributes to the widening gap between the public and private spheres by emphasizing the bimodal character of women's lives and their marginalization in male-dominated fields (Glazer-Raymo, 1999). Reference to the narrow pipeline or hiring pool in this context sustains a mythology that women are not motivated or committed to either geographic or career advancement, thwarting their advancement opportunities and deterring them from undertaking more responsibility and commitment of time required in upper-level administrative positions.

Family responsibility may also be related to the level of motivation and intensity of work. Human capital theorists predict that compared with men and single women, married women pursue less demanding jobs, such as part-time and non-tenure track positions, because household responsibilities require more time and effort. Primarily, differences in household responsibilities are expected to be associated with differences in

motivation and intensity to work, and are expected to lead to occupational segregation by sex (Becker, 1985).

At least initially, women should be willing to relocate. By being place-bound limited many women from career advancement (Gupton & Slick, 1996). According to human capital theory, an individual's status and rewards in the academic labor market are determined primarily by his or her productivity. Productivity is expected to be determined by the investments that individuals make in themselves, particularly the quantity and quality of their education and the amount of their on-the-job training, as well as their geographic mobility, their motivation, and intensity of work and their emotional and physical health (Becker, 1993).

Conversely, Miner and Estler (1985) identified evolved responsibility or accrual mobility as an alternative process of position creation in which an employee first accrues responsibility, skills, or knowledge in a current position that exceeds normal growth in that position. The accrued changes are then institutionalized by formally recognizing the additional growth and changing the title, salary, or job content, essentially creating a new position for the employee who has reshaped the position.

Thus, female administrators should develop their careers by changing positions as they accumulate skills and experience. They may move laterally or vertically within or between institutions to build their careers (Moore, 1983; Moore & Sagaria, 1982; Sagaria & Moore, 1983).

Leadership

Leaders have enormous and increasing authority to set agendas for the institution and select the tasks in which faculty and administrators will seriously engage. Leaders

also have enormous influence over an institution's operating style and tone (Kaplan & Tinsley, 1989).

Astin and Astin (2001) define leadership as fostering change, "a purposive process which is inherently value-based" (p. 8). A leader is a change agent who involves others in a collective process. Leaders, therefore, display self-knowledge, authenticity and integrity, commitment to the collective effort, empathy and understanding of others, and competence (Madden, 2002).

Women leaders more often use a relational style of leadership (Baker, 1996). Baker conducted an investigation of leadership styles of women in higher education. Based on her findings, Baker posed the following six major dispositions of female leaders: they possess active skills (as opposed to a state of being), are interdependent with their staff, are community service oriented, think globally, perceive themselves as possessing abilities and qualities of leadership, and have vision. In addition to career dedication, female leaders in higher education have pressure to focus more time on traditional responsibilities (Baker, 1996).

In contrast, male leaders are more likely to lead by command and control whereas women leaders more actively work to make their interactions with subordinates positive for everyone. Women encourage participation and information, enhance other people's self worth and get others excited about their work. Leadership techniques that foster a sense of community, share power and authority, and facilitate internal leadership are receiving growing support in the literature as characteristics of effective change agents (Hudson, 1996).

The idea of leadership has always been closely associated to power. The maintenance of the leader's power and authority rests on his or her continuing ability to fulfill follower expectations. Leaders can increase their own power by empowering others. In this case, part of leadership is conceived as facilitating the personal growth or task achievement of individuals and groups, which in turn brings increased loyalty to the leader. Power is an expandable resource which is produced and shared through the interactions of leaders and followers. Strategies for empowerment include self-awareness and self-belief, communicating with others on their level, offering positive feedback and visibility and working through consensus and collegiality (Middlehurst, 1997).

Women may not envision themselves as leaders because they have not conceptualized or articulated the value of the relational leadership for which they rely. But, women who do pursue higher education administration often have a sense of mission, deliberately adopting transformational leadership styles (Madden, 2002). Good leadership requires good listening, facilitating effective work of others, promoting interdependence of people and units, and proposing initiatives that others pursue.

Women who are effective in leadership roles are more like men than they are different in terms of goals, motives, personalities, and behavior. The few differences appear to reflect the fact that women in leadership roles often see themselves as pioneers, with few or no visible female peers, and regard themselves as outsiders in the upper-levels of the organization. (Morrison, et al., 1987)

Reshaping in ways of leading that include empowering others, encouraging collaboration, and facilitating change through communication and teamwork were identified as attributes of effective higher educational leaders (Moss, et al., 1994). In

fact, Aburdene and Naisbitt (1992) characterized women's leadership into six similar behavior patterns: empowering, restructuring, teaching, role modeling, encouraging openness, and stimulating questions. Therefore, women can bring a different type of leadership to higher education, enabling institutions to respond more effectively to the challenges of the new millennium (Nidiffer, 2001).

Female attributes of nurturing, being sensitive, empathetic, intuitive, compromising, caring, cooperative, and accommodative are increasingly associated with effective administration. While these characteristics are innate and valuable, women possessing these qualities still face higher attrition and slower career mobility, particularly in higher education (Porat, 1991).

With this in mind, women need to develop collegial relationships with diverse groups of professionals and developing cordial relationships with staff and faculty. Developing conciliatory skills, accepting criticism gracefully even when it is unjustified, and trying to understand rather than to be understood are skills to develop (Madden, 2002).

In addition, women need to embrace the responsibilities of leadership and establish management credibility. Harter (1993) contends that nurturing, supportive training of women needs to be blended with (not sacrificed for) the no-nonsense, traditional assertiveness of male counterparts. In addition, competency at traditional male activities (budgeting, labor relations, finance, and legislative liaison) needs to be demonstrated.

Women need to learn that an effective public presence does not require a six foot five inch frame and a basso profound voice. While some people, mostly men, have a

clear advantage by the sheer ability to be physically intimidating and impressive, others can overcome their implicit “liabilities” by preparing thoroughly for ceremonial and public occasions, communicating effectively, and if they are women, enjoying and being comfortable as women (Harter, 1993).

Women’s advancement into administrative senior level positions may be impacted by search committees in their determination of women’s leadership capabilities. According to Warner and DeFleur (1993), women have not been selected for senior positions because they may not “look” or “act like” a dean, vice president or president. Therefore, changing these perceptions so that women are more readily accepted in leadership roles will take many years.

Hearn and Parkin (1988) argue that ‘leadership roles can be conceptualized as part of the center or core of organizational activity while other roles can be seen as part of the periphery as boundary roles’ (p. 19). They go on to suggest this spatial distance between center and the periphery tends to run along gender lines with women relegated to the boundary roles.

Women need to be diligent and professional in overcoming obstacles that are often predictable and gender-related. Women must honor, preserve, and protect their integrity. Women need to reach out for support and seek to practice good mentorship. Most of all, women need to lead by example (Gupton & Slick, 1996).

Also, women need to learn to become “political” and simultaneously retain their integrity (the two are not mutually exclusive). Harter (1993) explains that while we do not always have access to the typical networking, women need to learn how to enter some of these alien arenas and to invite others into the networking arenas which are most

comfortable. Being ‘one of the boys’ can cause problems, but learning how to read the political landscape and where the real power is can only be accomplished with some entrée into the arenas occupied by successful and influential men.

Two studies by the National Center for Research in Vocational Education indicated that female vocational administrators ranked significantly higher than males in regard to their leadership effectiveness and qualities of leadership (Moss et al., 1994). Women were found to be a rich, relatively untapped source of potential leadership for reform in higher education administration. As the number of women in higher education management continues to rise, institutions will find that when they reached into their talent pool for the next executive, the best man for the job may well be a woman.

Environmental Factors

The third variable in Bandura’s Model of Reciprocal Determination is the environmental component. Environment factors, by definition, are external to the individual and are not as easily changed, altered, or implemented. However, the individual has a choice as to how she reacts to these environmental cues and how she can use them to her benefit, especially as she advances in her career. As noted in the principle of triadic reciprocity, cognitions influence choices of environments and behaviors, which then influence behavioral performance and, ultimately, beliefs concerning those environments and behaviors (Maddux, 1995). The specific environmental cues most noted in the literature as affecting a woman’s career advancement include organizational structure, culture and mentoring. Each of these factors is discussed in further detail below.

Organizational Structure

The concept of “resources within an organization” is refined by operationalizing the policies and practices guiding promotion decisions and the arrangement of work as structural variables. Factors relevant to individual advancement such as education and experience are defined as individual resources. In order to explain promotion outcomes for women and men, both individual and structural resources must be examined within the organization in which the promotion occurs (Johnsrud, 1991). Essentially, promotions are not random events, but the byproducts of staffing decisions made within the structure of work of the organization (Blau & Jusenius, 1976; Rosenbaum, 1984).

Promotions are also, however, a primary means for organizations to meet human resource staffing requirements and to identify quality leadership (Stumpf & London, 1981). Growing evidence has been found that the policies and practices that guide the staffing decisions and create the structure of work influence opportunity for individuals within the organization. Thus, higher education organizations may shape administrative advancement opportunity by determining the distribution of positions and rewards as well as by determining the policies that govern promotional decisions (Johnsrud, 1991).

Women’s placement may influence their mobility despite their job-related skills and attributes. Thus, the prior positions of the individual will have an effect upon the functional placement (type of position) achieved as a result of promotion, as well as the hierarchical placement (status, respect, and salary) achieved (Kanter, 1977). In this case, women carry a disadvantage. They receive lower returns in status and responsibility to their initial placement, which in turn affects their subsequent status over time (Johnsrud & Heck, 1994).

In a dissertation research project on a major corporation, Homall (1974) surveyed 111 non-exempt (i.e., hourly) employees on their attitudes toward promotion. Using an expectancy-value theory, she found that men show greater motivation to be promoted than women and perceive greater overall desirability and likelihood of the possible consequence following a promotion. The men also perceived themselves to be more competent in basic managerial skills than the women did and to receive more encouragement from superiors to improve and advance. Women in this sample were mostly secretaries with little to no opportunities to move to a salaried position. Homall's results demonstrate women's lower work involvement and aspirations can be read as reflecting a response on both the part of the employees and their managers to the worker's placement in an organizational structure. Even today, women continue to be relegated to support roles in administration (e.g. director, assistant dean, acting chair or dean), which thus limits their autonomy both in decision making and in power (O'Brien & Janssen, 2005).

For the most part, women have been successful in learning the political/business climate and mastering it. However, women need to recognize political complexities in each situation and build relationships for advancement and survival (Mitchell, 1993a, p. 155). At the same time, women need to be advantageously placed in high-mobility positions because prevalent findings in organizational behavior are that people at upper-levels of organizations tend to be routinely more motivated, involved, and interested in their jobs and aspire to top management positions more than those at lower levels (Tannenbaum et al, 1974; Kanter, 1976).

The extreme number of challenges facing women seeking administrative positions clearly indicates that there is not an equal opportunity for women to be recognized as competent, qualified administrators. To overcome obstacles facing their advancement, women must actively seek and map out strategies and assume the risk that will place them in recognizable, credible, leadership positions (Slimmer, 1984). Finally, women must have the appropriate credentials, understand the organizational structures and political processes of institutions, and be willing to take risks (Kaplan & Tinsley, 1989).

Because of the future of the organization depends on the people at the top reaching down or out to make their selections, they look for replacements they trust, who know the business and have contributed to its profits. Educational credentials are only one factor for the preparedness issue. Equally, if not more important, are visibility, credibility, access to upper management and executives, broad and varied experiences in core areas of the business, organizational savvy, and career planning (Wernick, 1994).

Kilpatrick (1991) proclaims that “American employers, for the most part, are overlooking a resource that could make a tremendous difference over the next 40 years. They are ignoring women. This is, when you think about it, a thoroughly dumb thing to do” (p. 9A).

Culture

Culture of an institution has an interactive effect, along with traits and behaviors that produces experiences which may differ for groups of women compared to groups of men. How good a fit is there between the goals, values, style and personality of the manager and the goals, values, style, and culture of the institution? When women succeed as mid-level managers, perhaps their success is due to the good match between

these factors. Conversely, when women and men do not succeed, perhaps their failure is also due to a poor match (Mark, 1986).

American culture, and therefore American higher education, is awash in images of what a leader should look like, act like, and be like. These images and beliefs are powerful yardsticks by which candidates for presidencies at colleges and universities are measured. Invariably, these ideals and models are male (Nidiffer, 2001).

Bensimon and Neumann (1993) observations confirm the data showing that a gendered selection process frequently channels men and women into different career paths to the presidency. Women who worked in organizational cultures dominated by men were subject to different sets of expectations from trustees, faculty, students, and alumni, and had a different self-image from their male colleagues.

To survive in the current academic culture, responding chief academic officers (CAO) offered personal advice. First, make certain you can deal with conflict and prosper under adversity, not taking personally the complaints and criticisms of faculty, students, and staff who just need to vent their frustrations. Secondly, one needs to develop a tough skin, do not panic, and learn to juggle, finding ways to handle stress so as not to compromise one's own physical or mental health (Walton & McDade, 2001).

The chief academic officer position requires a strong constitution, love of the work, abundant endurance, total involvement, and a good sense of humor. The CAOs contend that a fair and consistent managerial style is essential for survival in the position. Furthermore, they advise women who wish to succeed as CAOs to concentrate on doing the job well without trying to be an "old boy" or worrying about being a woman doing

the job. Finally, the successful CAO must be a good listener and observer of behavior (Walton & McDade, 2001).

Mentoring

Women in leadership and administrative positions are most likely to make progress when they work through networks and coalitions of women, and when groups of men and women share in their priorities (Johnson, 1993). As a way to improve access to top administrative posts, mentoring has been noted as an important component for women in higher education (Touchton & Shavlik, 1978).

Classical or primary mentoring is an intense developmental relationship of relatively long duration in which protégés receive a range of career and psychosocial help exclusively from one senior manager (Kram, 1985). Secondary mentoring is a shorter, less intense, less inclusive developmental process involving multiple relationships, each offering specialized developmental functions (Phillips-Jones, 1982; Zey, 1984). In reality, secondary mentoring is probably easier for young employees to come by than primary mentoring given the recent pace of organizational change and individual career transitions (Kram, 1986). Furthermore, people in the early career stage are more likely to have several developmental relationships rather than just one because of their high career mobility, independence, and particular needs (Kram, 1986; Phillips-Jones, 1982).

Women must see the mentor as a role model and develop leadership skills under the auspices of the mentor (Vaughn & Klaric, 1990). In addition, a woman moving up the administrative ladder needs to find role models of either gender. Women need supporters (Glass, 1999). Overall, the presence of role models greatly enhances women's

career development (Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987; Bolton, 1980; Douvan, 1976; Mitchell & Krumboltz, 1984).

Those without informal networks of support often find themselves stymied as they near the top of the administrative hierarchy, where promotions are more likely to be based on the trust than on performance. This may also account for the difficulty of crossing boundaries between public and private sector institutions and systems as well as between levels of institutions (2-year vs. research doctoral) (Glazer-Raymo, 1999).

More importantly, the lack of female role models in nontraditional professions, specifically upper-level administrative positions, has been identified as a significant barrier to women's career development. In fact, this barrier has been found to impede a woman from pursuing such careers (Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987; Douvan, 1976).

Overall, the benefits of mentoring programs for the mentee/protégé include career advancement, personal support, learning and development, increased confidence, and assistance and feedback. The successful acquisition of skills, attitudes, and beliefs may ease protégés passage through barriers separating them from inclusion in elite groups (VanMaanen & Schein, 1979) and providing access to social networks that can further facilitate career progress. Benefits for the mentor are personal fulfillment, assistance on projects, financial rewards, increased confidence, and revitalized interest in work. The benefits for the organization include the development of managers, increased commitment to the organization, cost effectiveness, and improved organizational communication (Douglas, 1997).

Just as mentors have reported that mentoring has increased their self confidence, other research (Farren, Gray & Kaye, 1984) has shown that mentoring enhances the self-

image of mentors as they are able to see themselves as competent, helpful and have 'personal currency.' In addition, a study by Geiger-Dumond and Boyle (1995) of a formal one-year long mentoring program found that improved communication at senior and junior levels was one of the successes of the program.

Women need good mentors. Mentors can positively impact and enhance a woman's career. Women also need positive role models, effective listeners, and unbiased feedback. Women need constructive suggestions and recommendations that allow room for deviation and individual input (LeBlanc, 1993).

Historically, women have received little or no encouragement to seek leadership positions, while men were encouraged to enter administration to a greater degree than women (Grove & Montgomery, 1999). This lack of encouragement exists even though women who earn doctorates are more likely than men to desire an academic career, but are not being hired at equal rates.

Kanter (1993) suggested looking at the range of professional opportunities for women's advancement. Kanter concluded that career success depends on such matters as organizational conditions and access to challenges to increase skills and rewards. She noted that mentors or sponsors are also important in advancing careers of managers and administrators.

Slimmer (1984) conducted a study using 232 administrators from units defined as colleges, departments, schools and divisions of home economics in 118 public and 67 private institutions. The findings from this study indicated women in higher education had a high satisfaction with their academic preparation, supportive relationships, goals for career aspirations and coping skills. Work experience, academic background, and

personal recommendations were ranked as the most important in obtaining their current position. Over 70% of the respondents indicated they obtained their present position by “being in the right place at the right time.” (p. 5). Almost 75% indicated they were in the right place because of their influence of being sure they were in the right place.

Although not considering mentoring, internship programs can provide opportunities for women to learn new skills and develop networking abilities to rise through the glass ceiling, and to help women clarify their desires to become administrators. The challenge becomes facilitating change in an organizational culture that traditionally has marginalized groups, such as women, through the existing power structures and rhetorical inferences of potential opportunities within a basically closed system (O’Brien & Janssen, 2005).

Overall, women who participate in the academic internship program believe their experience helped them to attain administrative positions. The three major benefits of participation were an increase in confidence, system-wide knowledge, and networking. Based on a study by O’Brien and Janssen (2005), twelve women reported that they gained confidence in making administrative type decisions, and confidence in their perception of self in terms of skills and attitudes after participating in an academic internship program. The participants all discussed how they had gained an appreciation and knowledge of how the system works within higher education, thus broadening their view of university functions. All individuals commented on the value of networking this experience afforded them, particularly for future projects.

Networks offer a “safe place” for women to explore their own style and solutions. Networks operate as an information system and they provide contact with women who are both accessible and role models (King, 1997).

Hooyman and Kaplan (1976) created three categories to describe barriers to the upper-level administrative positions for women. Internal barriers are basically women’s fear of success. Interpersonal barriers are caused by lack of women role models. Structural barriers consist of both organizational and informal discrimination. Essentially, when women are not privy to the male social-informational networks, women’s power is marginal without access to these resources.

As an individual career strategy, sponsorship has been shown to be important to administrators’ mobility in higher education organization (Moore, 1983). One advantage to sponsorship for the one sponsored is access to positions or decision makers that might not otherwise be possible. In other words, sponsorship may serve to enhance the outcomes of promotion for those sponsored. Sponsorship of an individual for a position within an organization is a potential resource for the organization (Kram, 1985; Zey, 1984).

The organization may encourage senior-level personnel to sponsor junior-level employees in order to aid in identifying talent to meet staffing needs of the organization or even to address specific problems (Kram, 1985). In fact, sponsorship may be particularly prevalent in senior-level positions for which objective qualifications are difficult to measure, and trust and discretion increase in importance (Kanter, 1977; Sagaria, 1985).

For women, a significant relationship exists between sponsorship and administrative positions. Women are more likely to be in the academic administrative positions if they are sponsored at entry rather than if they actively sought their first administrative jobs. It is interesting to note that for men a similar relationship exists, but it is not statistically significant. In fact, male administrators are just as likely to reach senior level positions without sponsorship as they are with sponsorship (Warner & DeFleur, 1993).

By establishing and maintaining a strong internal/external support system, a woman becomes more resourceful. LeBlanc (1993) states that the greater a woman's resourcefulness, the larger her sphere is for possible positive influences in higher education. It is important that women have key contacts in every level of the organization including the operational, middle-management, and executive management levels, as well as contacts with the board, and significant people in the community outside of campus. Finally, women need to see the "big picture" within the organization. It is paramount that women are fully aware and involved in overall planning and forecasting of university-wide activities (LeBlanc, 1993).

Summary

The literature review provided an historical prospective of the achievements women have made in higher education especially in their advancement into upper-level positions. Motivational theories were then discussed concentrating on Bandura's Model of Reciprocal Determination which included personal beliefs, personal behavior and environmental cues. Each component was examined concentrating on the concepts most prominently associated with women leaders in higher education: self-efficacy for

personal beliefs; career paths, leadership roles, and mobility for personal behaviors; and environmental variables that included organizational structure, culture and mentoring.

As was described, each of these components influence each other reciprocally, but are not necessarily simultaneous or of equal strength. Self-efficacy is necessary for women to aspire to move into upper-level administrative positions as well as to feel confident in their abilities for this type of leadership role. Women need to establish career goals that would position them to even be considered for these types of positions.

In addition, women can advance in their careers by being well-prepared, overcoming various obstacles, demonstrating their capabilities to lead, and preserving and protecting their integrity. In other words, women need to establish their own leadership role. How women behave in regard to geographic mobility or career advancement within the institution is critical to their career advancement. If women are not able to move geographically to advance in their careers, then women should establish ways to accrue responsibility, skills, or knowledge in a current position that exceeds normal growth in that position, whereby a new position is created.

Finally, organizational structure and culture are two environmental variables that are an attribute of the institution and its members, but indirectly influences a woman's self-efficacy and personal behavior. Essentially, women achieve a better quality of working life by being a part of a community and maintaining a consultative, collaborative, and enriching ethos. The motivation is really the interaction which occurs between an individual's personality (ability, values, needs, expectations, etc.) and her perceived environment (Marsh, 1981). In addition, mentoring which includes coaching, sponsorships, networking, role models, and internships, may have a greater impact or

influence on a woman's self efficacy and behavior, whereby improving opportunities for career advancement. In fact, if an institution does not have a formal mentoring program, women need to make a conscious effort to build support groups with colleagues or friends in and outside their department.

In the next chapter, the reasons for using a qualitative approach are discussed as well as an outline of the research design used for this study. In addition, detailed descriptions of the population, criteria for purposeful sampling, participants, and role of the researcher are provided. Finally, the interview protocol, data analysis, trustworthiness and overall ethical considerations are explained.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to explore the motivational factors that influence women's decision to pursue upper-level higher education administrative positions. Specifically, the study focused on the individual's beliefs, the targeted behaviors related to the outcome, and the influence of environmental factors. To obtain a picture of the senior-level female administrator, to understand the experiences she has encountered, and to examine the interrelationship of her personal beliefs, behaviors, and environmental cues, a qualitative inquiry approach was chosen for the research design and methodology.

Qualitative Research

A qualitative design was the selected research method to add depth of understanding and detailed information regarding the motivational factors influencing women's career decisions in higher education. As Sherman and Webb (1988) state, "qualitative research implies a direct concern with experience as it is lived or felt or undergone" (p. 7). Rather than presuming that the human environments and interactions can be held constant, manipulated, treated, scheduled, modified, or extinguished, qualitative research posits that the most powerful and parsimonious way to understand human beings is to watch, talk, listen, and participate with them in their own natural settings. Qualitative research focuses on a different way of knowing – one based on experience, empathy, and involvement (Rist, 1982). "Knowledge is within the meanings people make of it; knowledge is gained through people talking about their meanings; knowledge is laced with personal biases and values; knowledge is written in a personal,

up-close way; and knowledge evolves, emerges, and is inextricably tied to the context in which it is studied,” (Creswell, 1998, p. 19).

The focus of this study was to look to women who have reached the upper-level administrative arena and use Bandura’s Model of Reciprocal Determination to investigate what influential factors were responsible for motivating them to this achievement, specifically self-efficacy, personal behavior, and environmental factors. The data were complex and many variables of personal history, choice, and external impacts (i.e., mentors) were considered. The data told the story from the participant’s perspective. These factors warranted a qualitative approach to allow for fluid examination, flexibility, and responsiveness to changing conditions of the study in progress. The task was to study the specific and build toward the general. From the intensive analysis of a small number of institutions applications were made to other settings not studied. Thus, the study was based on the use of inductive logic rather than deductive reasoning. A qualitative study, therefore, supports what Patton (1990) explains as an effort to understand inductively and holistically the human situations and experiences in their uniqueness as part of a particular context.

Research Design

Denzin and Lincoln (1994) explain that qualitative researchers use a variety of methodologies such as phenomenology, ethnography and case study to describe and interpret the layered phenomena that occur in people’s lives. For this study, a multi-case study design was used. Essentially, case study design is used to gain an in-depth understanding of the situation and meaning of those involved. Insights gleaned from the case studies can directly influence policy, practice, and future research (Merriam, 1998).

A case study is an exploration of a “bounded system” or a case over time through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information rich in context. The system is bounded by time and place. The data collection is extensive, drawing on multiple sources of information such as observation, interviews, documents, and audio-visual materials. Through this data collection, a detailed description of the case emerges, as well as themes and assertions about the case by the researcher (Stake, 1995). In other words, this inquiry helps to explain and create understandings through one or multiple cases. “Case studies help to understand the processes, events, projects, and programs and to discover context characteristics that will shed light on an issue or object” (Sanders, 1981, p. 44)

Because multi-case studies are anchored in real life situations, this approach results in a rich and holistic account of a phenomenon. It offers insights and illuminates meanings that expand its readers’ experiences. Case study plays an important role in advancing a field’s knowledge base (Merriam, 1998, p. 41)

Population

The passage of the First Morrill Act (1862) reflected a growing demand for agricultural and technical education in the United States. The land-grant idea was above all a profoundly democratic movement. Its leaders fervently believed in democracy and the new, but young, republic. These leaders were raised in the presidencies of Jefferson, Madison and Monroe. They were determined to assure a future in which all citizens, not just the elite, shared in the fruits of liberty and the individual rights promised in the Constitution and Bill of Rights (Bonnen, 1996). Every state and territory of the United States now has at least one land-grant institution. The fundamental idea was to offer an

opportunity in every state for a liberal and higher education to larger numbers, not merely to those destined to sedentary professions, but to those needing higher instruction for the world's business, for the industrial pursuits and professions of life. Today, America's land-grant universities continue to fulfill their democratic mandate for openness, accessibility, and service to people, and many of these institutions have joined the ranks of the nation's most distinguished public research universities.

Because of the uniqueness of the land-grant's heritage and original mission, female administrators at these institutions were selected as the population. At the time the current research was undertaken (spring 2007), only 37 land-grant universities out of the 50 employed at least one female upper-level administrator.

Sampling Strategy

For case studies, two levels of sampling are usually necessary. First, the researcher must select "the case" to be studied. Secondly, a sample within the case will need to be selected unless the plan is to interview, observe, or analyze all the people, activities, or documents within the case (Merriam, 1998). For multicase studies, several cases based on relevant criteria are selected.

In an exploratory and descriptive study, the issue is to compile a detailed account of a well-defined sample that can provide a basis for further research, not a generalization to a larger population. In qualitative research, sample sizes are typically small and the participants are purposefully selected for their ability to provide detailed information on the topic studied. As Patton (1990) suggests, purposeful sampling provides "information rich cases for study in depth" (p. 169). The intent of this study, examination of the professional lives of female administrators in higher education that are currently in upper-

level administrative positions, directed the case selection as well as the participant selection. The following six purposeful sampling criteria were employed.

1. Gender: Participants must be women.
2. Institution Type: Participants must be currently employed at a land-grant institution
3. Position Title: All subjects must be in an upper-level administrative position. In this case, upper-level position is considered president/chancellor, provost/chief academic officer, or vice-president.
4. Length of Successful Employment: Subjects must be currently employed or had prior continuous experience in an upper-level administrative position for at least three years. For this study, a three-year length of service within an upper-level position would be viewed as successful.
5. Functional Area: Participants were selected from all functional areas which included academic affairs, advancement/development, business/fiscal affairs, and student affairs.

Participants

In the 50 land-grant universities determined by the Morrill Act of 1862, 2% of the upper-level administrative positions were held by women. A total of 61 women holding a variety of roles was represented (58 women were employed at public land-grant universities and three at the private land-grant university). Included in the sample were two presidents/chancellors, 14 chief academic officers, 12 vice-presidents of fiscal affairs or administration, 18 vice presidents of student affairs, and 15 vice presidents of university relations, university advancement, development, technology, planning, or

graduate studies/research. Of the two women employed as the president or chancellor, one retired as president in June 2007 and declined to participate. Of the chief academic officers, one accepted a position at another land-grant institution, one accepted a position at another research intensive university, and both women declined to participate in the study. Interestingly, at the time of this study, one of the chief academic officers also served in a dual role as president.

A formal invitation letter, a short questionnaire, and an overview of the study were sent to 61 women identified above (see Appendices C, D, and E respectively). The interview sample was identified from those who agreed to participate in the study and who met the sample criteria as determined by the results of the questionnaire. Although a specific sample size was not set, the sample needed to allow for a reasonable number of different positions.

For this study, 30 participants responded by completing the short questionnaire. After reviewing the questionnaire, 23 participants met the sampling criteria. Each selected interview participant was sent a confirmation letter (see Appendix F) and asked to submit her vita and her respective university/college organizational chart. The list of interview questions was enclosed with this letter. Eighteen participants submitted the requested information. Emails were sent and phone calls were made to the five non-responders as reminders to submit the requested documents by a specific date. With no response from these five respondents by the deadline, 18 participants were included in the sample. This sample was appropriate to provide the range of information to answer the questions posed and at the same time, these subjects provided all the data that could be reasonably dealt with in one study by one investigator.

Data Collection

Once the curriculum vitae and organizational charts were received, the researcher then contacted the participants either by email or telephone to schedule interviews. All the participants provided the researcher the name of their administrative assistant to schedule the interviews. Emailing was the preferred method for communicating with the administrative assistants to schedule, reschedule, and send interview reminders. The first interview was conducted on May 30 and the last interview was completed on September 7 of the same year.

Ideally, the researcher would have preferred all on-site, face-to-face interviews, but all except one of the participants selected phone interviews as the method of data collection. Because of proximity to the researcher, one respondent requested a face-to-face interview. Eight participants selected the two 45 minute phone interviews rather than the one 90 minute phone interview, which allowed the researcher to obtain as much information as possible and to work within their schedules. Even though telephone interviews were logistically simpler and more cost efficient, the phone interviews were more difficult to conduct because the researcher could not observe the reactions of the participant when the questions were asked or know if the participant had completed her response.

Two interviews were completed in 45 minutes because the participants prepared their answers prior to the interviews and their stories were not as detailed as the others. The face-to-face interview was completed in two one hour interviews. The other interviews were completed within 60 to 90 minutes.

Prior to conducting the interviews, interview participants were provided the Informed Consent Form (see Appendix G) to read and sign. For each process, measures were taken to ensure anonymity of the participants and permission to tape record and transcribe the interview was discussed prior to commencing the interview.

Interviewing is the best technique to use when conducting intensive case studies of selected individuals. A good interview is to hold a good conversation (Rist, 1982). Qualitative work involves considerable human interaction – interactions that are likely to occur over time. In addition, qualitative interviewing is a way of finding out what others feel and think about their worlds. Through qualitative interviews the researcher can understand experiences and reconstruct events in which he/she did not participate (Rubin & Rubin, 1995). Interviews provide a method of comprehending and conveying understandings of the researched and the researcher. Seidman (1998) writes that interviewing provides access to the context of people's behavior and thereby provides a way for researchers to understand the meaning of that behavior. A basic assumption in in-depth interviewing research is that the meaning people make of their experience affects the way they carry out that experience. Interviewing allows the researcher to put behavior in context and provides access to understanding their action. Meaning is not "just the facts," but rather the understandings one has that are specific to the individual (what was said), yet transcendent of the specific (what is the relation between what was said, how it was said, what the listener was attempting to ask or hear, what the speaker was attempting to convey or say).

A number of interview options are available –structured, semi-structured, questionnaires, life history and the interviewing of key informants. In each of these, the

pattern of interaction and the amount of material covered will vary. Patton (1990) describes three types of approaches toward qualitative interviewing using open-ended interviews. The first approach is informal conversation (semi-structured) which is a natural, spontaneous flow of questions and answers. The second is a general interview guide approach (structured) where the researcher has formulated questions about the issues to be discussed but the questions can be adapted depending upon the interviewee and how the interview is going. The third approach is the standardized open ended interview by multiple interviewers.

For this study, the interview protocol (see Appendix H) was semi-structured, allowing for identification of understanding common to all participants as well as flexibility so the range of differences could emerge. The protocol was also structured so the same questions were asked of each participant in a similar order to remain focused on the three components of motivation. However, as themes and additional items emerged, these topics were pursued and expanded.

Specifically, the interview questions were taken from the primary categories addressed in Chapter 1 and included the participants' perceptions of self-efficacy, personal behaviors, and environmental cues. The questions were constructed by the researcher, based on the literature reviewed and in dialogue with the dissertation advisor and committee. Furthermore, in keeping with the understanding of Bandura's model of Reciprocal Determination, the questions incorporated the idea that cognitions influence choices of environments and behaviors, which then influence behavioral performance and, ultimately, beliefs concerning those environments and behaviors (Maddux, 1995). Therefore, the intent of the interview was to systematically explore the interaction of self-

efficacy, personal behavior and environment that influenced women's decision to pursue upper-level administrative positions in higher education. In addition, the protocol questions allowed for unique narratives to emerge when individuals reflected on their own development and experiences.

The first section of questions was more general which helped to break the ice and establish rapport and goodwill (Leedy & Ormrod, 2001). These questions provided more descriptive information which laid the foundation for questions that identified the interviewees' perceptions, opinions, values, and emotions. The second section focused on the personal beliefs or self-efficacy component. Researchers assess self-efficacy beliefs by asking individuals to report the level, generality, and strength of the confidence to accomplish a task or succeed in a certain situation (Pajares, 1996). This set of questions determined the self-efficacy beliefs people hold that influenced their choices, the amount of effort they expend, their persistence in the face of adversity, and the level of success they ultimately achieve (Zeldin & Pajares, 2000).

The third section of questions captured career-related behaviors of women's decisions to pursue upper-level administrative positions. Bandura (1986) advocated that behavior is guided by cognitive processes rather than formed or shaped by reinforced practice. Therefore, several questions inquired about the preparation needed for a position at this level. This would include asking about career goals, strategies used to obtain upper-level administrative positions, and reaction to being rejected for a job opportunity and how the rejection was handled. In addition, the advantages or disadvantages of mobility and the skill set, specifically leadership skills, needed to

advance into upper-level administrative positions were also explored. Finally, a question inquired about any consequences encountered or compromises made to meet career goals.

Research suggests that factors influencing motivation might vary with gender, cultural identity, and environmental factors (Hoddell, Street, & Wildblood, 2002). Therefore, the fourth set of questions focused on the environmental factors. Essentially, questions were asked that considered how women function in an organization which includes understanding the organizational environment and culture (Kanter, 1993). In addition, encouragement from a mentor or networking within and outside the organization is considered an appropriate springboard for promotion and then to fulfill managerial functions (Powney, 1997). Thus, specific questions were asked to inquire about being mentored and if the support system had changed with a move to an upper-level position.

The last set of questions provided an opportunity to identify the interrelationship of the three components in Bandura's model. In addition, a question was asked to provide advice to women who are middle-managers and thinking about moving into upper-level administration. Finally, the researcher gave the interviewee an opportunity to add any further information that might not have been covered.

Techniques for a semi-structured interview, as described by Wolcott (1995), emphasize listening and respect for conversational patterns. Essentially, the interview guide included a limited number of open ended questions. The fewer questions one asks, the more likely one is to elicit stories and deeper meanings from the participants (Morrow, 2005). As recommended by Polkinghorne (2005), multiple interviews were

conducted with some participants to achieve depth, richness and complete the data collection.

The researcher gained insight and background information on the participants and their respective higher education institutions by reading the participants' vitas and organizational charts of their unit and the institution. In addition, the researcher conducted web searches of the specific universities to search for other pertinent information. One of the greatest advantages of using documentary material is its stability and objectivity (Merriam, 1998, p. 126).

The vita provided the historical career experiences, educational background, service to the university, professional groups and community, and the length of time employed in higher education. The organizational chart provided an idea of the structure and chain of command. Some organizational charts included names by position, which enabled the researcher to gain insight into the number of women within the different levels of administration. Essentially, the data furnished descriptive information, verified emerging hypotheses, advanced new categories, offered historical understanding, and tracked change and development (Merriam, 1998).

Also, a reflection journal was kept to record personal reflection and comments about the interviewee. Throughout the process, the researcher commented in the journal about (1) emerging themes and categories that were evidenced during the interview; (2) comparing the data collected and any implications to analysis; and (3) modifying the questions for future interviews.

As Merriam (1998) suggests, data collection and analysis are simultaneous activities. Analysis begins with the first interview, the first document read, and the first

observation. Emerging insights, hunches, and tentative hypotheses direct the next phase of data collection, which in turn leads to the refinement or reformulation of questions.

Description of the Participants

The participants included four chief academic officers, two vice presidents for finance, seven vice presidents for student affairs, and five other vice presidents totaling 18 participants. Because of the limited number of women in upper-level higher education administration and because of their high visibility within their institutions, specifically among the 50 land-grant institutions, the participants are profiled as a group rather than as individuals to protect their anonymity. The institutional characteristics and participant demographics are found in Table A-5.

In reviewing the pre-survey, organizational charts provided and information gleaned from the university websites, 15 participants reported to the president or chancellor while the others (3) reported to the chief academic officer or provost. Similarly, 15 women indicated being the first woman to hold the position.

Even though 18 women were interviewed, 13 land-grant universities were represented. Five universities each had two participants. Geographically, the universities were quite dispersed within four of the five regions of the United States, consisting of five schools from the South and Southeast, four from the Midwest, and two each from the East and West regions. Because the number of positions included in the upper-level administration varied from one school to the next depending upon their reporting structure, the researcher calculated the percent of women in upper-level administration rather than using the number of women in upper-level administration. Using less than or equal to 25% (which was no more than 3 women in upper-level administration) and 25%

to 46% as the two categories, the number of universities in each category was split, seven and six respectively.

From the information reported on their vitas, five out of the 18 women received their doctorates 10 years or more after receiving their master's degree. The shortest time frame to earn a doctorate was two years compared to one that waited 21 years before receiving her doctorate. Two participants do not have a doctorate, but one did earn a master of business administration (MBA) degree. Seven participants earned tenure status. Six participants indicated their area of emphasis was in student personnel and counseling and five participants were in science, math, or engineering area. The other participants' areas of emphasis included social sciences, business, and law.

After receiving a bachelor's degree, five participants started teaching in the K-12 public schools. Interestingly, four of the five women were teaching in the public elementary and secondary school system in the early 1970s with all four exiting the K-12 system to enter higher education between 1976 and 1977. On the other hand, eleven participants' career histories have been in higher education either in the student affairs area, academic department, or other units of the university or small college. Two participants were hired from outside higher education.

All participants have been active within their respective professional associations and involved in university-wide events, committees, and activities at their current and prior institutions. In addition, participants listed several papers presented at conferences, papers published, or books or chapter of books written. Eight participants have served as either major professors or committee members for master's theses and doctoral dissertations assisting an average of 39 students to complete a graduate degree.

Finally, the average age of the participants is 58 and ranges from 53 to 69 years old. Even though not specifically asked, 16 participants divulged that they were married and two women specifically stated that they chose not to have children. Eleven participants have moved from one institution to the other averaging three moves. Eleven participants have remained at their current institution for more than five years. As of spring 2008, 13 of the 18 participants were still employed at their current institution, two have changed positions within their institution, two have left higher education, and one entered phased retirement.

Data Analysis

Since qualitative research focuses on process, meaning and understanding, the product of a qualitative study is richly descriptive. Instead of numeric results and analyses, words and pictures convey what the researcher has learned about the topic. The data would include the researcher's descriptions of the context, the players involved, and the activities of interest. In addition, the data in the form of the participant's own words, direct citations from documents, and other contextual information would be included to support the findings of the study (Merriam, 1998).

Before transcribing the interviews from the interview tapes, back-ups were made and saved on CDs. All interviews were transcribed and reflection notes were compiled. Each interview transcription was saved in a separate file. Three interview tapes were incoherent or unusable, therefore the CDs were used as well as the written notes from the actual interview to compile the information.

The researcher must then consider how to organize and manage the voluminous amount of data. Data management can be divided into three phases: data preparation,

data identification, and data manipulation. As recommended by Creswell (1998), it is best to read through all the information to gain a sense of the overall data. Writing memos in the margins of the transcripts helped in the initial process of exploration and preparation of the data. In addition, reading through the reflection journal and compiling demographic information for each of the interviewees provided additional contextual interpretation of the data.

Using Creswell's data analysis spiral, the researcher gleaned the responses to questions and entered the narrative excerpts into a spreadsheet program for ease in data manipulation. The spreadsheets were divided into the three main components (main codes) of self-efficacy, personal behaviors, and environmental factors based on Bandura's Model of Reciprocal Determination and one spreadsheet to record the interaction findings. To assist in reducing the data further, codes were developed. Coding is nothing more than assigning some sort of shorthand designation to various aspects of the data so that specific pieces of data can be easily retrieved. Essentially, coding is a progressive process which allows for themes to emerge as suggested by the data, in other words, inductive analysis. Seeking common themes provided a method to analyze the results obtained to organize interview findings along thematic or descriptive lines.

For this study, the narrative excerpts were further analyzed and grouped into sub-codes (level 2) as defined by the literature reviewed. Also, this study followed the process suggested by Guba and Lincoln (1981) to further categorize level 2 sub-codes into at least two and not more than six level 3 sub-codes. Guba and Lincoln recommend four guidelines for developing level 3 sub-codes that are both comprehensive and

illuminating. First, the number of people who mention something or the frequency with which something arises in the data indicates an important aspect. In this study, all level 3 sub-codes had three or more responses. Second, level 3 sub-codes will appear to various audiences as more or less credible. Fortunately, in this study the adequate number of interviewees created the opportunity to easily determine the level 3 sub-codes that were more prominent among more interviewees than other sub-codes. Thirdly, sub-codes will be unique and should be retained. Finally, certain sub-codes may reveal “areas of inquiry not otherwise recognized” or “provide a unique leverage on an otherwise common problem” (p. 95). For this study, the topics on health, imposter phenomenon, and women’s own demise emerged from the data. These were considered unique and were retained for further investigation. Several iterations of the analysis resulted in the refinement and clarification of the codes and sub-codes definitions. These are contained in Appendices I, J, and K.

Ideas and comments from the interviewees that did not fit the sub-codes described above were discarded, which included specific mentors and lists of various groups that help advise administration. Primarily, these responses varied considerably from one participant to the other eliminating the opportunity to determine common findings across participants. In addition, the responses from the question that asked for the interviewees’ reactions for not being offered a position and how they might have overcome this disappointment were also not used because the responses did not provide additional value to the literature in order to be retained. In the end, the data analysis produced a total of 35 findings which was then reduced to three themes threaded throughout the findings.

Finally, each interviewee was provided with a pseudonym name for anonymity and easy access to the information as needed in both the analysis and the write-up of the findings (see Table A-5). In addition, other identifying demographics for each interviewee were added to the datasets to run comparisons by demographic elements (i.e., location, position title, number of years in position, tenure status, mobility, and percent of women in upper-level administration at the specific institution).

Since this study used a multi-case design, two stages of analysis exist – the within-case analysis and the cross-case analysis. For the within-case, each case was first treated as a comprehensive case in and of itself. Once the analysis of each case was completed, cross-case analysis began. The researcher attempted to build a general explanation to fit each of the individual cases, even though the cases varied in their details (Yin, 1994, p. 112). Miles and Huberman (1994) warn that cross-case analysis is tricky. Simply summarizing across some themes or main variables by itself tells us little. The researcher must look carefully at the complex configuration of processes within each case, understand the local dynamics, before he/she can see patterning of variables that transcends particular cases (pp. 205-206).

In the final stages of the data analysis, the researcher established naturalistic generalizations from analyzing the data. These are explanations that people can learn from the case.

Background and Role of the Researcher

In a qualitative study, the researcher is the primary instrument for gathering and analyzing the data. Certain characteristics differentiate the human researcher from the other data collection instruments: the researcher is responsive to the context; he or she

can adapt techniques to the circumstances; the total context can be considered; what is known about the situation can be expanded through sensitivity to nonverbal aspects; the researcher can process data immediately, can study and summarize as the study evolves, and can explore anomalous responses (Guba & Lincoln, 1981). Conversely, since the researcher as a human instrument is limited by being human, mistakes are made, opportunities are missed, and personal biases interfere. With this in mind, the background and role of the researcher is vital to the credibility of the research and significant to this study.

For this study, the researcher is an educational leadership doctoral student and currently employed as the director of the Office of Planning and Analysis at a large land-grant higher education institution. The researcher is a woman who has worked at the university and in the same office for 19 years. During her tenure, she was promoted from the statistical and reporting officer to her current position as director. She is very involved on university-wide committees and has been involved with quantitative studies focused on equity, salary comparisons, employee satisfaction, climate, evaluation of administrators, and compilation of data for the university women's caucus. She has experience working with upper-level administration. Because of her current university experience and work with confidential data sets, this researcher feels she is highly intuitive and sensitive. She is sensitive to the context and all the variables within as well as the information being gathered. She is aware of any personal biases and how they influence the investigation. Because of her interactions with women across the university and with delicate situations, she feels she is a good communicator who empathizes with interviewees, establishes rapport, asks good questions, and listens intently.

Trustworthiness

Regardless of the type of research, credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability are issues that can be handled through careful attention to a study's theory and the way in which data are collected, analyzed, and interpreted, and how the findings are presented. One of the assumptions underlying qualitative research is that reality is holistic, multidimensional, and ever changing. It is not a single, fixed, objective phenomenon waiting to be discovered, observed, and measured. Firestone (1987) notes that different strategies are used to persuade the reader of the authenticity of the findings. The qualitative study provides the reader with the depiction in enough detail to show that the author's conclusions "make sense" (p. 19).

Two basic strategies were used in this study to enhance credibility. First, each participant provided their vita, which verified their education and a brief description of their progression in the various positions held. Secondly, the researcher reviewed and analyzed the higher education institutions' organizational charts as well as any other pertinent information retrieved from their specific institution's website. Thus, this triangulation of information provided corroborating evidence and established major and minor themes. The narrative account was credible because the researcher processed and relied on multiple forms of evidence rather than a single incident or data point in the study (Creswell & Miller, 2000).

Qualitative inquirers may use a second lens to establish the credibility of their account: the participants in the study. The qualitative paradigm assumes that reality is socially constructed and it is what participants perceive it to be. This lens suggests the importance of checking how accurately participants' realities have been represented in the

final account. Those who employ this lens seek to actively involve participants in assessing whether the interpretations accurately represent them (Creswell & Miller, 2000). This strategy has also been called "member checking" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), which involves taking data, interpretations, and conclusions back to the participants for their feedback on the accuracy and the overall adequacy and confirmation of the data. For this study, only confirmation of data was addressed. Each participant was asked if she would like to review the transcripts for accuracy. Two participants requested to review the transcripts for accuracy. The transcripts were sent via email and within two weeks, the participants had reviewed the transcripts and made minor edits.

As an alternative to member checking, peer debriefing was used to verify coding and interpretation. Essentially, researchers add credibility to the study by seeking the assistance of peer debriefers (Creswell & Miller, 2000). For this study, two peer reviewers provided support, played devil's advocate, challenged the researchers' assumptions, and asked questions about methods and interpretations (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). One peer-reviewer has several years of experience with qualitative analysis and is considered an "expert" in qualitative studies at the researcher's institution. However, this peer reviewer has a known bias to this specific study because the reviewer is the researcher's major professor. Therefore, the researcher also acquired the assistance of her colleague in the department where she is employed. This colleague's background is in the social sciences with several years of qualitative research experience and has served as a member on master thesis and doctoral dissertation committees.

Although it is virtually impossible for the researcher to remain totally neutral and objective toward the information provided by the participants (Hammersley & Atkinson,

1995), every effort was made to maintain sensitivity so the researcher was aware of her subjective attributes in the process, and their possible impact on the meaning interpretation. Initial questions were open-ended to help ensure that participants were not unduly influenced by their perceptions of the researcher's views. Kvale (1996) identified quality criteria for interviewing by using short interview questions that glean correspondingly long answers and interpreting, verifying, and clarifying answers during the interview. This method allowed the responses to be spontaneous and rich. Furthermore, in the planning, conducting, analyzing, and reporting, this researcher strived for accuracy and honesty. This researcher documented biases by maintaining reflective logs. In addition, if biases did occur, this researcher discussed the issues and biases in the written report.

To enhance the possibility of applying the results to other groups, the researcher first provided enough description so that readers were able to determine how closely their situations match the research situation, and hence, whether findings can be transferred. Lincoln and Guba (1985) explain the “thick descriptions” as richly detailed accounts and excerpted quotations. Detailed descriptions of participants and the settings were included in this study to allow the reader to feel and understand each participant’s story. At the same time, this was a multi-case study and therefore, by design it maximized diversity by allowing the results to be applied by readers to a greater range of other situations.

Since many interpretations of what is happening in a qualitative study are offered, no benchmark by which to take repeated measures and establish reliability in the traditional sense exist (Merriam, 1998). Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggest using a different term instead of reliability, such as dependability or consistency of the results

obtained from the data. Basically, the researcher requested the peer debriefers confirm that the results made sense and were consistent and dependable. In other words, the researcher must provide results consistent with the data collected.

For this study, dependability and confirmability were achieved by maintaining an audit trail consisting of transcripts, research notes, memos and reflections on how categories or codes were derived and how decisions were made throughout the inquiry. In addition, the researcher explained her position, which included details of the assumptions and theory behind the study, her position vis-à-vis the group being studied, the basis for selecting the participants and their descriptions, and the social context from which the data were collected (LeCompte & Preissle, 1993).

In addition, several factors may influence an informant's responses, such as the informant's health, mood at the time of the interview, and outside abstractions. This may be difficult to discern. Also, the informant's interior motives for participating in the study may affect the quality of data obtained. The researcher confirmed the informant's account by checking the documentary materials. Since the same information from both interviews and documents were determined consistent, the researcher was more certain about the accuracy of that information.

Ethical Considerations

Because of the subjectivity and intrusive nature of qualitative research, ethical concerns may emerge concerning the welfare and confidentiality of the participants. This study followed Bogdan and Biklen's (1998) guidelines of informed consent and protection from harm, which are key factors that govern research with human subjects.

First, involvement in this study was voluntary. Each participant was contacted in writing and provided a written statement about the nature and purpose of the study in order to make an informed decision. The anonymity of the participants was protected by assigning aliases to individuals. In addition, institutional names and locales that may be mentioned in the context of the interview and review of the documents were also changed to provide anonymity. Women who agreed to participate were asked to sign an Informed Consent form that detailed the purpose of the study, explained the measures taken to guarantee anonymity, and granted permission for audio taping and transcribing the interview. General rather than specific information about the study was presented. Finally, all the data collected during the course of the study were filed and will be held in a secure location for at least three years.

Summary

This study used a multi-case study qualitative research design that used both structured and semi-structured interviews. Participants from land-grant institutions were purposely selected for the study based on established criteria. Data collection, participant profiles, data analysis and ensuring credibility and consistency of the data collected were described. Finally, ethical considerations were outlined.

The next chapter provides the findings from the interviews. Each section within that chapter addresses one of the three components of Bandura's model and provides the participants perception regarding the interaction of the three components in determining a woman's motivation to advance in her career.

CHAPTER 4: ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Introduction

As was stated in Chapter 1, women continue to be underrepresented in the upper-level administrative positions in higher education even though more women are earning doctorate degrees than men, and more women are gaining management experience in higher education. Much of the research on women advancing in higher education has been focused on the external barriers and how to break down the barriers. This study acknowledged that external barriers existed, but determined that a new approach, a more positive approach, needed to be explored to provide a fresh rationale for implementing new initiatives to advance women to upper-level administrative positions.

The Purpose Statement

The purpose of this study was to explore the motivational factors that influence a woman's decision to pursue upper-level higher education administrative positions. Using Bandura's Model of Reciprocal Determination, the researcher investigated in-depth what influential factors were responsible for motivating women to achieve upper-level positions in higher education. Specifically, the components of Bandura's Model which included self-efficacy, personal behavior, environmental factors and the interaction of all three components were explored.

Analyzing the Data

Once all the interviews had been conducted, the interview tapes were transcribed for analysis. The demographic data from the participants' vitas and organizational charts were compiled. The transcripts and descriptive data formed the entire body of data which were analyzed.

The challenge in analyzing qualitative data is the ability to take a large body of information, which is all narrative, and separate the information into smaller segments that can be interpreted, classified, and described into major findings. For this study, the Creswell (1998) data analysis spiral was used and the following steps were followed:

1. Organization: Data are organized into file folders, index cards or computer files. Also, data are converted into appropriate text units for analysis.
2. Perusal: Data are reviewed and short phrases, ideas, or key concepts are noted by the reader.
3. Classification: Findings are developed through a classification system and interpretation is provided based on the researcher's views or perspectives from the literature.
4. Synthesis: The data are presented in text, tabular or figure form.

Prior to organizing the data into manageable electronic files, the researcher first read the transcripts in their entirety several times. The researcher wrote memos in the margins to help with the initial groupings. A spreadsheet program was used to organize the data into smaller units. Since the interview questions were organized by the three components of Bandura's model and the interaction of the three components, the responses or data were organized into four separate electronic files. The interview questions were also structured to investigate the broad categories determined by the literature. Within the self-efficacy component (level 1 main code), confidence, success, and challenges were the three broad sub-codes (level 2). Career path, mobility, skills, and compromises were the four broad sub-codes (level 2) under the personal behavior component (level 1 main codes). Organization, culture, and mentoring (level 2 sub-

codes) were used to best describe the environmental factors (level 1 main code). Using the level 2 sub-codes within each level 1 main codes, the stories, phrases and individual words for each interviewee were entered into the electronic files.

Because some level 2 sub-codes were very broad, level 3 sub-codes within level 2 sub-codes were used to further organize the responses. For instance, the level 2 sub-codes of confidence were divided into participants' reflection of confidence and building confidence. In addition, career path was fairly broad and data were separated into four level 3 sub-codes of decision to enter higher education, goals, strategies for interviews, and overcoming failure for not being offered a position. Similarly, mentoring responses were organized within four level 3 sub-codes of types of mentoring, advice by the participants, change in support system and role models. Ultimately, the level 2 and level 3 sub-codes were broad enough to capture the major ideas expressed but concise enough for interpretation (see Table 4-1).

Essentially, the separate files of data allowed the materials to be easily located and data could be moved from one file to the next. During the perusal step, the data were reviewed four to five times to get a sense of the entire body of data as a whole, to determine if responses needed to be moved to more appropriate codes or sub-codes and to get a sense of any prominent findings.

Once the data were entered and coded, the researcher sorted the dataset by the codes and sub-codes (levels 2 and 3) across all cases (participants), keeping in mind to only include unduplicated codes by participant. This process provided the ability to determine which sub-code (level 3) had a prominent number of responses. The responses within these selected sub-codes were reviewed and findings emerged.

Table 4-1: Coding Configuration

Coding Levels	Coding by Levels			
Level 1	Self-Efficacy (3 sub-codes/level 2; 8 total codes within sub-codes/level 3)	Personal Behavior (4 sub-codes/level 2; 12 total codes within sub-codes/level 3)	Environmental Factors (3 sub-codes/level 2; 13 total codes within sub- codes/level 3)	Interaction (3 total codes within sub- codes/level 3)
Level 2	Confidence	Career Path	Organization	
Level 3	Reflection on confidence	Decision to enter higher education	Organization is an advocate for women	Interaction of all three components
	Building confidence	Setting goals	Organization is an old boys' club	Interaction of two components
		Strategies for interviewing	Organization is hierarchal	No interaction
			Participants directly report to the CEO	
Level 2	Success	Mobility	Culture	
Level 3	Success defined	Advantages to move to other institutions for career advancement	Culture is receptive to women	
	Examples of success	Advantages to stay at one institution for career advancement	Culture is not receptive to women	
			Culture is controlled by the president/CEO	
			Culture is changing at the institution	
			Impression by participants about the culture	
Level 2	Challenges	Skills	Mentoring	
Level 3	Working with challenging people	Performance skills	Types of mentoring	
	Codes of conduct	Knowledge skills	Advice by participants	
	Change in processes, supervisors, or structure	Skills attributed to behavior	Change in support system	

	Emotions that arise when dealing with challenges	Leadership skills	Role Models	
Level 2		Compromises		
Level 3		Work related compromises		
		Family compromises		
		Health issues		

Based on Creswell’s parameters, the researcher only included findings that constituted prominence. Findings which included responses from at least nine participants were considered prominent and were included in the data analysis. The decision to exclude findings was based on three factors (1) the number of responses was less than nine, (2) the responses were not discussed extensively or repeatedly, and (3) the total number of responses for a finding was less than 12 or two-thirds.

The level 2 sub-codes and corresponding findings were reported in tables. Summarized excerpts from the participants were included to illustrate findings and provide evidence in support of the findings listed.

The findings were also disaggregated using four demographic areas (years in position, tenure status, mobility, and percent of women in upper-level administration) to determine any prominent sub-findings with respect to demographics. The percent of respondents by demographic area and finding was calculated. Since each demographic area had two variables, the difference between the two variables determined the prominence. Basically, if the difference in the percent of respondents between the two demographic variables was greater than thirty percent, then the demographic variable with the highest percentage was considered a prominent sub-finding.

Data Presentation

In this chapter, the findings are described within each of Bandura's components of self-efficacy, personal behavior, and environmental factors followed by the interaction of the three components. Verbatim quotes from the participants are included to confirm and more realistically exemplify the findings. Finally, the themes threaded throughout the cases are introduced.

Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy is regarded as the foundation of human motivation, well-being and personal accomplishment (Pajares, 2004). Bandura noted that unless people believe that they can bring about desired outcomes by their actions, they have little incentive to act or to persevere in the face of difficulties. There are countless areas where women do not pursue upper-level administrative positions because they lack what it takes to succeed. Women exclude entire classes of options rapidly, on efficacy grounds, without bothering to analyze costs and benefits. Behavior such as this can only be explained by adding perceived efficacy to the decision making model (Kester, 2001).

This section explores women's self-efficacy or personal belief as they entered and remained in upper-level administration and responds to the first research sub-question: What are the perceptions of women's self-efficacy related to career advancement? Among the mechanisms of human groups none is more central or pervasive than beliefs of personal efficacy. Whatever other factors serve as guides and motivators, they are rooted in the core belief that one has the power to produce desired effects by one's actions (Bandura, 2003). Essentially, beliefs of personal efficacy touch every aspect of a

woman's life whether by how well she motivates herself, perseveres in the face of adversities, or the life choices she makes.

The researcher grouped the findings regarding self-efficacy into the three level 2 sub-codes (see Table 4-2). The first sub-code identifies findings related to women's confidence and describes how they build their self-confidence. Defining success and identifying successful examples or experiences comprise the second sub-code of findings under self-efficacy. The third sub-code reveals the findings related to the challenges faced by these women.

Confidence

People with high self-confidence levels set challenging goals, approach difficult tasks as challenges rather than as threats, and maintain a task oriented focus. Heward (1996) suggests that self-confidence, a positive evaluation of a person's own academic ability from the outset of his/her career, is crucial basis for a successful academic career. Unfortunately for women, much of the early literature suggested that low representation of women in administration was due to personal factors such as low self-confidence, geographical limitations, and inadequate credentials (Mann & Smith, 1990). In contrast to the earlier literature, the women in this study had a high self-confidence and basically had the "I can" attitude to do whatever is expected despite the lower representation of women at the upper-level positions. In addition, these women believed that knowledge, experience, doing well and encouragement from other people were important components to maintaining and increasing their self-confidence.

"I-Can" Attitude.

Thirteen participants indicated that they have an internal belief that they could do

Table 4-2: Sub-codes and Findings for Self Efficacy

Sub-codes (Level 2)	Findings (number of participants expressing concept)	Evidence – examples from the transcripts
Confidence – a feeling of assurance or certainty	They have an “I-Can” attitude. (13)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I am in a groove and feel very comfortable in my work. • I am confident I will figure it out, find someone to help me to figure it out, or learn how to do it. • By watching other top-level administrators, I felt I could do as well or better job. • I am 100% confident in my work. • I am good at assessing what can work. • I am just as smart as they are, so I can do this. • I am confident I can build the university and its programs.
	Knowledge, experience and doing well increased confidence. (11)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • By taking the risk, saying I can do it even if I didn’t believe it at the time and knowing if it fails, I can recover and learn from it are all ways to increase my confidence. • It is a self-fulfilling cycle to know the job, do it well, succeed, increase confidence, confidence enables me to do my job and even advance. • At this point in my career, I knew what type of position I wanted. • Experience over time increases confidence. • I know I am capable to do the job; thus I have a sense of personal competence.
	External awards, appreciation notes, and achieving “stretch” goals helped to build confidence. (10)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I received an award for distinguished service to students. • I set goals and figure out how I am going to achieve them. • The feedback is good and that builds your confidence. • Seeing the success of the endeavor, whether it be building a building, reaching a top ranking, exceeding a campaign goal or accomplishing a challenging task are very rewarding and have given me visibility and credibility.
	They were able to build confidence with the help from people. (9)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If I am feeling ambivalent about knowing what the best thing to do is, then there are plenty of people to talk to. • I have strong support people working for me. • I participate in a number of professional development opportunities. • I watch others and how they face adversity and pick up on some of their tactics and approaches.
Success – an achievement or accomplishment; a favorable outcome	Making a difference at the institution or impacting decisions defined success. (10)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I want to leave the institution better than when I arrived, thus I impact the decisions that are made. • It is not the money or the title or the power. I am enjoying what I am doing and I am adding value to the university. • I want to make a difference for the institution in its overall quest to fulfill its mission and move forward. • Create the best learning environment for the students.

	<p>Helping and influencing others defined success. (11)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Enabling other people so they can reach their goals defines my success. • I feel successful by having good working relationships with students, my staff, and those who directly report to me. • I respect every single individual in this world for what they can contribute. • I influence as many people in a positive way. • By making a difference or positive impact on someone's life or easing the load on people to produce "small saves" defines success.
	<p>Accomplishing goals defined success. (9)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Success is defined by being able to achieve a goal and striving for excellence. • If the institution has met its goals, objectives, then I find a lot of personal success in helping to contribute to that success. • Reaching to the top level of your field defines success. • Success is measured in how I was evaluated externally and that was how well received my publications were, how well my grant proposals were and that translates into how many papers did you publish or how many grants were funded.
	<p>Success was determined by how one confronts change. (9)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dealing with the change in operations and processes within a unit illustrates success. • Adjusting to a position change within the same institution is an example of success. • The success of persons hired externally for growth and new direction shows my achievement. • The ability to combine and reorganize the college structure even under duress shows success.
	<p>Hiring and working with good people and receiving notes of appreciation were considered success stories. (11)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hiring outstanding people and watching them succeed and grow is an example of success. • Success of the students and hearing back from students about their extraordinary lives provide examples of how I have contributed to their success stories. • Team work and accomplishing major projects demonstrate success stories. • A supportive President appreciating what I do.
<p>Challenges – something that requires full use of one's abilities, effort, energies, or resources</p>	<p>Dealing with change was considered a challenge. (12)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Changing policy and implementing a new structure were challenges. • Quitting full-time employment to go back to school was a challenge. • Changing institutions and working in a new environment were challenges. • Changing positions from the private sector to public sector or moving from a faculty position to administrative position were considered challenges. • Overseeing people who were once your peers was considered a challenge. • The ability to work at an institution faced with budget reductions was a challenge.
	<p>With various challenges</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Having to fire someone was not a pleasant experience.

	<p>or risks, women experienced different emotions, feelings, moods, or mental states. (9)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Starting a controversial center took courage and perseverance. • By having an illness, you open yourself up and are perceived to be vulnerable. • You feel nervous, afraid and your credibility is on the line to produce a quality product or start something new. • One needs to keep a sense a humor even in times of tough decisions.
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their confidence began before they entered the upper-level administrative positions. Dr.

Anderson commented,

“When I was working on a master’s degree, back in my early 30s, I remember working on my master’s and getting to know faculty on a level that I had not known as an undergraduate. And getting to know them on a more personal level, and thinking to myself, I’m just as smart as they are, you know, why can’t I get a PhD? That’s when getting a PhD first crept into my mind. When I got to know these people on a more personal level, and you know I was in my early 30s so some of them were close to my age, I build my confidence by comparing what I know I can do to what I see other people doing. If that makes any kind of sense. And then I had a faculty member at the time say to me, ‘Kathleen, you should really think about getting your PhD because of your GRE scores.’ And that was the first time that anybody in my life suggested to me that I could achieve at that level. So that kind of validated this comparison I was making between myself and those faculty and what I thought I could do.”

Dr. Pratt had been the director of placement and career services for about five years assisting students in determining their career focus and found she probably needed to think about her own career.

“I hadn't really thought about my career before. I had just been in the positions that I had been in. I hadn't really thought about what I wanted for my own career direction to be. And I started thinking about it, and I had a meeting with my VP of student affairs to whom at that time I did not report, but she had originally hired me for another position. And I looked at her and said, I can do your job, and she looked back at me and said, of course you can. And that's when I really started looking at becoming a VP of student affairs.”

Dr. Marshall approached confidence from a different angle. She explained,

“I think a person needs to be self assured, and that’s not to say I know everything. I don’t know a lot of things. But I know I can figure it out by talking to other people, by going to the library, by using the lab. I am smart enough to figure it out. That’s self assurance.”

Knowledge, Experience and Doing Well Increased Confidence.

Bandura viewed ability as acquirable rather than inherent. If people were led to believe that the skills could be acquired, then they would set challenging goals for themselves, be more efficient in their analytical thinking, and achieve higher performance (Kester, 2001). Eleven out of the 18 participants were confident about their ability to learn, resolve problems, and overcome risky decisions. In other words, possessing particular skills were important to determine confidence. Ms. Butel commented, “It’s kind of a circle. I believe I know what my job requires. I believe I do it well. And so success continues to breed confidence, and that confidence enables me to do my job well, and so it becomes a self-fulfilling cycle.” Dr. Patton indicated that it depended upon the day.

“I’ll be honest, when I’m in the middle of a discipline matter that involves a legendary football coach, you struggle. But when I’m in the middle of working with students, speaking to a group and engaging them in a dialogue or sitting down with staff to plan a program or our strategic plan, then I feel very kind. And on the day- to-day impact on the lives of our students and helping our staff to do a better job at that, or helping to reorganize the organization to do better at that, no I think I have a very healthy level of confidence in my ability there. And I have a very healthy level of confidence in my ability to connect with students, to let them know I care about them, and to really help them grow and help other staff refine those skills and that expertise. It’s in that outside arena, outside the family, outside of student affairs where, it’s not that I don’t have confidence, but it’s where you question yourself because of the environment and the way others treat you.”

One of the distinguishing marks of humans is their endowed learnability (Pajares, 2004). Since Dr. Samuelson is a scientist, she commented that she finds it exciting to ask questions as to why something didn’t work and how could it work differently.

“So to me it’s not a question of failure versus success, it’s a question of how do I get to where I want to go knowing that the road might have many failures and successes. But, if you chart your course and are good about analyzing and assessing why things work and why things don’t work, every piece of the journey

is a learning experience. So I'm not afraid to take risks, I'm confident that I can recover from the bad and I can have fun doing the good. So, I don't expect myself to be perfect, I know I'm going to make bloopers.”

Even though Ms. Roller did not start in higher education, she knew what she needed to do to lead the group. As she admitted, there was a huge learning curve. However, Ms. Roller knew that she could lead the experts and she was confident that she could reach a solution through her own abilities or through help.

Dr. Clark found that confidence is increased through experience and by experiencing success will in turn build confidence. Similarly, Dr. Pratt indicated that time and experience are ways to increase confidence. Basically, “the more you do it, the longer you do it, the better you become at it. The more confident you are about it.”

Build Confidence through Achievements and External Rewards

The participants in this study described several ways in which they build or reinforce their self-confidence. According to 10 out of 18 of the participants, accomplishments and rewards were one way to build their confidence. Dr. Hatfield expressed that her accomplishments has given her visibility and credibility within the institution. In fact, her external constituents were also aware of what she had done, which positioned her and put a spotlight on her for the good things that she has done. Dr. Sankey sets goals and then figures out how she is going to achieve them. She further explained,

“I love to learn and I'm always watching and listening. I think the way I do it is the same way I ran my research career which is that I lay out goals and then I figure out how to achieve them. I think that's the best way to build confidence is to accomplish things; things that other people value. By the way, I mean when I lay out goals, I don't just lay out goals and say this is what we're going to do. I set it with my clients, my customers, which are the deans, the VPs, and I set it with my superiors, and everyone agrees that this is something that the institution wants

to do, and then we set about to accomplish it. And that way I know that I'm doing what the institution needs and I know if I accomplish it, it's worth while.”

As interim Dean of Students, Dr. Shilo received an award for distinguished service to students which is usually given to someone who is retiring. Dr. Shilo described, “In one year, I talked a kid off a roof, cracked a couple of crimes, organized the department, rewrote the code of conduct, worked with the Greek system, made that better. I mean just, so many different victories.”

Help from Other People Builds Confidence.

Human lives are not lived in isolation. Bandura, therefore, expanded the conception of human agency to include collective agency. Essentially, people work together on shared beliefs about their capabilities and common aspirations to better their lives (Pajares, 2004). In other words, women need to network, which was the second way to build confidence according to nine out of the 18 participants. Dr. Clark believed that participating in a number of professional development opportunities builds confidence.

“I've participated much earlier in my career in a number of professional development opportunities with some of those through National Association of State University and Land-Grant Colleges (NASULGC) and one of those through the American Counsel of Education. And I found those professional development experiences to also be helpful in building confidence. This is work that I can do and that I can be successful in it.”

Also, according to Dr. Letterman, by observing others she could pick up on some of their tactics and approaches to be better able to face adversity.

“I think that building on self confidence is somewhat connected to being able to see how others in your role also do your job. Having colleagues at other universities that are doing similar kinds of jobs, and seeing how they're approaching problem solving, and seeing that the problem that you're working may not be unique to you, or something attributable to some quirk in your own personality, but something that everyone is dealing with, it really helps you deal

with a problem with confidence. I think what makes you lack confidence is when you begin to suspect that the reason things aren't going well because there is something unique to the way you're approaching it that's creating that failure. I think that's very rarely the case."

Dr. Gutrell found support closer to home with her husband and colleagues that report to her.

"I have really good support people. I have a great husband, who is very supportive, and a great cheerleader. I have colleagues that are like that, not necessarily my peers, but I have colleagues. I have both my direct reports and I have a kitchen cabinet, as I like to call them, of people that bolster me from time to time."

Success

Differences in attributions to achievement made by males and females suggest that females are more likely to believe their success is due to luck or chance, whereas males may believe their success is due to native ability (Dweck & Bush, 1976). In this study, participants were asked to define success either personally or professionally. Interestingly, the participants believe they are successful when they are making a difference, assisting and respecting people or by their achievements rather than due to luck or even abilities.

Making a Difference.

Ten out of 18 participants defined success by making a difference at the institutional level or by impacting decisions. Making a difference was significant for Ms. Butel in defining her success. She felt if she has put in a good day's work and has made a difference whether it is on a small level or a large level, then she would consider herself to be successful. Dr. Letterman argued that you need to put some thought into where things might move, not just you personally, but how the world around you is moving.

“Some people always say to be thinking 5-10 years in advance to where you want to be. There’s a certain amount of truth to that. It also helps you to see where your current job is going in a forward progression. If you’re not thinking 5 or 10 years out, not only in case of where you want to be personally, but where does this institution need to be, and are you contributing to that or are you standing in the way of it. And believe me, the higher up you get, the more you can stand in the way, as opposed to moving them forward, and you have to do a self-examination and make sure you’re not doing that, but that you’re actually helping the university move to another place.”

In addition, Dr. Patton started working on her doctorate to make a difference.

Basically,

“what motivated me to do the doctorate was that I really wanted to get to a point where I could impact policy, and not just impact individual lives. So as you move from the one at a time kind of a level, to impacting the culture and impacting the system, I think success becomes your effectiveness at doing that. But the evidence you see is that yes you’ve succeeded, yes you’ve changed the culture, and yes you’ve improved experiences in the individual students and their growth.”

Helping and Influencing Others.

Middlehurst (1997) argued that different skills are now required of leaders. These would include abilities to enthuse and empower others by building ownership and participation in decision making; to build thick information networks and coalitions; to be flexible and responsive to customer and client needs, to nurture and develop individuals; to be willing to share information and to operate in an open and transparent manner; to be able to articulate core values and to develop culture through the creation of shared meanings. Middlehurst’s findings were affirmed by this study with 11 out of the 18 participants who believed their success came from how they helped others succeed. For Dr. Clark, she simply stated, “For me success is enabling people to reach their goals and creating the kind of learning environment on a university campus that is the best possible for our students.”

Dr. Shilo defined success as “small saves” and having respect for herself and others. Basically, it is

“the impact that I'm able to make; that I will have left at least a fingerprint here, more than on my desk, but that, I think that's something we should all do for many positions at any level, is to make a difference and to make the load easier for the people that you work with. I'm real relationship oriented so, I think it's respect, the impact that you're able to have, and the unexpected. They're not intangible, but small saves. If you can come to your office and have a small save every day, it really does add up. You know, so we can provide little miracles, little mini miracles, small saves, that I think make a huge difference to how the campus feels, how we feel about our self and what we do, and I think sometimes you got to go looking for them, but they're there every day.”

Dr. Marshall felt it is important to help people move forward by giving them knowledge, education and self-assurance so that they can move forward. Essentially,

“my goal when I guide and direct my people is to make sure that my comments don't sound like negative criticism; that they always come across as building a model and this is sort of interesting. I don't know where I learned it. I know I was taught it, but I can't come up with it. For every single employee, I have a vision for what they can be. Now they don't have to go into that vision, they don't have to grow into that. But at least it's a vision of what I think they could achieve. They are going to contribute to the world. And I keep that vision with my people all the time. It's been fun because I don't tell them what I envision for them. It's amazing how many will strive to achieve that if you believe that they can. And I'm a believer that everybody can learn a lot more than they learn.”

Dr. Pratt commented that “if I cannot demonstrate by the weight of my work and what I do does not change the course of an individual and collective student lives, then I have not been successful.” Essentially, “it's not about me,” expressed Dr. Samuelson, “but the ability to help another person grow.” She further added that it's all about making other people successful and if they are successful, then I am.

Accomplishing Goals.

Nine of the 18 participants also defined success in relation to achievements or accomplishments. Several participants were goal setters and determined their success by

how well they accomplished their goals. Both Dr. Caldwell and Dr. Gutrell believed by setting goals and accomplishing those goals success has been achieved. As Dr. Caldwell explains, "I am very tenacious when it comes to goals and I aim to accomplish them." In contrast to personal goals, Ms. Schlinder found that "if the institution has met its goals or objectives, then I find a lot of personal success in helping to contribute to that success."

Several accomplishments were also mentioned. Dr. Anderson described accomplishing a project that in the end is making a difference:

"In the fall of 2005 we had a significant decline in the yield in our enrollment of our first year African American students. And of course it set off this ripple of bad press and bad feeling amongst our African American faculty, thinking we weren't being welcoming and all of those kinds of concerns. So the President and Provost established a committee and we were charged to find out what it takes for African Americans to be successful at UC. I chaired it and we kept it a small committee, but it was a committee of four African Americans, two of which were faculty, and three whites, and three women and four men, both qualitative and quantitative orientations. So it was a nice mix of people and of course it had a lot of potential. At one point it almost actually fell apart because we ran into some ideology differences that were difficult to overcome, and I got a lot of credit from both the whites and the blacks for my leadership and how I managed the committee, and in less than a year's time we completed five different projects. We came out with a report that earned the Provost praises, the best of this kind he'd ever seen in all his career. And for which he is implementing recommendations. There were quite a few areas here that I felt that my leadership resulted in some recognized excellence and one is getting accomplished what we got accomplished in less than a year's time. So we got something done. We dealt with our differences and our ideologies and came to a consensus. We were on target."

Confronting Change.

Women must be change agents who focus on process and structure rather than force of personality to alter their organization. (Madden, 2002) Once in positions of power, women leaders can challenge complacency, interrupt inertia, and force an institution to examine its values and consider alternatives. We have the chance to help the university become more creative, dynamic, and responsive to change (Kaplan &

Tinsley, 1989). In this study fifty percent of the participants depicted a change they had enacted or experienced as their example of success. For instance, Dr. Colter stepped in as the interim Dean of Students after the former Dean committed suicide. As she described,

“this was difficult because the former dean was a man that everybody liked and worshiped the ground he walked on. When it was announced that I would be interim, there was a big push back from the staff. So, I decided to meet with the staff members and provide them my expectations and assured them that I did not plan to fill his shoes but to bring the group together, to mourn together, and to fulfill the former dean of students’ legacy.”

Similarly, Ms. Roller was fairly new in her position and the President was kind of in the process of reorganizing the whole administration, and who reported to what. She recounted,

“We moved a lot of the various organizational pieces over to my division. And it was the ones that should operate like business auxiliaries; they just kind of floated all over the place. And so, they came over to my division. And you have to run them like a business. I mean they are business, and they should have business plans. And so they all came over, and systematically, I had everyone put together business plans, and how they are contributing to the bottom line, and what’s your cost structure, what’s your organizational structure. So, they’ve done that, and then I measure, and they report against that, and I think that has changed the whole culture here in terms of how you run those entities like a business. I’ll hear it across campus. They have to be self-supporting, and they’re a business, and they have business plans. And I’ll hear from it from really strange places that I wouldn’t have thought would have even focused on that. But that’s really been my message out there. It’s not a short-term success. I think it’s one that’ll change the culture.”

Other changes that happen on university campuses relate to changing computer systems for the student, financial or personnel units. For Ms. Schlinder, the purchasing of the administrative software system was a change. The success of choosing the most appropriate program was a result of a team effort to question the vendors and to be well prepared to respond intelligently. Ms. Schlinder contends, “Despite the influence of

politics, the board of trustees selected the program we wanted. We had to deal with a lot of emotions through this process, but it was successful.”

Hiring and Working with Good People.

Eleven out of 18 recounted stories that further illustrated their success by how others are successful. For instance, Dr. Clark indicated by hiring good people and seeing the success of those individuals increased her feeling of success. "Seeing what they are able to do with their colleges has really reaffirmed for me my judgment about the kind of people I need in positions and the ability to hire them to help them become successful." Dr. Shilo added that the success of the students and hearing back from students about their extraordinary lives provided evidence of how well she did. "The real joy is being in this chair and meeting both types of students, and to the extent that you can influence decisions or lifestyles, help them through the rough spots, keep them on the straight and narrow, is a privilege.”

Dr. Pratt added that the success of others is what drives her and is what defines what she does. She concluded,

“There is no greater high and no greater sense of my success in this position than having a student with whom I have worked over a period of time have the epiphany of how they view themselves, how they view the world, how they move in, how they enter life and knowing I had something to do with that. It's those moments, it's receiving a card from students saying thank you for having been there for me and it's going to graduation that drives me. Graduations are very precious to me. Watching students whom I've mentored over their time here at the university graduate or hearing from them and knowing they're successful and knowing again that I had a small part to play in that success. That's what defines my success.”

Challenges

By studying the behaviors of administrators through interviews, observations, and tracking their career paths and professional development yield more accurate pictures of

the nature of the job, its challenges, and problems (Mark, 1986). In this study, participants were asked to describe challenges they have or are facing. Twelve out of the 18 participants mentioned change as a major challenge. Interestingly, of those 12 participants, seven also considered a change to be a success. However, the successes due to change were tied mostly to institutional circumstances, whereby the change associated with challenges affected the participants on a more personal level. Also, participants expressed that changes were not only challenging, but also risky.

Dealing with Change.

A change in roles was expressed as a challenge by three participants. Dr. Caldwell faced letting go of the clinical hat and her role as a psychologist to become an administrator. “I haven’t looked back and I love it.” Similarly, Dr. Sankey closed her research lab and changed over from faculty to administration. The challenge expressed by Dr. Hatfield involved changing institutions from one that was a flagship to the land-grant. She explained that she came from a school that had a lot of wealthy contributors, lots of firepower behind communications and a great icon. Then, going to a land-grant where there is a need to talk about the most successful alums and emphasize engineering, science and agriculture rather than the humanities was quite a change.

Dr. Letterman and Dr. Pratt didn’t change roles but quit their full-time positions to go back to school to pursue their doctorates. Dr. Pratt commented,

“I kept resisting getting a Ph.D. until I knew I needed one. I knew that I did not want to go back to school and work at the same time because I saw others do it and it seemed like a brutal experience. I wanted to enjoy this experience, so I became a full-time student.”

Dr. Marshall proposed an internet infrastructure that was risky to use since very few were using it. But, in the end it saved a lot of money.

“People had to trust me that I knew what I was talking about. Fortunately, the provost did allow me to come to the table with a well-thought out proposal in which I talked to a lot of people since I am not the expert. So, they trusted me and took the leap of faith with me.”

Also, Dr. Samuelson was asked by the Dean to totally redo the freshmen biology sequence.

“This was a risk because I was totally immersed in working with graduate students and research. By taking this on, I impinged on my research activities but that was the pivotal decision that led me to the provost position. I worked with 11 other faculty to develop this course. We were qualified scientists but also had an interest in how students learn and how to better teach biology. It is now a strong program with 1,600 students per semester.”

Finally, sometimes seeking change in things that others tell you can’t be changed is also a big risk. Dr. Shavley described her experience with raising admission standards.

“The faculty and staff were in favor of the change in admission standards but the public was skeptical because they thought we were trying to be elitist. On top of this, I was working with the third president to deal with these new admissions standards. Each new president was also skeptical. I stood my ground and said we are not changing them back.”

Experience Different Emotions, Feelings, Moods, or Mental States.

Along with experiencing challenges through changes or risks, half of the participants expressed different types of emotions or feelings that affected how they handled the different challenges they faced. Dr. Anderson was chair of the certification process for NCAA and by being chair she had to tell some of the committee members to rewrite their reports. “I tried not to offend people because these were influential people. However, I was nervous, afraid, and knew that my credibility was on the line. So, by working together and not offending them, we were able to put together a quality product.”

Vulnerability was a fear for Dr. Caldwell as she was dealing with cancer and she debated whether or not to inform the university community and her staff. “I’m very energetic person and you don’t expect me to be tired. So, this illness was a shift in my demeanor. By being open about my illness, I felt vulnerable or at least perceived to be.”

Dr. Colter described the experience of opening a gay, lesbian, bisexual, transgendered student resource center.

“There was enormous resistance as you can imagine. I talked with my colleagues in student affairs and this has been my mantra from day one. We're here to serve all students, not just the ones we like or the ones that look like us, have the same backgrounds or beliefs that we do, we're here for every single student. So over the course of three years, little baby steps, we got the point where we opened that center. And you know, many campuses already have these centers. It's not a big deal, but boy you would think we're reinventing the world when we do these kinds of things and yet, you know, I want to say it takes courage, but maybe it takes perseverance more than courage. Sometimes it doesn't take a lot of courage to do the right thing, but it just takes perseverance. And getting the students to understand that we have to work at this intentionally, and it may take a couple of years but we'll get there. Well nothing changes very quickly in higher education anyway. And you know there's the obvious hate mail with a lot of people inquiring into my personal background and my personal beliefs and all other kinds of stuff, and we had just gotten to the point where we were ready to open the GLBT center when we got a new President. The first meeting with him I said to him, ‘now president I've been working on this for three years. We've got the space identified. We've renovated the space. We've got the ground breaking in three months, so if you have any concerns or issues about this I need to know right away.’ And he looked at me and he said, ‘do you like Key West?’ I said, ‘I beg your pardon?’ And he said, ‘do you like Key West?’ And I'm thinking, ‘what on earth does this have to do with GLBT center?’ But I said, ‘well, you know, frankly, I've never been there.’ ‘Well, you know if we open this center, and we lose our jobs,’ he said, ‘you and I will retire to Key West and buy a sailboat.’ And I said, ‘does that mean yes?’ And he said, ‘that means yes.’”

On a lighter note, Ms. Schlinder described challenging experiences as fun.

“The chancellor indicated to me that the budget reduction process is fun. He was right in that you can’t look at this and be very upset about all the things we have to do but it was a process that we needed to involve the campus. We made decisions about what to keep and what needed to be dropped. We did have fun through the decision making process even though it wasn’t the kind of fun I wanted to have.”

Demographic Comparison for Self-Efficacy

Based on the demographics of the participants, 13 sub-findings emerged for self-efficacy (see Table 4-3). The percents shown in the table represent the percent of participants for the demographic variable included in the finding. Only the demographic variables with a difference in percent of participants between the two demographic variables greater than 30% are shown. Blank cells for the demographic variables represent that there was less than 30% difference or no difference in percent of participants.

Women currently working at institutions with less than 25% of the upper-level positions held by women indicated that knowledge, experience, doing well, achievements and external awards increased confidence. In addition, making a difference defined their success, and hiring and working with good people were examples of their success. On the other hand, women describing their success and challenges by their experiences dealing with or confronting change currently work at institutions with 25% to 46% of the upper-level positions held by women.

Non-tenured women experienced various emotions, feelings, or moods when dealing with challenges either personally or professionally. Defining success through achievements, accomplishments, or rewards were indicated by women employed in their current positions for longer than five years. In contrast, women employed in their current position for less than or equal to five years felt hiring and working with good people were good examples of their success.

Finally, mobility played a role with women who felt achievements and external rewards build confidence, and making difference and accomplishing goals defined

Table 4-3: Self-Efficacy Findings Disaggregated by Years in Position, Tenure Status, Mobility, and Percent of Women in Upper-level Administrative Positions.

		Demographic Information (Percent of participants by demographic variable and finding)							
		Years in Position		Tenure Status		Mobility		% of Women in Upper-Level Administration	
Sub-codes (Level 2)	Finding	<= 5 years	> 5 years	Tenured	Non-Tenured	Yes	No	<= 25%	25% to 46%
	# of participants	7	11	6	12	11	7	11	7
Confidence									
	I-can" attitude.								
	Knowledge, experience and doing well.							72.7	
	Achievements, external rewards.		63.6				85.7	63.64	
	Help from other people.								
Success									
	Making a difference.						71.4	63.6	
	Helping and influencing others.								
	Accomplishing goals.						71.4		
	Confronting change.								71.4
	Hiring and working with good people.	85.7				81.8		72.7	
Challenges									
	Dealing with change.								85.7
	Experience different emotions, feelings, moods, or mental states.				66.7				

Note: Blank cells indicate the difference in percent of participants between the two variables within a demographic item was less than 30%, thus the percent of participants were not provided.

success. Although, women who stayed at one institution described their success in the ability to hire and work with good people.

Self-Efficacy Summary

This section revealed the experiences of the participants related to their confidence and how they build their confidence. Success stories were portrayed and insights were gained into how the participants defined their own success. With every success story, there were also challenges, which each participant shared. Many of their challenges were considered to be great experiences, while others were quite the opposite.

Overall, the participants felt their confidence was defined by their abilities and effectiveness as well as just having the internal belief that they can do the job and in some cases, better than those in the current position. A woman's strong confidence was built on the continued rewards, accomplishments and achievements. In addition, networking and observing others succeed assisted in identifying the best methods or steps to handle specific situations or improve, and thus, increased confidence.

The successes and challenges of the participants provided a measure of their self-efficacy. The participants tended to define success in relation to assisting students, staff and colleagues as well as providing opportunities for them to improve and succeed. They also described success in terms of making a difference either at the institutional level or in the lives of students or colleagues. Change played a critical role in being successful and characterized their challenges. Supporting and contributing to other people's success were very important to the participants. On the other hand, emotions and sacrifices surfaced more often when participants described their challenges.

Personal Behavior

Personal behaviors are the actions or reactions of persons under specified circumstances. The main concepts of social cognitive theory explain human behavior as a dynamic and correlated interaction between the person and the environment. As the second component in Bandura's Model of Reciprocal Determination, Bandura noted that persons acquire internal codes of behavior they may or may not act upon later. Behavior is largely regulated through cognitive processes. Lastly, Bandura identified three types of behavior reinforcements. Direct reinforcement would be directly experienced by the learner. Vicarious reinforcement would be observed consequences of the behavior. Self reinforcement would be feelings of satisfaction or displeasure for the behavior gauged by personal performance standards (Bandura, 1986).

This section focuses on the participants' choices, preparation, background of skills, and the compromises made to advance into upper-level higher education administration and addresses the second research sub-question: How do women's career path, mobility, and overall skills affect their beliefs and attitudes towards career advancement? Several findings emerged from the narratives that influenced women's behavior deciding on a career path, moving from one institution to the other (mobility), developing skills, and accepting compromises. Essentially, these four codes and their corresponding findings are the focus of this section (see Table 4-4).

Career Path

Studies of women leaders indicate that they tend to make late career decisions; describe their careers in passive terms; and emphasize self-improvement as critical to their advancement (Mark, 1986). In this study, participants used words like serendipitous

Table 4-4: Sub-codes and Findings for Personal Behavior

Sub-codes (Level 2)	Findings (number of participants expressing concept)	Evidence – examples from the transcripts
Career Path – a course or way of chosen pursuit	Participants did not plan to enter higher education. (12)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It was serendipitous and fortuitous. My career has been a product of circumstance. • I just kind of fell into the position. It was not an intentional pursuit. • I did not plot this course. • My intention was to get my doctorate and go back into secondary education.
	Participants wanted to become a policy and change maker once in higher education. (12)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I wanted to enter higher education to impact policy and make difference at the university and for faculty and students. • I had an interest in seeing others succeed. • I provided leadership and moved the university in the right direction.
	Participants aspired to be President, Dean of Students or achieve in chosen field. (17)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I considered becoming a college president. It is the natural progression. • I became Dean of Students then VP for student affairs. • I wanted to run my own operation or direct a clinic or office. • I wanted to be the best in my field and to have my university reach the top 20 in the rankings.
	Participants maintained status quo and were content to stay in current position. (13)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I think at this point in my career, I make a better provost than a president. • I have no desire to be president because I need the contrasts and rewards of working with the students. • I am just happy doing what I am doing now. • I want to maintain my anonymity and continue to work with a great staff. • This job is very satisfying to me and the institution is important to me.
	Women must be prepared and seek out assistance from mentors or friends when interviewing for positions. (12)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I consulted with friends and mentors. • I asked for references. • You need to do your homework and learn about the institution including its strategic plan, mission, priorities, strengths, and is it on a positive course. • You need to research the university and the position to see who the position would report to and if there are good people working within that unit.
	Women needed to determine if the position is a good fit when interviewing for positions. (9)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • You need to determine if there is a good fit for you and also for the institution. • You need to ask why you are taking the job and how can you build the institution rather than the institution building you. • One must do a personal inventory about what you value and your ethics. Understand what’s important to you and what feels best to you. • Don’t compromise too much on your values and don’t lose sight of what is really important in life. • You have to decide what you want to do. Do you have the skill set needed and does the institution have

		values that match yours?
Mobility – move from place to place	Gaining new ideas, discovering different methods and processes, broadening knowledge base, and working with a variety of people were advantages to moving from one institution to the other. (11)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • You gain intellectual exposure and have an opportunity to see different ways of doing things. • You meet and work with new people. • You are able to bring different and new perspectives to the table and add to a resource rich environment. • You give a broader base from which to make decisions and it's easier to be a change agent. • You draw from the best ideas, renewed energy, and different experiences.
	Maintained reputation and have a better knowledge and history of the university by staying at one institution.(9)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • You need to understand the institution's culture and history, know the players, and have a good feeling for the capability and capacity of the organization. • You need to maintain an already established relationship with people. • Everybody knows you, knows your strengths and weaknesses, credibility, trust, and established values.
Skills – ability, proficiency, technique, specialized training	Women developed and maintained skills related to knowledge. (18)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • You need to understand the dynamics of the institution, how it works, and who the players are. One needs to know the big picture. • You need to increase your knowledge in various areas such as budget, leadership, law and crisis management. • You need to gain experience in the field or in the profession.
	Women developed and maintained skills related to performance. (18)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • You must possess strong communication skills and be able to express ideas verbally and visually. • You must be able to motivate people and work with a diverse group of people. • You need to be competent and strengthened by the power of persuasion. • Listening is important and you need to listen to people because it is about them and their career goals. • Reading is important to our work and if you cannot read quickly or a lot then this is not the job for you.
	Women developed and maintained skills focused in the behavioral skills. (18)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Being tall is an attribute because when you walk into a room and you are big person, it commands some power. • You don't need to be arrogant or egotistical to be successful. • You must keep a good sense of humor and a good balance because not everything is a crisis and not everything can be fixed. • You should create a strategic objective and get folks coming with you in the direction you want to take. • You are able to get along with a diverse group of people. • You interact with people to solve problems without being abrasive and creating enemies.
	Women developed leadership	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I receive input, listen to people's ideas and opinions,

	skills primarily in being able to collaborate and empower others. (17)	<p>build a consensus unless the most coherent idea is one voice and work together as a team.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I use white papers to start the discussion and begin a conversation so that buy-in can occur. • I use a quilting bee analogy in which people work from each corner and must communicate in order to come together at the middle. • Leadership is about empowerment and everybody feeling like they are part of the team. • Remember to respect the experts, bring people up through the ranks so they can take over if needed, and be able to motivate people. • Everyone can contribute. It's just finding the right job for them.
Compromises – something midway between or a settlement in which one must make concessions	Women balanced time between family, work, and self. (15)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Marriage suffers because the spouse sacrifices by either quitting his job, staying home with the kids, or ends in divorce. • You give up family and personal relationships that really sustain you. Worrying about spending enough time with family and being a good role model. • I didn't pursue other careers because of family obligations. • More time is spent at work and decided early not to have a family because how can one balance work with family. • My personal life becomes your university life.
	Women spent too much time at work, took more risks and increased responsibilities. (14)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I live to work and work to live and I love it. There is more time consumed by work. • Compromises were made such as becoming an administrator and no longer a faculty research member, making a choice to stay at one institution, becoming a provost and not taking an ACE fellowship, or taking a pay cut for a better job. • By taking on more responsibilities, there is more risk that you won't be successful.

or fortuitous to describe their entry into higher education. In creating a career path, another piece deals with goals and setting measurable goals. Levels of aspiration is concerned with the goals people set for themselves in situations relevant to achievement or mastery, not the levels of performance people expect to attain (Kirsch, 1986). Again, women in this study did not establish career goals even after they entered higher education. On the other hand, participants stressed the importance of setting goals to measure achievements and provide direction within their units.

Entering Higher Education Was Not Planned.

In this study, 12 of the 17 participants indicated they did not plan to enter upper-level administration. As Dr. Caldwell stated, “It wasn’t an intentional pursuit. Things just happened. I’m sure they happened for a good reason and I accepted the challenge.” Drs. Clark, Gutrell, and Anderson, all commented that “they just fell into the job.” According to Dr. Lettermen, “my intention was to get my doctorate and then go back into secondary education leadership. However, the opportunity opened for me to get into higher education, which I never anticipated at that juncture in my life.”

Similarly, Dr. Garrett entered higher education by chance, but believed that she needed to be in higher education administration to help faculty and staff achieve.

“Well I never predicted that this would be my pathway. It just seemed that more and more administrative tasks were asked of me and I seemed to do them well enough so even more would be asked of me and I enjoyed them. A lot of people don't get satisfaction out of somebody else's success, and some people do. I'm one of those people who can find a tremendous amount of satisfaction having helped someone else achieve something. And I think that's what administrators in higher education are on the planet for is to pave the way for the success of their faculty and students.”

Become Policy and Change Makers.

In addition, 12 of the 17 participants indicated that while they may not have made a conscious effort to enter higher education, once they entered higher education administration, they felt a need to make a difference or become a policy or change maker. Both Dr. Shavley and Dr. Shilo wanted to influence policy or become a policy maker. As Dr. Shavley explained, “I wanted to be a Vice President who would influence policy, campus climate, and prodding the right people. I need to make a difference and have an impact.”

Dr. Gutrell has the sense she could do the job and maybe better than a whole lot of people. She indicated that she has a lot of ambition.

“When the chancellor asked me to be the interim senior student affairs officer, I said okay, but I didn’t really want to pursue it beyond that. And I really wasn’t sure. And then I got in it, I thought, I can do this, and second I thought there are things I want to do that I can do from here and make it happen. And I like being able to have an impact. And I know that I do here in this job. So that’s a big reason I suppose, is recognizing that each position I moved up into my career I was able to have an impact, and a broader impact is expanding all the time. First it was with a smaller group of students, and then it was with a larger group of students, and now it’s an institutional impact. And that’s you know, what I like.

Aspired Goals.

Goals guide behavior. However, vague professional goals need to be translated into measurable statements of results in order to provide recognition for effective workers (Kanter, 1981, p. 563). For 17 out of 18 participants, goals aligned with true aspirations.

Dr. Hatfield stated her main goal was to become a college president and she still maintains becoming a college president as a future goal. Dr. Gutrell commented that when she was single and early in her career, she thought she might be a college president. She pointed out that with life changes, priorities change, so a goal to be college president may be down the road. She admitted, “I haven’t given it much thought but I could be a president or chancellor at a smaller institution. If a position at my alma mater popped up, I may consider it.”

On the other hand, Dr. Patton wanted to be the Dean of Students. She actually skipped that step and became a vice-president. She feels she has reached her goal by becoming a vice-president for student affairs at a major university and has no desire to be a college president. She professed,

“I need the contact and the rewards that I get working directly with students. And even though as a VP I don’t do as much of that as I would like, I still have the

option to do that. And frankly, I haven't prepared myself to be a president. Even in a small school, I would have needed to do some publishing, and developed the scholarly side of what I do, and I haven't had the time to do that. I'm so immersed in being an administrator."

In contrast, Ms. Roller declared, "I'm not a maintainer. I'm not a person who just kind of wants to survive. So, I'm trying to figure out what I want to do. I know I want to be on a corporate board. I haven't worked it all out as to what I want to do such as a CFO at a New York company or just be a member of a corporate board."

Status Quo Goals or Content to Stay in Current Position.

Currently, 13 out of 18 participants are happy in what they were doing and therefore, did not plan to change positions. In other words, these participants' career goals were to maintain a status quo because they were very content in their current positions. As Dr. Colter exclaimed, "I'm just happy as a clam, doing exactly what I'm doing now, where I am." Dr. Sankey responded by saying, "I don't need to be provost or president to feel like I've succeeded. This job is very satisfying to me and this institution is important to me." Similarly, Dr. Caldwell is doing well and loves working at her current institution.

"I love the president. He's great to work with. And we're moving at a fast rate here, and I think the past three years have been really amazing, on many levels. And to be honest, people have come up to me on various occasions, whether they are a head hunter or whether it's faculty, and they'll ask me, are you going to become president someday? And you know, they startled me when they ask me at strange occasions. But you know, it crosses my mind, but it's not something I have really thought about it. I'm really happy here."

According to Dr. Pratt, "I feel as if I'm at my apex at my career here. You want to leave when people want you to stay. And I feel very respected on this campus. I feel a sense of accomplishment, and there are always things to do, so I could stay longer, I could do more." Dr. Shavley realizes that she has a fantastic set-up and it would be

difficult to find an institution that could make her an offer that is something better than what she already has.

“No one has been able to entice me to even look closer because I got a good thing here. So my goals are really to take advantage of a good thing and to take this campus to amazing places, which I feel I've done for nine years, and I'm going to do that for another nine years. I've got money. I've got a great staff. I'm building buildings. I'm transforming a commuter campus into a residential campus. I'm embedding integrative learning in student services and academic affairs. I have great relationship with faculty, so do my staff. I get challenging students. I get to work with the state legislature and the governor quite a bit. I travel a lot around the world for the university. It's a great thing I've got, and I know it. They pay me very well. I love the people I work with. So my career goals are to take advantage of everything I know I have and keep moving ahead. I love it. It's just great. It really is a fantastic setup.

Even though Dr. Clark has been provost for over 15 years at three different institutions, the provost position had never actually been a career goal for her.

“It's been a position that I've enjoyed and that when I made a move, it's really been to a different type of institution, and in this particular case now, a larger institution. Actually I'm very happy being a provost. I have loved what I do. I've had some opportunities to look at presidencies, I'm not convinced that that's something I want to do, and in many respects at this point in my career, I think I am a better provost than I would be a president.”

These excerpts illustrate what Walton and McDade (2001) found in that the typical female Chief Academic Officer stays in her job for the same reasons that attracted her to it in the first place – duties and responsibilities of the job and the mission of the institution in which she serves.

Prepared for Interviews.

According to Gupton and Slick (1996), to make a difference within the current culture, preparation was the advice mentioned by two-thirds of the women educational administrators. Preparation included having the necessary credentials, keeping current, and staying well-read. For this study, coincidentally, two-thirds of the participants also

advised others to be prepared when interviewing for a position. When applying for a job, Dr. Anderson advised research, investigation and reading through all the literature provided so you are able to answer questions. Dr. Samuelson emphasized that the kinds of things she looks for in administrators are the kind of things she would do if she had prepared.

“The worst turn off is to have somebody come to your institution who did not take enough time to really learn about the institution. And that's a danger because I think anybody who is a position that would qualify you for a presidency or provost job is probably a very busy person. And sometimes these interviews sneak up on you, and you have something that blows up at your own university, and you're so involved with it and you literally get on the plane and you're trying to find out about the university you're going to go visit. That's really dangerous because it tells me the person didn't care enough and didn't plan well enough. So, if I were going to prepare my resume for somewhere else, I would make sure that I really got into the website and found some people who knew about the university. I'd talk to them to get some firsthand ideas, and I would make sure that I was prepared to talk about such things as: What were my successes, what am I most proud of, what are the things that aren't the things that you would see on a resume that were my ideas that I was able to carry out. Not alone, but probably with others, but what were the things that I solved that were visionary and that would tell you that I could be a leader. Not a manager, because I'm not looking for managers in deans. I'm not looking for managers for provosts either. But, what makes you into a leader and what's your style of leadership. I would be very clear on that point.”

When investigating the institution, Ms. Butel recommended finding out if it is one that is on the move, well run, and/or on a positive trajectory. By attending the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators (NASPA) symposium for women aspiring to be senior affairs officers, Dr. Shavley found that it helped her think about her work experience and if she needed to strengthen it. She added,

“One of the things that one of the mentors there said is, you really need to do more fund raising, more development, and you know that was good advice. So when I got back to campus, I went into the VP for development's office and asked how you can use me, because I want to get some experience for my portfolio so I can move up in my career. Those were the kinds of things that I started doing, including chairing university-wide committees on critical issues.”

Determined “Good Fit” When Interviewing.

Hiring officials may also assess those holding skilled positions as a function of their perceived social standing and their ability to “fit” in an administrative setting rather than as a function of their individual resources, such as education, experience, or potential for administrative work (Johnsrud, 1991). With this in mind, Dr. Caldwell advised, “evaluate what the new institution is and how they value women.” Dr. Patton added,

“You don’t just take a job because of the president who hired you because they may not be there for very long. You need to determine the deeper culture such as the sense of community at the senior levels of administration. More importantly, you need to determine if the school has your values such as a sense of family and connectiveness.”

Dr. Clark suggested doing a personal inventory about “what you value, what are your ethics, what do you believe in terms of the kind of ethical behavior that you want to display and that you want others to display.” Likewise, Ms. Butel advised thinking about what you value in life in the context of where you want to be in 10, 20, 30 or 40 years. “Because women within a span of a generation or two have jumped so completely in the race, I question whether we have traded the values that were maybe better or maybe that means they are worse.” For that reason, as Dr. Caldwell cautioned, “don’t compromise too much of your values.”

When Dr. Letterman decided to pursue her current position, she felt she was at a point in her career where she could do the job. However, she specified the kind of role, the kind of institution to be in and the kind of institution that would fit her talents and preparation.

“I knew what kind of institution I wanted to be in relative to my academic background as well as my administrative background, so I would say preparing

for a job interview was very strategic. I did not apply to 450 institutions. In fact, in getting this job, I only put out three job applications, and landed this job. In the previous job I think I had put out four. So I was very narrow in my focus. And for each of those applications, I got several final interviews. At the last job, I got three final interviews out of the four, and with this job, I applied to three, and I got two final interviews and one was this job. So I don't know if that's usual or unusual but I can tell you that it is my experience. Once I decided I would apply, I was very discriminating about where, and it wasn't so much like, wow, I would really like to be at this place, because this place is the bees knees. It was more like I would like to be at this place because I could do something at this place. Because what I bring to this place would allow me to be successful to make the institution to move forward with me in that role. I was thinking a lot about what would be a fit on both sides of the equation.”

Mobility

Much of the research on geographic mobility considers the lack of mobility as a barrier for women advancing into upper-level administrative positions. Pavan (1986) described the following external barriers that precluded a credentialed female from advancing to a leadership position: societal attitudes, family responsibilities, discrimination, lack of encouragement and professional networks, lack of mobility, lack of on-the-job visibility, and job security. Even though geographic mobility may bar women from advancing in their careers, eleven participants in this study were geographically mobile with an overall average of having worked in four different states.

Advantages of Moving from One Institution to the Next.

External experiences were the primary reason noted by 11 of the 17 participants to move from one institution to the other. Developing new ideas, discovering different methods and processes, or working with a variety of people were some of the experiences participants described as advantages to move to other institutions or other administrators brought to their institution. Ms. Schlinder noted that a person brings to the new institution the idea that there are other ways of doing things. Dr. Sankey concurred, “You

bring all the ideas from one institution into another. Also, when the institution needs a jumpstart, it is better to look to the outside.” Dr. Patton added, “You bring a fresh perspective and the new idea. You can stir up and help folks to think differently and to not be threatened by change.” The advantage of moving according to Dr. Colter is that it provides a broader base from which to make decisions and operate because of experiences from other institutional cultures. Dr. Clark claimed,

“Obviously the move to different institutions afforded you some other opportunities to grow, you meet new people, you work with new people, you see how things are done differently, and in all of those you can build a set of experiences that you might take to the next position. There are two things or two criteria that I use to judge whether it's time to move or whether it's time to look at something different. The one is really around that whole area of growth, am I still growing or have I reached a point where I'm just beginning to do the same things over and over, and it really isn't a position that causes me to stretch or rethink. The other thing is whether I am continuing to make a difference. And when either or both of those criteria are not being met, I feel it is the point when I would look for another opportunity.”

Decisions for changing jobs are not made solely for monetary reasons (extrinsic rewards), especially within higher education where promotions do not necessarily result in higher salary. Other important considerations are the intrinsic rewards of a challenging job and the ability to use one's educational qualifications (Wheless, Newal, Podeszwa, & Serpento, 1982). Dr. Shavley believed one must first discover an ability to work in many different environments. Secondly, moving around, is likely to keep a person more up to speed in what is going on nationally and internationally. In addition, moving prevents a person from becoming too comfortable in their job. Dr. Anderson proclaims that there are more advantages to move around.

“You tend to get a market value reflected in your salary. Once you enter in an institution it's hard to move up the ranks in salary. I do think in the long run, moving around is better for people. I think there's a lot of advantage in my business to longevity with your institution, because we have to become so

familiar with our institutional data and systems, and what's the data structure, and where you go to find this piece of data. And when we have vacancies in our area we look internally before we go outside. But you know if you're going to be a VP of all kinds of areas, or a Provost, you've got to move around."

Advantages to Staying at One Institution.

Knowledge and understanding of the institution and organizational structure as well as maintaining a good reputation were two of the main advantages participants felt as to why a person would remain at one institution throughout their career. As Dr. Samuelson stated,

"I think that I have a very deep understanding of the fabric with which this institution was put together. And I think that's been very important to understanding what we value to being able to hire the right deans that come with the same kinds of things that we value. So, I think for the faculty that's an important piece and we had a lot of changes, especially in the provost position for about a 10 or 12 year period. And the stability offered by somebody who the faculty believes shares the same roots and values were important.

Ms. Schlinder agreed that it is a real asset to understand the history of the institution and be able to use instant recall to remember why things happened the way they did. Both Dr. Gutrell and Dr. Sankey added that with an understanding of the institution's culture comes a sensitivity to some of the areas of concern. Dr. Gutrell claimed,

"If you want to move up at the institution where you are, then relationship building is really important. Or maybe, not burning bridges is important. You can't be a flash and burn kind of person and have the community embrace you. It just doesn't work that way. So to stay at an institution you have to be a change agent. And if you want to change it, you can do that, it just takes longer to do. And you have to do it in a way that gives respect to those who are so immersed in it."

Furthermore, people need to stay long enough to be accountable. Dr. Shavley believed that people should not jump ship if things get too hot and instead should follow through on whatever has been started. From a management standpoint, Dr. Hatfield

concluded that remaining at one institution long enough to know everybody and that means knowing who to go to when something is needed. At the same time, according to Dr. Patton and Dr. Caldwell, a foundation of trust and credibility is built with longevity at the institution. Dr. Caldwell described,

“Certainly [staying at the one institution] is an advantage because once somebody knows you and you are very credible, they are happy looking at you for help. As you continue to improve and do things well, it's an advantage and disadvantage. You keep on getting more work. So the advantage is that you get greater challenges because they know you, but at the same time the disadvantage is that you fill your plate quite a bit.”

Skills

The unitary structure described by Spilerman (1986) portrays the structural dimensions operating in regard to promotion within a large organization such as university staff. This would include (a) persons with appropriate knowledge, skills, and experience are matched to jobs requiring those knowledge, skills, and experience; (b) this matching occurs within a human resource system that provides for managerial discretion and flexibility by establishing a set of norms for decision making; and (c) the compensation system is based upon a set of rules for classifying jobs and assigning salaries to classifications. Furthermore, the academy is more credential conscious in selecting its leaders and more preoccupied with other kinds of criteria such as terminal degrees, scholarly achievement, and professional recognition (Glazer-Raymo, 1999). Because 16 out of 18 participants have earned a terminal degree and many have gained scholarly achievement and/or professional recognition, other skills or attributes were described by the participants as necessary for their specific position.

Skills Related to Knowledge.

The participants emphasized the need to earn a terminal degree. At the same

time, the women in this study expressed specific skills in the area of knowledge that increased opportunities to be successful. Participants encouraged learning or training in specific areas to increase one's knowledge skills. Dr. Caldwell saw the need to understand money and how the budget worked. She felt creativity was needed in finding ways of generating new resources. Dr. Anderson and Dr. Gutrell suggested taking more business courses, especially in higher education finance. For Dr. Samuelson,

“I learned very early on when I started getting into committees or interacting with this group that I should just stay quiet until I had something substantive to say. And that had to be backed up by data. Otherwise to do anything else, it would have been frivolous, and it would have walked right into their idea of a woman who they just sort of off-loaded. So I, for a long while, looked at making sure that before I would ever go to a meeting I was ultra prepared, steeped in data. I had to learn how to say things not as an academic and not as a teacher and not as a woman, but as someone who would interact as a CEO from a company, and they have a very different style of listening, and very different expectations. I learned that it is best to stay quiet until I had something substantive to say and that had to be backed by data.”

Several participants were more global and indicated the need to understand the institution and how higher education worked. Dr. Letterman recommended viewing the whole and how various particular aspects of the organization work within the whole.

“In higher education I find that in these upper-level positions, when we're talking about something that is a problem unique to our institution, or we think it's unique, most likely it is also a problem that is being experienced in institutions like ours, or that have similar missions as ours all across the country. And to understand the place of that problem in the larger scope of higher education, particularly in America, I think is an important thing. It may not be something that we refer to everyday, but it's something that has to ground the direction that we take because any decision that we make has to anticipate in a way where higher education is moving in America.”

Dr. Caldwell added, “Understand the dynamics of the institution and how it works such as who the players are and how to get the money. One needs to know how to play

the politics.” Dr. Gutrell felt an understanding of the higher education piece was necessary.

“My colleagues, my young colleagues that are just starting out, they want to believe that if you understand student development theory that’s the way you become a senior student affairs officer, and that’s part of it. But, I’m an institutional leader, and I need to understand the whole higher education milieu as well.

In contrast, Dr. Pratt contends that a degree of experience in the field is a requirement.

“There's philosophical educational framework for student affairs work, and one needs to possess that. Unfortunately there are some presidents who don't understand that, and they point people to these positions who have none of that. I know that you have to have some intangibles such as judgment and leadership skills. I tell my direct reports when we talk about career progression, there are certain things you can't learn in school. They come with time, and they never come to some people in time, but wisdom, leadership skills, judgment skills. All of those things are absolutely critical to be successful in these positions.”

Similarly, Dr. Patton expressed that the field experience helped her feel semi-confident that she could do the job. “Experience in the field is the kind of hard knocks and lessons learned while moving up through the ranks.” Even though Dr. Shilo has been through some horrible experiences, she contended that it helped her sharpen her instincts. Dr. Shilo explained,

“Even through this bad stuff, I don’t think I would ask them to be taken away because that is the part of shaping who you are going to become ultimately. There is something to be learned from every experience, if you can figure it out.”

Skills Related to Performance.

Competence, effectiveness and persuasiveness were some of the performance skills mentioned by the participants. Dr. Letterman emphasized that reading is very important part of the work.

“If you cannot read quickly and a lot, this is not the job for you. You have to read a tremendous amount of documentation every day, glean what’s important from it and feel comfortable with just catching the jest of what it is saying. You must learn to trust your ability as a reader and become a very broad based reader.”

Along with reading, Dr. Letterman also suggested that listening is important too.

It is hard sometimes to know how to be a good listener, or to know what one is listening to.

“I’ll give you an anecdote, because this was a lesson in listening from one of my mentors. He said, just remember this: when a person decides to come into your office and talk to you, I don’t care what the topic is they’re talking about, it’s all about them. And listen carefully, because for some reason they’re there has to do with something about them and what their personal goals are. And always listen for that, and you may not get it in their first meeting. You may not know why they came into your office to talk to you. But keep your ears open to find out as your talking with others who interact with that person, how that conversation was about them. And I’ll tell you that was one of the best advice I have ever received as an administrator, because I’ve seen that time and time again where people come and talk to me about some abstract topic or abstract problem they want me to solve, and I find out later that it’s really about how that person is being treated in this department and something that person wants as a personal goal that isn’t be addressed in some way or another. That might not mean I can always address it. But, it was a new way of listening, not to what was being said, but to why that person chose you to say that to you in that moment. It’s creative listening. I’ve learned to be a much more open listener to the whole context within which something is being said to you. “

People skills were also cited as a performance skill. Dr. Anderson commented that a good combination of people skills and problem solving skills were needed to be successful. Interestingly, not everyone has that combination, added Dr. Anderson. Both Ms. Butel and Dr. Caldwell stated the need to motivate and encourage people. Ms. Butel emphasized the need to have very good people skills.

“I think people skills are particularly relevant for women. When I’m working with my people in my area, I am a leader to those people and I am a mentor to those people, and I use inducement and persuasion and enthusiasm to get the group all to do their very best group work. I’m a very different person at the VP level when I’m working with my group of peers where I need to be more assertive; more into tackling hard problems, and I need to make a point, or I need

to make a persuasive argument. And you know, we knock heads a little bit. That's what happens at that level. And I have to be able to do that effectively in order to make my point, but without being abrasive and creating enemies. I see a lot of women who don't know how to do that. I see a lot of women who I think have adapted what they perceive to be, or what they understand to be the male model, and it doesn't work. Cause then they just come across as abrasive, aggressive people and people don't like that."

Basically, as Dr. Marshall discovered, nothing can be done alone, only in conjunction with the people around you. "So, the loner has a tough time making things happen. People are wonderful."

Good communication was suggested by the women in this study as performance skills needed for their positions. For instance, Dr. Hatfield recommended strong communication skills as well as doing more scholarly writing as skills needed for her position. According to Dr. Samuelson, it is necessary to be able to not only express ideas verbally but also visually since everyone is different in how they see the problem or resolution.

"I will not begin to try to explain something or tell somebody that I want them to do something unless I can draw it. If I can draw it, I can explain it. And that has been a strength because there are a lot of visual people out there, and being able to get up in front of a group and give not only the verbal discussion, but also the visual discussion has been probably one of my greatest strengths."

Skills Related to Behavior.

Behavioral skills in this study involve individual attributes (patience, imagination, sense of humor), professional attributes (visionary, credibility, work ethic) and commitment in people, position, or the system. Wisdom, modeling, expectations of faculty and doing something nice along the way were a few of the individual attributes mentioned. Dr. Patton added that one must have passion for the work. "If you weren't passionate about your work, then you wouldn't be able to get through the tough times and

challenges. We need to be passionate about the kind of impact we have on our students and on their education.” At the same time, Dr. Colter believed that it is not necessary to be arrogant or egotistical to be successful. Basically, a person needs to keep his or her ego under control.

In addition, Dr. Sankey believed the greatest power is the power of persuasion, especially in administrative jobs. At the same time, she talked about also needing imagination.

“Imagination is very important for most things. It's critical for research, but it's also critical when you work in an office, especially on the research side. You're trying to make new opportunities and it requires different types of imagination like the imagination of bringing together different types of faculty to do different types of research that have been done before. And not that you do that, but being able to look at your whole suite of players, and imagine them in different contexts, that's what makes a great university, not just rehashing everything, but new things. And at the end of the day there's always the faculty members that do the research. But, you can create the opportunities for them to meet and work that might not exist otherwise.”

According to Harter (1993), women need to enjoy their womanhood and take themselves less seriously. Women need to find a sense of humor. Whoever said that success and utter seriousness are synonymous? Knowing when to be serious and when to indulge one's sense of humor is the only legitimate question. The best administrator is one who has the uncanny ability to use humor for the purposes of achieving administrative goals and of humanizing the most intense situations. Ms. Schlinder concurred in that one must keep a good sense of humor and a good balance. “Not everything is a crisis and not everything can be fixed. There are some things you cannot change. You have to figure out a strategy around what can't be changed.” Dr. Marshall added that her provost gave her three words to remember when you are under stress which were “do the doable.”

Dr. Caldwell believed that being a visionary was a requirement. Along with having a vision, it is necessary to get people coming in same direction.

“You have to be someone who can articulate the vision and can encourage and motivate people to take people in the direction you want to go in. I think that you have to have an ability to be some what political, in the sense, not the negative sense, but in terms of understanding the dynamics of the university and how it works, the players, how do you get money. I think it's important certainly that, you are effective and a very good follow through, and you're dependable.”

Leadership Skills.

Behavioral studies examine the actions and styles of leaders by what they do and how they do it. Analysis of both experimental and assessment studies produced results indicating that women employed a more interpersonal style of leadership than did men, who were found to be more task-oriented. However, as Middlehurst (1997) found, in the real world of organizations, no differences were found by gender in either of these two leadership styles. Differences were found in both the laboratory and the organizational settings, for example: women were typically more democratic than men, employing a more participative work style. Male leaders, in contrast, were identified as being more autocratic and directive. Dr. Pratt affirmed this research in that she is a participatory leader.

“I believe in hiring very good people. I'm not going to say that rest of the old adage, and then you get out of the way. No I don't get out of the way, because I have a role and a responsibility as the vice chancellor to provide divisionary framework within which people within the division will be focused. But it is absolutely imperative to have very good people, to respect them, to respect their ideas, and to have a collective way in which we move forward in making this experience happen for our students. So I would definitely describe my style as a participatory one, but I also tell my staff that this is not a democracy. So, there are times when I must make decisions. There are very few decisions that I have made as the vice chancellor where I have not had some input from my staff. At the end of the day I know I have to make the decision, but I want their input, I want their contributions, and I respect those contributions.”

A participatory leader also describes Dr. Hatfield. She gets things done through other people. Basically, “you need to be sure everybody is on board with shared goals, shared accountability, shared payment, shared income, and shared evaluation.”

The participants described their leadership skills as collaborative. Collaboration involves inclusiveness, shared ownership, and connectedness with others. Caring translates into a moral commitment to action on behalf of others, promoting human development and respondent to needs. Leadership, then, is empowering, facilitating, collaborating, and educating, all activities that connect people rather than telling or pulling them along in the traditional directive style (Madden, 2002). Dr. Patton described her style as collaborative and trying to work together. “Sometimes, however, you have to push a new idea because it is entirely a new concept.” Similarly, Dr. Letterman has a collaborative leadership style. She described,

“I like the team approach a lot to addressing issues at the university, because we are a complex institution and you need multiple perspectives to address some of these issues. You do have to be upfront with innovative ideas, but they have to be ones that people are willing to work in a team to move forward, or they won’t get done. You do have to work with a number of peers and strong leaders at your own level to accomplish very complex tasks. You do have to make a decisive decision that nobody likes, and give people the motivation to get it done.”

Along with collaboration, participants also described their leadership skills as providing power to others, encouragement, and facility. For instance, Dr. Colter recognized her staff for their contributions. Basically,

“any one of my direct reports could do this job and do it well. Sometimes I feel like a chameleon. Some days, I need to be Suzy cheerleader and be encouraging and caring. Other days, I feel I need to be assertive and directive. In addition, if you have to get things done because of authority or power, you really are not very effective as a leader because leadership is not about authority or power. It’s about empowerment. It’s about everybody feeling like they are part of the team and they don’t have to cater to somebody who thinks they know it all.”

According to Dr. Shavley, one needs to lead through people because one cannot do it alone. Similarly, Dr. Shilo stated, “you need to not think about self, but think about the students and learners.” Dr. Samuelson illustrated her leadership style as a progression up the leadership line and is a slope that curves toward other people. In other words,

“You grow in leadership: as a student and graduate student - it is all about you. As you become a professor, it becomes more about the students, your colleagues and your interactions. If you become dean or department chair, then it shifts even more into a mode of collaborations and working with other teams. Then, when you become provost or president, then it is about the other people and not about you.”

Both Dr. Marshall and Dr. Caldwell also emphasized the need to do a lot of reading and take advantage of opportunities to learn about leadership. “By reading in the area of leadership management and decision systems,” according to Dr. Marshall, “you will be fully grounded and be able to lead and envision people.” Dr. Gutrell felt that having a bigger picture and understanding your role were important, while Dr. Garrett stressed doing one’s homework and looking at the next level and who the players are so one can deliver on their level.

Compromises

Throughout their careers, women have had to operate with three levels of pressure – the job itself, their pioneer or near pioneer role in the job, and the strain of their personal relationships. The choices and frustrations that face women leaders who want the career and personal life-style satisfaction add up to a tremendous burden which may be better identified as stress or burn out (Morrison, White, Van Velsor and The Center for Creative Leadership, 1987). Compromises mediate behavior and are used to form expectations of behavioral outcomes. For women in this study, compromise was a key word used to describe how they made decisions or in balancing family and work.

Balance Time between Family, Work, and Self.

Fifteen of the 18 participants spoke about their families, spousal relationships, and the decision not to have children. Basically, these women expressed concern over how to balance time commitments, especially between family and work. Five women felt they spent too much time on work which compromised any time for self and family commitments. According to Gupton and Slick (1996) balancing family and career is a major barrier to a women's career climb. In addition, women are held back by their dedication to their families, not wanting to work seven-day weeks and fifteen hour days. They also set different priorities than men. Therefore, this makes women seem less committed, less motivated, less interested in doing whatever needs to be done to get the next step on the ladder (Glazer-Raymo, 1999).

Dr. Garrett admitted that there were a lot of things she wanted to do, but was dominated by family responsibilities. "I got married too young and had too many responsibilities too young." Conversely, Dr. Samuelson would have had her family earlier.

"I don't think you can pick the right time, you just have to adapt. Although, I worried about not spending enough time with the kids and was it fair. Since they are both grown, I found that they learned a good work ethic from me and their dad."

Dr. Marshall was never able to stay home with her children except for two to three summers. "I would have liked to have stayed home during the summer or work half time. I could not do that and achieve my career." Ms. Roller's problem of who was taking care of her children was resolved when her husband decided to quit his job and stay home.

“He ran the house like a business and was spending time with the kids, coaching them and doing fun things with them. I’ve missed some of the stuff with the family because of my work commitments. The kids are closer to their dad than to me, but that is my trade-off.”

Ms. Butel and Dr. Hatfield both found that marriage suffers and falls to the wayside. As Dr. Hatfield explained, “You give up your family and personal relationships that kind of sustain you. I really miss those connections.” Other participants made the conscious decision not to have a family. Dr. Letterman determined she could not have a family and children.

“I have a husband but I do not have children. I have been so career driven and didn’t have a strong interest in raising a family to begin with. Certainly, my choice of an academic career made it very difficult to even consider a family if I wanted to be successful in academe.”

In addition, Dr. Pratt could not see how to balance home and career. “Quite frankly, the career is more important to me. I made the decision I wasn’t going to have any kids. I have no regrets about not being a mother. I couldn’t see doing both roles.”

Dr. Patton also made the conscious decision not to have kids. However, she admitted that

“My poor husband has to be involved in my work or we don’t spend any time together. I need to devote more time to personal life to balance work. It is really hard to find a lot of women who have really successful marriages or really good healthy partner relationships because you have to give so much and there isn’t much of you left to give when you go home.”

Work Related Decisions and Risks.

Over 75% of the participants mentioned work related compromises. For instance, Dr. Anderson talked about the risk she took by taking on more responsibilities which would take more of her time. Dr. Colter wished she would have negotiated better before taking her current position.

“Before taking the current job, I would have negotiated better. I would have insisted that this position sits on the president’s cabinet and put housing and

residence life reporting to student affairs. I report to the Provost, not directly to the President like at other institutions. I don't have a problem reporting to the Provost but should be involved in the cabinet meetings to represent the students. I am far removed from the actual decision making and was told by the Executive VP for Finance that important decisions are not made at your level."

Dr. Garrett would have gotten a degree in physics because she believed physicists are better problem solvers and "I would have encountered more competitive people." In order to move faster in academe, Dr. Letterman would have continued her education right after her four years as an undergraduate instead of entering junior high teaching. Ms. Schlinder would have liked to earn a law degree. She felt the formal legal training would have been helpful and maybe more practical than a Ph.D.

Dr. Hatfield confessed, "I live to work and work to live and I love that. You get a lot of energy from that." Dr. Shilo admitted, "I don't rest enough and I don't go on vacation enough. I'm not quite a devout workaholic, but I'm on their watch list." Dr. Patton declared,

"I am a workaholic and I give my heart and soul to what I do. My service is my work. I don't have the kind of time I wish I had to really go out and do things in the community. To spend time way from work is a scheduled event."

Ms. Schlinder indicated that "I have been very successful but my personal life becomes your university life."

Demographic Comparison for Personal Behavior

The sub-findings related to demographics for personal behaviors are provided in Table 4-5. Similar to Table 4-3, the percents shown in the table represent the percent of participants for the demographic variable included in the finding. Only the demographic variables with a difference in percent of participants between the demographic variables

Table 4-5: Personal Behavior Findings Disaggregated by Years in Position, Tenure Status, Mobility, and Percent of Women in Upper-level Administrative Positions.

Sub-codes (Level 2)	Finding	Demographic Information (Percent of participants by demographic variable and finding)							
		Years in Position		Tenure Status		Mobility		% of Women in Upper-Level Administration	
		<= 5 years	> 5 years	Tenured	Non-Tenured	Yes	No	<= 25%	25% to 46%
	# of participants	7	11	6	12	11	7	11	7
Career Path									
	Entering higher education was not planned.								
	Become policy and change makers.								
	Aspired goals								
	Status quo goals or content to stay in current position.								
	Prepared for interview.				83.3		85.7		
	Determined "good fit" when interviewing.	85.7				63.6			
Mobility									
	Advantages of moving from one institution to the next.				75.0	72.7		72.7	
	Advantages to staying at one institution.		63.6				85.7		
Skills									
	Skills related to knowledge.				100.0				
	Skills related to performance.		100.0		100.0		100.0		
	Skills related to behavior.								
	Leadership skills.								
Compromises									

	Balance time between family, work, and self.								
	Work related decisions and risks.							100.0	

Note: Blank cells indicate the difference in percent of participants between the two variables within a demographic item was less than 30%, thus the percent of participants were not provided.

greater than 30% are shown. Blank cells for both demographic variables represent that there was less than 30% difference or no difference in percent of participants.

Generally, women currently working at institutions with less than 25% of the upper-level positions held by women found advantages of moving from one institution to the next institution for career advancement and made work related compromises. Skills related to performance and advantages to staying at one institution were indicated by women currently employed in their positions longer than five years. In contrast, women employed in their positions for less than five years were most concerned about determining a good fit when they interview. Non-tenured participants indicated skills related to knowledge and performance were important, found advantages to moving from one institution to the other, and recommended that women interviewing for positions be prepared.

As expected, mobile women were concerned about determining a good fit when interviewing and found advantages with moving from one institution to the other. In contrast, non-mobile women felt performance skills were important, found advantages for staying at one institution, and encouraged other women to be prepared when they interview.

Personal Behaviors Summary

While participants did not conscientiously decide to enter higher education and upper-level administration, they did express the need to be in a position that could make changes, develop policy, and thus, enable them to be in charge. Even though only one participant aspired to be a college president, others aspired to be vice president, dean of students, or the best in their discipline. Participants were very content and happy doing what they were currently doing, but wanted to do it well.

Upon reaching the upper-level administration, one is pursued and recruited for positions. Therefore, strategies are focused more on the interview rather than applying and searching for positions. With this in mind, participants indicated the need to be well prepared, especially investigating the institution and determining if it was a good fit, especially matching individual and institutional values.

External experiences including working with a variety of people and increased professional growth were cited as advantages to being geographically mobile. On the other hand, the institutional knowledge, solid relationships and connectivity, and earned credibility and trust were advantages to remain at one institution if there were possibilities for promotion.

Empowerment and collaboration were considered ideal leadership skills. Participants also felt the importance of maintaining credibility, respect, trust, integrity, passion for the work, compassion and helping others succeed. In addition, the participants encouraged continuous learning, experience in the field, gaining knowledge of how the institution works, competence, and working with a diverse group of people.

Making choices between time with family and career was the greatest compromise expressed by the participants. The lack of time with family is directly affected by the increased time spent at work and additional work responsibilities, which participants considered to be a concern. Even with these concerns and consequences for advancing in their careers, participants would not have changed anything because every challenge or experience was something to positively build upon.

Overall, this section uncovered several types of personal behaviors affecting the participants' advancement to an upper-level administrative position in higher education. Women in this study did not plan their career path; rather they took advantage of opportunities as they arose. Making a difference either at the institution or in the lives of students and staff and evaluating value systems were critical factors when deciding to move to an upper-level position at the current institution or move to another institution. Besides earning a terminal degree, all the participants encouraged developing the ability to work with a diverse group of people, demonstrating a collaborative leadership style that also empowers others, and valuing other people's ideas and expertise. Balancing work time and personal time, whether with family, friends, or just oneself, concerned over half of the participants.

Environmental Factors

Environmental factors, by definition, are external to the individual and are not as easily changed, altered, or implemented, but provides opportunities and social support. Environment is the third component of Bandura's Model of Reciprocal Determination and refers to the factors that can affect a person's behavior, primarily the concept of observational learning and vicarious reinforcement. In his initial research, Bandura

focused on the role of social modeling in human motivation, thought, and action.

Bandura described three types of modeling stimuli represented through the environment:

(1) live (family, teachers, colleagues, mentors, etc.), (2) symbolic or pictorial representation of behavior, and (3) verbal instructions or non-performance models (Bandura, 1986). In this study, two of three modeling stimuli were investigated: (1) mentoring and (2) symbolic representation of behavior through the organizational structure and campus culture.

This section addresses the third research sub-questions posed by this study: What are women's perceptions of the affects from outside influences, such as organizational structure, the campus culture or mentors in regard to their career advancement?

Specifically, the participants explained how the organizational structure supported their success and described their current institution's culture. Although mentoring has been recognized as a means for fostering career development and progress, it remains an informal practice in most organizations (Kram, 1985). Therefore, the study participants were given the opportunity to describe their network of people and the impact made by role models in women's advancement into upper-level positions. Table 4-6 provides the findings and evidence within the three sub-codes (level 2) of Organization, Culture, and Mentoring.

Organizational Structure

Some considerations for understanding how women function in an organization include understanding the organizational environment and culture and considering the numerical distribution of women in the existing organizational structure (Kanter, 1993). For 11 of the participants in this study, the percent of women in the upper-level

Table 4-6: Sub-codes and Findings for Environmental Factors

Sub-codes (Level 2)	Findings (number of participants expressing concept)	Evidence – examples from the transcripts
<p>Organization – persons or groups having specific responsibilities and united for some purpose or work.</p>	<p>The organization supported women, gave them power, and was an advocate for women. (12)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The president is a strong advocate for women. • Several women deans in traditionally male fields such as business, agriculture, and libraries have been hired. • A change in personnel at the upper-level helped to create a diverse team who are refreshing and support women.
	<p>The organization was still a good old boys’ club. (8)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lots of men in upper-level administration who are still in the generation of individual competitive effort and solitarians. • I lived in an environment where what you do is not valued. • All the power of the university is held by three male VPs. • Given that the executive level has no women, women feel there is a ceiling as to their ability to advance.
<p>Culture – behavior patterns, arts, beliefs, and all other products of human work and thought characteristic of a community or population</p>	<p>The administration valued women and was a good fit for women. (10)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Acceptance and welcoming of women in upper-level administration is pretty good. • Women do well within the business area of the university. • Colleagues have been supportive of women in various upper-level positions.
	<p>Cultural factors created a chilly climate for women, (9)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Culture limits women’s authority and power. • The administration is unconscious and there needs to be visibility. • It is a stifling environment for women. Men around the table have not had a lot of experience working with women in top levels.
	<p>Women perceived the culture to be awkward for men and may be tougher for women in certain disciplines. (12)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Support is uneven across the institution in accepting women. It is difficult for some departmental communities to think of women in a chair role. • Men feel awkward and uncomfortable working with assertive women. • Lots of women feel that they have to do an outstanding job because the future of all women at the institution is affected by the job you do. Most positions for women start at -10 rather than 0. • The word is out that women are on the “B” team.
	<p>Transformation or change was in progress at institutions.(12)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Culture change is present. • Increasing awareness of diversity. • There is still a lingering good old boys’ mentality but administration has gone around that and it makes a big difference. • The CEO or president sets the tone and is key to changing the culture if needed. • Many policies will change to help women based on a

		new strategic plan and new executive branch.
Mentoring – wise or trusted counselor or teacher.	Mentors focused on career development and provided sponsorship, and coaching. (17)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The boss promoted me and believed that I could do the job. The boss gave me opportunities so I could stretch. • People nominated me to positions and are ones I could go to and ask for help and advice about a job. • Mentors identified my strengths and promoted me whenever possible. • Several men were open-minded and open doors for me. • Mentors that helped me with several skills such as analytical work, negotiations, and critiquing yourself. • Mentors believed that I had the skills to get my doctorate and to pursue upper-level administration. • Involvement in NASPA with mentors who give sound advice.
	Mentors provided psychosocial benefits such as support, encouragement, and feedback. (15)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • People believe that I can do it. • I have a supportive husband one who provides encouragement. • People at the institution are willing and interested in uplifting each other. • Friends from other universities are a very good support group and help figure out how to solve problems or issues. • I talk to several people who provide feedback as to how I'm doing and help me figure out how to improve. • I need to seek out support groups who will provide advice, be a confidante or sounding board.
	Role models have various traits that contributed to their success such as caring, helpfulness, effectiveness, and very astute. (18)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • They have common sense, very ethical, positive attitude, smart, and care about others. • They are courageous, tough when needed, confident, real, and they seem to be happy doing what they are doing. • They set goals and accomplish goals. They are talented as an administrator and are politically astute. • They are consistent in what they do and say. • It is important to be flexible and always able to adapt.

administrative positions was less than 25%, at least one and not more than three women depending upon the size of the executive branch. In addition, all but one institution had a male president or chancellor. Even with these statistics, 12 out of 17 participants felt the organizational structure supported women and provided women opportunities to advance.

Organization Supported Women.

Dr. Caldwell stated that her president was a strong advocate for women and that was one of the reasons she really wanted to accept the position there. The president ended up hiring four women who included the provost, vice president for student affairs, vice president for public relations, and general counsel.

“I think probably the most important thing is that I report directly to the president. And that has not changed. He made it very clear that that is the way he would work. I basically feel that we have very good policies that support women and certainly are very clear about sexual harassment, and so I think that can certainly help. But I think that the atmosphere and culture we have here, while it is an institution which used to be all men, I think we've come very far. In fact we have more women now. We still have that lingering old boy mentality. I would say the administration has gone around that and that makes a big difference.”

At Dr. Hatfield's institution, about 80% of the upper-level administrators were recent hires. She exclaimed,

“I got here at a good time when we had a new president. We hired a new provost. We had a new executive vice president. It was heavenly! Get rid of the old guys! So they put in some women! So it's kind of a cool time to be here right now. And the women's groups on campus have been supportive, but not overly so. But you know, they did good. If that change hadn't happened, I don't think I could be here. I wouldn't have been able to stand it. But it did happen.”

Drs. Samuelson, Letterman and Clark commented that many new deans, especially in the traditional male-dominated areas such as business, science and engineering, were women. Dr. Samuelson further added, “I have all women and one man among my vice provosts.”

Organization was a Good Old Boys' Club.

Unfortunately, the “good old boy system” is still active creating a climate of solitarians, competitors with little to no support for women in mid or upper-level administrative positions. Interestingly, the real villain is not necessarily the person in

power but the very nature of hierarchy. Complex organizations whose opportunity and power structures routinely disadvantage some kinds of people (whether women or men) are likely to generate the behavioral consequences of such disadvantaging (Kanter, 1976). In this study, eight out of 17 participants commented that their institution had not broken the mold of the good old boys' system. For Dr. Anderson and Dr. Colter, who are located at the same institution, the executive level has no women. The only people who report to the president are men in the executive vice president positions, which include the provost, vice president for finance, and the vice president for health. Dr. Anderson disclosed,

“I would say the organization is not very receptive. And I say that because I'm the VP but we have another level here of the executive VP, and they're all men, as well as the provost. He's at that same level. He's actually the number two person. There are a lot of women at my level and at the associate level. So there is kind of that ceiling, where it's hard to get into that executive level. Historically, since I've been here, I'd say we've had very few women in those key roles. And we have a commission on women that advises the President, and they must be really upset right now because we had a woman leave and a provost leave, and neither of those new hires were women. On the other hand, I think that the current president has been open to candidates, diverse candidates, but he pays a whole lot of money for some really highly previously successful people to come here. So when you bring somebody who has already proven to be successful at a certain level to your institution rather than bringing somebody up from a lower level, you naturally narrow your choices.”

Dr. Colter added that the president could widen his circle for people who come to his cabinet meetings, for example, and include the three female VPs that are here so he could hear divergent voices.

“He has chosen not to widen his circle so the only people he is hearing from are white men. Every piece of paper at the university has to be signed off on by an executive VP, not just a VP. So, all of the power and authority are really held by three to five people. Fortunately, the provost is trying to create a diverse team.”

Dr. Marshall portrayed her institution's upper-level administration as one with lots of men who are still in the generation of individual competitiveness. "The age profile of the upper administration is shocking. When you get people that old, you get that generation of solitarians, as opposed to us who want to make it good for everybody." She further described this organization as an elitist group working behind the doors with special information and not wanting anyone else to see the whole thing. It is harder for women to enter that realm.

Culture

Unlike the organizational structure which is more the external skin of the institution, the campus culture provides the internal attributes of the institution. The goals, style, values, and ethics of the institution are learned, felt, or perceived by the faculty, staff and even the students. The success of any of these groups is determined by how well their goals and values match to the institution.

Administration Valued Women and was a "Good Fit".

Ten out of 18 of the participants felt their institutions value women and are fairly receptive to women in upper-level administration. Dr. Gutrell commented that hers is a supportive campus where women support each other.

"I think our chancellor is not threatened at all by strong or powerful women, so he's happy to fill positions like that. I think that we've had female senior academic officers before. I do think our chancellor could care less of your gender."

Dr. Shavley indicated people influence that level of acceptance, and those people change quite frequently. Basically,

"I think it depends a lot then, once you're president is hired, on how they think about gender issues and positions of power, and whether or not they even think about it, and their level of acceptance. I don't have any sense of gender playing in

as anything negative around people's performance, either you're good or you're not effective, and that's true for both men and women at upper-levels. I've had presidents who weren't so successful in having women in high positions. They'd hire them and then they wouldn't last, for whatever reason, I couldn't tell you. And I've also had male presidents who seem to like women better than men. So it really has depended on who's there. I think we were ready for a woman president this last time. I was actually hearing older male faculty say, you know, a woman with some scholarly background and some administrative experience would be great. They just weren't in the pool.”

Dr. Samuelson commented her institution is very open now, but was not that way five to six years ago. “I am the first woman provost that they have had. I think now they are very accepting of the fact that women actually can run this institution.”

Chilly Climate for Women.

Several publications, beginning in the 1980s, challenged those perspectives on access and representation, providing instead an understanding of how organizational and cultural factors created a “chilly campus climate” for women (Opp & Gosetti, 2000). The concept of a chilly climate has not changed since 1980 for nine out of 18 participants in this study. Dr. Marshall felt her institution was pretty chilly. “Many women have been and still are exploited. There are many talented women on this campus.” She described an incident that occurred when she applied for the provost position.

“The president came to me and said, you are one of the top four candidates and you will pull out. Here, I’ve written a letter for you. The letter said that I was pulling out to spend more time with my grandchildren. I asked, what does this mean? He said if you want to keep your job, you’d better pull out. And I said, under no circumstances will I write this letter. Oh, daggers went through me. I pulled out. I would have done a decent job as provost if I could have been interviewed.”

Similarly, Dr. Patton described her environment as stifling.

“Men around the table try not to be biased or treat women differently, but some of them just do. They are not doing it deliberately to be mean spirited. They just have not had a lot of experience working with women in top levels. For example, I was given instructions heading into a meeting with the head football coach over

a student disciplinary action. I was advised that I should sit there and listen and not say much. And when I do I'm considered to be uncivil."

Even outside the university, it is very conservative and not accepted that women can be professionals and have careers, according to Dr. Patton. Ms. Roller further explained that men are unconscious in accepting women into upper-level positions. "The culture at this institution has not changed in 20 years. We are behind from what I found in other states. There needs to be more visibility."

Dr. Shilo described her situation as a corrupt environment.

"I had a boss who would not do his job but got salary increases. He got privileges and special treatment, but I was the person on call 24 hours a day. I was stalked, beaten at work, and I was the one who has taken all the chances, but they paid him more."

Women Perceived the Culture to be Awkward for Men and may be Tougher for Women in Certain Disciplines.

Twelve out of 18 women found that men were not accustomed to working with women within the executive branch. In addition, women found pockets on campus that were still tough for women to advance or be visible. Dr. Pratt acknowledged she is the only woman in the circle of vice presidents, but questioned,

"Do I think there is hostility to women being in there? No, I get along very well with my colleagues. They've been extremely supportive of me. But why is it that I'm the only woman in that position? When I look at the deans across the spectrum of the university, we now have two deans who are women. Both African American women as it turns out, but that wasn't the case when I first got here. But did I think there was hostility? No I think it was just, as in many places, the good old boys' network is in place. People aren't particularly hostile; they just don't do anything to make the changes. They're not as proactive as they should be. And so, no, it's not hostile, but I am the only woman in the chancellor's cabinet."

In addition, Dr. Garrett concluded that the culture is uneven across the university.

"I think we have units where women have been successful for a long period time, and we

have units where it's still hard to find women leaders. And I define leaders as department chairs. It's wildly uneven and not representative of the disciplines.” Dr. Letterman agreed,

“Some women are in an area that may be considered somewhat marginal which is less central to the department and therefore makes it difficult for the departmental community to think of them in that chair role. Women then try for other leadership positions such as assistant dean.”

According to Ms. Butel, it was an interesting experience to understand how the leadership tone set by the person at the top impacts an organization. She has no experience with that before.

“Now we have our brand new president who is going to change the face of this university very, very rapidly because he is already bringing in three new people at the VP level each of whom is superbly qualified for the job they were recruited to do. The difference is like night and day. I would never have believed that you can see that kind of difference overnight. And it’s gratifying, because having lived for 7 years under an administration, I would never have pinpointed that during the beginning or middle of the administration how kind of stultifying that kind of environment is.”

In addition, “lots of women felt that they had to do an outstanding job if they were in a VP or provost position because the future of all women at the institution was going to be affected by the job that you did or didn't do,” observed Dr. Samuelson. Furthermore, “just succeeding is not good enough. You had to succeed really well. I think most women, in most positions start out at -10 and not at 0. In addition, they have to run harder and faster to convince people that you can get to number 5 or 10 or wherever you are going.”

Transformation in Progress.

Respondents indicated they were seeing a shift from a male dominant campus to one that is more supportive and receptive to women in decision making roles. Twelve

out of 18 participants felt a transformation or change happening at their institution moving from a male-dominated campus to one that was receptive to women in upper-level administrative positions. Respondents saw this transformation in specific departments and colleges. Other women experienced this change within their own executive areas.

Dr. Garrett found that the culture of change is present. Dr. Caldwell acknowledged that her institution was moving away from the good old boys' mentality. For Dr. Clark, her institution identified diversity as a core value in their strategic plan. Currently, they are looking at a family leave plan for faculty that will give women (the care givers) better opportunities for flexibility in their careers.

At the same time, culture is not about race or gender, but about attitude, according to Ms. Butel.

“You can be more effective in your job if you are not having to worry about or dealing with extraneous issues such as undermining, isolation, diminishing effectiveness or devaluing. It is important that the person you report to values you, values your competence, your experience, your skills, and your ability to get things done. It makes a huge difference in how you are perceived by other people and how you are positioned to get your job done.”

According to Middlehurst (1997), leadership assists in developing common understandings about the nature of reality within and outside the organization and serves to highlight those values necessary or consistent with the organization's agenda for action. Likewise, one half of the participants in this study felt the CEO or president sets the tone of the culture and environment. Dr. Shavley, Dr. Shilo and Ms. Butel believed the culture is shaped by the leader. As Dr. Shilo further expounded, “It depends on the wisdom and nature of the president that will shape the culture of the campus.” Dr.

Gutrell conceded the president may be open to accepting women, but the campus may not.

Mentoring

To obtain leadership positions, women can use career-enhancing techniques. These would include: availing themselves to mentors, utilizing sponsors, networking (which allows women a means for getting advice), and seeking moral support and role models. Women need contacts for information and providing constructive ways of dealing with frustration and sharing feelings about their work (Crampton & Mishra, 1999; Wesson, 1998). With this in mind, participants in this study provided descriptions of the type of mentors they used and attributes of the role models which were considered ingredients to the role models' success.

Included under the umbrella of career functions provided by mentors are sponsorship, coaching, protection, exposure and visibility, and challenging work assignments. Included under the umbrella of psychosocial benefits protégés enjoyed are encouragement, advice and feedback, as well as an enhanced sense of competence, effectiveness, and clarity of identity (Kram, 1983). These divisions are useful as they show that the mentor's role is more than simply a career facilitator.

Career Development Mentors.

Within the career functions, participants described their mentors as coaches. Ms. Schlinder, while as a student, had a mentor who helped with communications and how to communicate. Ms. Schlinder described two other mentors who “gave me the grit of analytical work and taught me a lot about how to negotiate and the lay of the legal

landscape.” Like Ms. Schlinder, Dr. Patton had several mentors who coached her along the way.

“One mentor wanted to help me excel and he made sure I was connected with the right people. Another mentor taught me that it is the small things, the simple gifts, the things you do to care about people that are so important. Through the help of these mentors, I figured out that I had the potential and that it was possible for me to be in upper administration.”

Dr. Gutrell’s mentor gave this piece of advice when she went through a period where she had a boss who was determined for her to feel bad about herself. “I will never forget one of my mentors, he was a male, and he took me to lunch, and he said, ‘Don’t you ever let him convince you that you are not competent, because you are.’ But, you know you have to have somebody outside sending you those messages when sometimes you have people inside not sending you those messages.”

Additionally, Dr. Letterman commented that an associate dean who was very influential and very talented administrator would just chat with her about administrative issues and then give her his little words of wisdom. “He gave me little hints that have carried me through several decision making processes.” Dr. Marshall talked about the provost helping to polish off some rough spots and other people who put a lot of time into her. “Early in my career, I was a taker. But, as I got more people involved and helped them, then I became more of a giver.”

Ms. Roller described her mentor, who was the president, as a role model.

“He was fascinating in the way he approached stuff. He was very generous. He wouldn’t offer it but you could ask him anything. He helped me understand academia and that you have to go through the ‘swamp’ to get anything accomplished. He could have gotten me out of the swamp, but I would not have learned how to get out of the swamp myself.”

Similarly, Dr. Samuelson has a great relationship with her president. “I can go in and put out on the table and he understands how I click, how I think, and when I’m disturbed about something. My actions are often the result of my feelings and he needs to know what I’m worried about so he can understand the decision I made. He is my closest confidant.”

Johnsrud (1991) defined sponsorship as the advocacy of specific candidate for advancement. For many of the participants, mentors nominated, promoted them through the system or opened doors of opportunities. As Dr. Caldwell described, “They identified my strengths and promoted me whenever possible. If someone has that much trust in me, I go 150%. By giving us great opportunities, that’s partly how we get motivated.” Dr. Shavley found that “there are people in my career that I could go to and ask for help and advise me about a job or write a letter or nominate me.”

Participants commented about the importance of being visible and how mentors helped them to be more visible. Dr. Caldwell’s mentors placed her on committees, provided her readings, and gave her opportunities to serve the institution in whatever capacity. Dr. Sankey’s colleague in the department was very supportive and made sure she got involved.

“He would invite me to come for coffee in the main building which was about one mile away. I would always have an excuse not to come. Well, he persisted and said that I needed to do this. So, I did and it helped me get socialized in the department. By being the only woman and the youngest person in the department, it would have been easy to just hide out. By being asked to go to coffee could have been the difference between success and failure. In addition, when this man became department head, he made sure that I was put on some key committees. Then, when he became dean, he made sure I was provided similar opportunities. I am now a leader nationally and therefore, I have chaired a number of national committees and prominent groups. So, my peers feel I am a leader.”

Psychosocial Mentors.

Kram (1986) described the psychosocial functions of mentoring as those which affect the protégé on a more personal level. Basically, psychosocial mentoring enhances a sense of competence, clarity of identity and effectiveness in a professional role. Within this function of mentoring, participants in this study identified encouragement, networks of family, friends, and colleagues, and feedback as most important types of mentoring.

Interestingly, a couple of the participants mentioned the importance of good parents. Dr. Shavley's parents were very important in that they were school teachers who encouraged her all the way. As she declared, "With this encouragement, the building blocks were there." Dr. Shilo also commented that good parenting, good friends, good vocational and professional interests helped shape her career.

"I've had good role-models. In fact I've had one good mentor over time. I think my parents, because they were so rock solid in the things that really mattered, that I had very good lessons from them. The daughter's dads being what they are, I think my father had a greater influence by encouraging that you can do this. Sometime it was totally unrelated to my professional work, but just little tiny lessons. You can fix this. Let's do this together. I can show you. Oh, you can do this. Yeah, sure you can do this. So those are very important things to hear all the way along."

Dr. Samuelson described her institution as having a family attitude. When you have had a bad day or something did not go well, people rally around. "It's a family attitude and people at this institution are willing and interested in uplifting each other."

Dr. Gutrell indicated that mentors provide feedback as to how one is doing and then help figure out how to improve. In other words, "They critique you and help you critique yourself. And so I think with all of us it's not just about telling people how wonderful you are. They say honestly, you're not a very good writer, what can we do to improve you're writing skills. Or whatever it is you know."

A mentoring system and networking within and outside the organization are factors that encourage women to get to the appropriate springboard for promotion and then to fulfill managerial functions (Powney, 1997). Dr. Letterman found people in the professional organizations to be extremely important because each keeps a pulse on the world of higher education. From the collegial provost groups and deans groups, “we gain from each other’s expertise and from interacting with the external world. Professional contacts are an extremely valuable part of my life.”

Both Dr. Shavley and Dr. Patton found NASPA as a great organization to get networked and be able to reconnect and reengage with people in the same profession. Dr. Shavley indicated that through NASPA she could help colleagues and she could gain new ideas. “I could share successes and failures and that is a significant component of my success over the years, and keeping me sane. It is nice to be in a profession that we don’t compete. We can be honest with each other and help one another out.”

Actually, Dr. Samuelson posited that women do not have a lot of support groups. “Some of my best times I have had is when I got to go to national meetings and there are four or five of us that are women provosts and we look at each other and say, gosh, I’m so tired of this I do not want to do this anymore. It boosts you up to realize that you are all sharing the same problem.” Dr. Marshall added that forums need to be established where women can, in a protected way, talk to each other, get to know each other and be supportive of one another. Basically, networking is really important. Dr. Pratt explained that by knowing people who know what one wants and who are supportive of that can make all of the difference in the world.

Dr. Patton agreed that people need to be found who can help talk women through things and be a confidante or sounding board. For instance, Dr. Garrett has a conference call with girlfriends from high school who are in different disciplines. She explained,

“I have girlfriends that have known each other since we were tiny and we used to have a conference call every couple of Saturdays, just to talk about what we've been doing and we would talk about the rest of our lives. I quickly realized that if I could learn to describe whatever challenges I had in a generic language, they could help me. As long as I was talking about tenure and promotion, they didn't have a clue about that, but they understood the larger issues. It was great exercise in helping me to figure out how to get outside of a specific circumstance I was working on. Once you understand the general principle you can solve all kinds of specific problems, and that was a tremendous network.”

Role Models.

Without significant numbers of women at the top to act as role models, to begin to penetrate the myths and rituals and to start to decode what can often be the esoteric language and behavior found there, few women will be able to break through the “glass ceiling” and some of those who do will simply flounder (King, 1997, Tallerico & Burstyn, 1996). In addition, women need to learn to relax, to feel comfortable being themselves, to indulge in their wit, to display personal individuality and charm, and to be grateful for their energy. Essentially, women need to teach the things they learn and experience to other women by being role models and mentors (Harter, 1993). All of the women in this study concluded that their role models' successes were based on specific personal and job traits. For example, being tough, competent, knowledgeable, and effective; having common sense and setting and achieving goals were a few of the traits mentioned.

“Tough as nails” was the description used by Dr. Shavley and Dr. Shilo for their role models. However, Dr. Shilo added that her role model was kind to a fault and a

gentle spirit. “This amazing person would call me at home and ask for my advice. I was so tickled by this and it just amazed me.” Dr. Gutrell’s role models have had to take some tough stands.

“Several women presidents who refuse to follow along blindly and let things happen. They just step out and say were going a certain direction. They have taken on some issues that may not always be popular, but they survived. That takes courage.”

Dr. Sankey described her role model as being smart and capable. Basically, you need to have intellectual capacity and be a talented administrator. Dr. Shilo’s role model was also smart and was living in the residence hall when she was in college.

“She was a step ahead of me. When she went into counseling, I went into counseling. When she went for her doctorate, I went for my doctorate. She is an incredible smart and talented woman. She has had some tough times, but she has done well. She is my single best mentor. She was like my pace car.”

Earned respect and respecting others were traits mentioned by Dr. Anderson and Dr. Clark. Ms. Roller described the Dean of Agriculture as a politically astute woman who has gained respect in a network that is very difficult for a woman. She is able to get what she wants by getting everyone on board with her ideas.

Dr. Patton found a good role model who was absolutely phenomenal. She cared about her students and was an impact on the lives of students. Similarly, Dr. Samuelson described a role model who was also caring, giving, and open. “She is a person who if you need help, she is there for you. She is willing to do her part to help someone else. She is approachable and wants the best for everybody.” In addition, Ms. Schlinder’s role model

“is a person who has surely enhanced her own professional career and has balanced it with a real sense of community for the city that she lives in. She has found balance between her professional life and her civic commitment. She also brings a nice set of career skills to the table.”

Several attributes surfaced relative to the job and performance. Dr. Caldwell's role model sets goals and accomplishes them. She can be effective and make change happen. Two college presidents, according to Dr. Colter, navigated the hierarchy to the position that they wanted to have. They did this on their own terms without compromising their principles or beliefs. Also, Dr. Letterman's role model "sets out her goals and makes it clear to herself and others what she wants to do and she doesn't trample people over. She moves aside when she knows it's time for somebody else to be there and she'll move on to something else."

Dr. Shavley and Dr. Hatfield described their role models as being happy. Dr. Shavley commented that even though one of her role models was frustrated, she loved the struggle or the fight. "Even having bad role models," according to Dr. Shilo, "showed that you don't have to be a jerk to be a good leader."

Demographic Comparison for Environmental Factors

In reviewing the participant demographics in relation to the environmental factors, eight sub-findings emerged (see Table 4-7). This table is prepared similar to Tables 4-3 and 4-5. Essentially, the percents shown in the table represent the percent of participants for the demographic variable included in the finding. Only the demographic variables with a difference in percent of participants between the demographic variables greater than 30% are shown. Blank cells for both demographic variables represent that there was less than 30% difference or no difference in percent of participants.

Women participants employed in their current positions for longer than five years perceived the culture to be awkward for men and certain disciplines may be tougher for women to advance. On the other hand, women employed in their current positions less

Table 4-7: Environmental Factors Findings Disaggregated by Years in Position, Tenure Status, Mobility, and Percent of Women in Upper-level Administrative Positions.

Sub-codes (Level 2)	Finding	Demographic Information (Percent of participants by demographic variable and finding)							
		Years in Position		Tenure Status		Mobility		% of Women in Upper-Level Administration	
		<= 5 years	> 5 years	Tenured	Non-Tenured	Yes	No	<= 25%	25% to 46%
	# of participants	7	11	6	12	11	7	11	7
Organizational Structure									
	Organization supported women.	85.7							85.7
	Organization was a good old boys' club.				58.3				
Culture									
	Administration valued women and was a "good fit".				66.7				
	Chilly climate for women.								
	Women perceived the culture to be awkward for men and may be tougher for women in certain disciplines.		63.6				71.4		100.0
	Transformation in progress.						85.7		
Mentoring									
	Career development mentors.								
	Psychosocial mentors.								
	Role models.								

Note: Blank cells indicate the difference in percent of participants between the two variables within a demographic item was less than 30%, thus the percent of participants were not provided.

than or equal to five years indicated that their organization supported women. In contrast, non-tenured women indicated their organization was a good old boys' club but

also described the culture that valued women and was a good fit for women. Mobile participants described the culture at their institution as transforming to a culture more accepting of women in upper-level administration. In addition, mobile women perceived the culture to be awkward for men and possibly tougher for women in certain disciplines to advance. Similarly, women currently working at institutions with 25% to 46% of the positions held by women perceived their culture to be awkward for men and possibly tougher for women in certain disciplines, but they also described their organization as supportive of women.

Environmental Factors Summary

This section considered three environmental factors that may affect women's decision to advance into upper-level administrative positions. The organizational structure varied among the participants. When assessing the campus culture, the participants were split between being receptive and not being receptive to women in upper-level administration. Participants commented that their campus was in a transformation with women being hired as deans, especially in male-dominated areas. Several types of mentors were identified such as coaches, those who provided encouragement, and those within a network. The participants mentioned several personal attributes which they felt were important to their role models' successes in upper-level administrative positions. At the same time, promoting women and being themselves were characteristics noted by the participants as to why their role models were successful.

Specifically, the match of institutional values and personal values including how the participants are valued at the institution were central themes when asked about the organizational structure and campus culture. The participants felt if persons are valued

by those to whom they report to, then the participants would be perceived by others as being credible, trusting, competent, and effective. Participants felt the president or CEO determined the tone of the campus and a change in the presidency made a huge difference for them in either staying at the institution or making a difference in their unit and thus, the university. In addition, participants felt having a good relationship among top administrators was important for them in being effective and to request needed resources.

The participants described their mentors as either promoting them, and thus helping them to advance in their careers or as coaches providing advice, tips, and insight needed to be successful. Networks of people, particularly those in the same type of position, were considered by the participants as important support groups.

Finally, the participants identified role models who, in their opinion, were successful. These role models were described as being tough and courageous but at the same time caring, giving, helpful, and approachable. The role models were successful because they were effective, efficient, accomplished goals, solved problems, and had a sense of community. According to the participants, these role models earned their respect and the respect of others. They were successful by making the institution and others look good. In other words, these role models were willing to promote other women, were not afraid to be themselves by keeping human values and acting like a woman, but more importantly, they enjoyed their work.

Interaction of the Three Components of the Bandura's Model

As noted in the principle of triadic reciprocity, cognitions influence choices of environments and behaviors, which then influence behavioral performance and, ultimately, beliefs concerning those environments and behaviors (Maddux, 1995). With

this in mind and because the participants were asked specifically about their beliefs, behavior and the environment, the next step was to respond to the final sub-question, which was: In what ways do self-efficacy, personal behaviors, and environmental factors interact to influence women's motivation towards career advancement?

In this study, one finding emerged under main code (level 1) interaction. Nine of the 18 respondents agreed with Bandura's theory of the interaction which occurs between an individual's personality (ability, values, needs, expectations, etc.), her perceived environment, and her personal beliefs. Dr. Pratt replied with this response, "Quite frankly, I can't see a scenario where only one would count. It's a combination of all three. I would find it difficult to do the things that I need to do and so all those elements have been very important to me. They have defined where I go." Dr. Letterman added,

"You are in a public position and you have to have the self-confidence in your ability to move things forward even when you get knocked down. It is a personal struggle to maintain your confidence, but it is important for the people around you to have that confidence. You have to have someone besides your family to talk with about issues that you are facing, to hear yourself think, and also to gain from the experience of others. Finally, you need to be thinking about five to ten years in advance to where you want to be. It helps you see where your current job is going in a forward progression."

Dr. Samuelson described the linkage like a series of three knobs. "You turn them up or turn them down depending on what's happening with the other knob. Your self-confidence is up or down depending upon what's happening in your leadership role and how hard you want to push a committee. They are all mutually dependent on one another and I think the success of a leader is the ability to understand the ratio with which each of those must interact at any one time and to be willing to adapt and change."

Moreover, Dr. Caldwell believed it starts with how effective you are. However, self confidence or the ability to get things done, credibility, and ethics combined with

making decisions as to whether more responsibility is desired are critical factors. Then, match this with an environment that is growing and providing individuals the opportunities to grow, develop and take on more challenges. It is a clear tie between confidence and career goals. Those have to go hand in hand according to Dr. Patton.








“If you believe in yourself, you will push yourself to where you are going and what you want to do. Both of these are impacted by the environment. Sometimes you choose the environment and then other times the environment changes. Your self confidence can be impacted by the environment when it changes to something that you didn’t have control over. You also may not find the support that you thought was there. Having a great environment allow you to dream big and even imagine that you could be president of major university.”




Themes Across All Findings

After winnowing the voluminous amount of data to a manageable group of 35 findings, three themes across all findings emerged. Theme one consists of women’s need to seek out support groups and have the opportunity to nurture others as she pursues an upper-level administrative position. Theme one is supported by findings 3, 4, 6, 9, 16, 18, 23, 26, 31, 32, 33, 34 and 35. Theme two comprises the requirements of institutional knowledge, skills to manage and lead projects and colleagues, experience working in higher education and in a specified area, and participation in different trainings in order to advance to an upper-level administrative position. This theme is supported by findings 2, 16, 18, 19, 20, 21, 32, 34 and 35. Finally, Theme 3 embraces the idea that women must establish a value system, follow their own values and do not compromise their values in order to advance to an upper-level administrative position in higher education. This theme is supported by findings 1, 17, 22, 24, 25, 28, 34, and 35 (see Table 4-8).

Basically, receiving support from other people and giving support to others were prominent under the three main components of self-efficacy, personal behaviors, and

Table 4-8: Findings by Sub-code Level 2

Self – Efficacy
 Confidence
1. I-Can Attitude.
2. Knowledge, experience and doing well increased confidence.
3. External awards and accomplishments helped to build confidence.
4. Build confidence with the help from others.
 Success
5. Making a difference defined success.
6. Helping and influencing others defined success.
7. Accomplishing goals defined success.
8. Confronting change was an example of success.
9. Hiring and working with people and receiving appreciation notes were examples of success.
 Challenges
10. Dealing with change was considered a challenge.
11. Experience different emotions, feelings, or mental states when dealing with challenges.
Personal Behaviors
 Career Path
12. Participants did not plan to enter higher education.
13. Participants wanted to become a policy or change maker after entering higher education.
14. Participants aspired for an upper-level administrative position.
15. Participants were content to stay in their current positions.
16. Women must be prepared and seek assistance from others when interviewing.
17. Women needed to determine if position is a good fit.
 Mobility
18. Gaining new ideas, discovering different methods and processes and working with a variety of people were a few of the advantages of moving from one institution to the other.
19. Maintaining a reputation and having institutional historical knowledge were a few of the advantages of staying at one institution.
 Skills
20. Women developed and maintained skills related to knowledge.
21. Women developed and maintained skills related to performance.
22. Women developed and maintained skills related to behavior.
23. Women developed and maintained leadership skills.
 Compromises
24. Women balanced time between family and work.
25. Women spent too much time at work, took more risks, and increased responsibilities.

Environmental Factors
 Organization
26. The organization supported women.
27. The organization was a good old boys' club.
 Culture
28. The administration valued women.
29. A chilly climate existed.
30. Women perceived the culture to be awkward for men and certain disciplines may be tougher for women to advance.
31. Culture transformation was in progress and in favor of women.
 Mentoring
32. Mentors focused on career development.
33. Mentors provided support, encouragement and feedback.
34. Role models have various traits that contribute to their success such as caring, helpfulness, effective, promote other women.
Interaction
35. Participants felt that self-efficacy, personal behaviors, and the environment must be present and interact so that women can advance in their careers.

environmental factors. The participants mentioned support systems and networks either in building confidence, providing sponsorship, encouragement and feedback or assisting with the interview process. In addition, participants' confidence was increased after receiving appreciation notes, letters, and seeing those they helped or influenced to succeed. Hiring and working with good people who grow and succeed substantiated the reason the participants entered higher education. Participants in this study described role models who are caring, giving, and provide opportunities to promote other women. The participants also realized at many institutions, the tone of the university is set by the person in charge and recognized the strong leaders are those who collaborate and empower others.

The second theme demonstrated the need for knowledge, skills, and preparedness for other job opportunities, committee work, increased job responsibilities, and being

effective in their current position. Knowledge and skills were prominent within the personal behavior component especially as women move from one institution to the other institution gaining experiences, new skills, and broadening their knowledge about higher education, working with diverse groups of people, and different organizational structures and cultures. At the same time, women who stayed at one institution gained historical institutional knowledge and also knew who to go to for help. Increasing one's skill set, becoming more proficient, efficient, and competent as well as receiving specialized training were emphasized by the participants in order to do one's job well, increase confidence and to advance in one's career.

According to the participants, decisions and working relationships must be value driven in order to maintain credibility, trust, honor, integrity and to move the institution in the right direction. Evaluating and retaining personal values was the third theme and was most prominent within personal behavior and environmental factors. Participants stressed comparing one's values to the institutional values for similarities. Also, participants described their role models as very ethical and tough pushing for what they felt was right. The compromises faced by the participants focused on determining the value of their time at work, at home, and even for themselves. Participants with the "I-can" attitude have the confidence to stand by their values and not allow their values to be compromised.

In summary, these themes represent the motivational factors influencing women's decision to pursue upper-level administrative positions. The next and final chapter presents a discussion of the implications of the themes, conclusions drawn from these

themes, and recommendations for aspiring higher education women administrators and institutions of higher education. Additionally, suggested future research is offered.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Overview

The previous research on the advancement of women in higher education or the private sector has focused mostly on the barriers and external forces inhibiting a woman's ability to advance in her career. Even by identifying and implementing initiatives to break through the barriers and the glass ceiling, the number of women in the highest leadership roles in almost all occupational areas, although increasing, is not increasing in proportion to women's overall numbers in education and work (American Council on Education, 2007; Catalyst, 2001; Catalyst 2006; O'Brien, 2006). Thus, a new direction in research was sought to focus on identifying what motivates women to advance in their careers rather than trying to change the behaviors and beliefs of an institution and culture.

This study interviewed 18 women who have reached the upper-level administrative positions (e.g., provost, vice-president or vice-provost) at land-grant universities and investigated the factors responsible for motivating them to this achievement, specifically self-efficacy, personal behavior, and environmental factors (elements of Bandura's Model of Reciprocal Determination). Bandura noted that persons acquire internal codes of behavior that they may or may not act upon later. Behavior is largely regulated through cognitive processes (Bandura, 1986). Therefore, people plan courses of action, anticipate the consequences and set goals and challenges for themselves which then guide, motivate and regulate their activities. Finally, the environment by definition, is external to the individual and is not as easily changed, altered, or implemented, but provides opportunities and social support (Glanz, et al, 2002). In essence, studying the behaviors of administrators through interviews,

observations, and tracking their career paths and professional development yield more accurate pictures of the nature of the job, its challenges, and problems (Mark, 1986).

For this study the following overarching question along with four sub-questions were addressed:

What motivational factors are perceived by women to influence their decision to pursue upper-level administrative positions?

1. What are the perceptions of women's self-efficacy and career advancement?
2. How do women's career path, mobility, and overall skills affect their beliefs and attitudes towards career advancement?
3. What are women's perceptions of the affects from outside influences, such as organizational structure, the campus culture, or mentors in regard to their career advancement?
4. In what ways do self-efficacy, personal behaviors, and environmental factors interact to influence women's motivation towards career advancement?

By examining the findings from this study within the three components of Bandura's model and how these components interact to reciprocally influence each other, three themes integrated throughout the findings emerged. Theme one underlines the importance of support groups and individual mentors to encourage, coach, and support women as they decide to enter higher education and then pursue upper-level administrative positions. In addition, theme one affirms the image of women as nurturers and needing to assist and influence others to succeed. Essentially, theme one focuses on

the importance of people either influencing and encouraging women to advance in their careers or being influenced and encouraged by other women to be successful. Theme two recognizes the need for knowledge, skills, and experience in order for women to advance in their careers. By obtaining skills in various areas especially leadership, and gaining institutional knowledge and experience through committee work, trainings, and working with a variety of experts at the institution and externally, women achieve credibility, respect, and increased confidence to advance in their careers. Theme three emphasizes developing and evaluating personal values, and ensuring these personal values are a good fit with institutional values. In addition, theme three brings to the surface the value of time and the choices women make balancing time between work and family and between work and personal time.

Discussion and Implications

The premise of this study was to analyze the confidence and success, career path and skills, and the organization and mentoring of successful upper-level administrative women in order to determine the motivational factors that influenced their decision to advance in their careers. Overall, the women in this study enjoyed their work and were very confident in their abilities and skills. These women did not question their confidence to do the job and to do it well. They have the credentials and experience to advance to the level of presidency. However, the women in this study have no desire to advance to the presidency. Instead they aspired for upper-level administrative positions that provided opportunities to work with faculty and students, contribute to the successes of colleagues and students, and to be in the trenches making change happen. For these women, their successes were defined by the success of others, success of programs and

the success of the institution rather than their personal achievements of title, power and money.

Even though these women did not strive for power, they admitted the importance of their upper-level administrative positions which had the power to make a difference either by implementing programs or changing policy. Since women possess the confidence to pursue upper level administrative positions, other motivating factors need to be in place to influence women to first enter higher education administration and then to pursue upper-level administrative positions.

The findings in this study suggest that women are motivated to pursue upper-level administrative positions if they are supported by others, are able to provide support and guidance to others (nurturer), have knowledge of university processes and executive position responsibilities, are competent, efficient, and effective, and finally are able to maintain their personal value systems. More importantly, the combination of all these factors interacting and influencing the other impacts women's decisions to pursue upper-level administrative positions. This section will discuss and provide implications for each of these conclusions.

Support Groups and Nurturing

The participants in this study emphasized the need for support groups not only for building confidence and assisting in the direction of their career path, but also as role models, coaches or to provide feedback. In addition, participants tied their successes, challenges, and skill attainment to people's influence and assistance. Women need a person or several people to be their sounding boards to bounce ideas off of and to work through issues or concerns. For women, these support groups and individuals reinforce

their beliefs in their abilities and experiences to develop, implement and complete a project. In addition, the feedback from these support groups is critical in helping women improve, grow, and increase their confidence.

Participants indicated that their parents were driving forces behind their success and confidence to advance into an upper-level administrative position. This is not uncommon, according to Powney (1997). Working class women reported help from their parents in establishing an ambitious climate. Families therefore help to develop personal confidence.

Formal and informal mentorship programs were not specifically explored in the interviews, nor did the participants describe any type of mentorship programs. This was somewhat surprising since mentoring programs are not new to the public sector and have been implemented within various higher education organizations such as National Association of Student Personnel Administrators (NASPA). However, the participants provided descriptions and stories of people who offered their expertise, assistance, and encouragement. For the most part, fellow colleagues at other institutions, former or current department or unit heads (even a chancellor), or former graduate school professors were identified as coaches, supporters or those who provided encouragement or feedback. According to Powney (1997), women as senior managers were all successful by definition because of personal motivation and support.

The participants in student affairs highlighted the NASPA symposiums for aspiring vice presidents for student affairs and NASPA conferences in which the participants were able to network. Other participants mentioned other professional groups within their own disciplines or units in which they were able to meet with other

women in similar roles to discuss issues and programs. Participants indicated that they also consulted with friends outside of academe and also neighbors in their community. These statements run contrary to that of Wellington, Kropf and Gerkovick (2003) who stated a clear majority of women executives cite a lack of mentors among the barriers that blocked their advancement to leadership. In the case of this study's participants, mentors or supporters were very much involved in their entry and advancement in higher education.

Participants in this study even referenced the fact that the people they considered to be mentors were in fact men. Given that many graduate student advisors, superiors and people in upper-level administration were men, it is not surprising that these participants would comment that their mentors were men. In fact, participants suggested that women striving to advance in higher education should seek out and be open to mentors who are men. Nidiffer and Bashaw (2001) contend that "women must have backing and continued support of one or more well-placed male mentors" (p. 55). Basically, mentors and networks can provide support for the individual. Furthermore, an institution that has implemented a system of formal mentoring may be sufficiently alert to the problems of discrimination to address them through the training of senior staff and monitoring of appointments and promotions (Spurling, 1997).

In addition to receiving assistance and support, the participants spoke of collaborative working relationships, open communication, and nurturing management skills to gain and maintain their upper-level administrative roles. Participants felt by helping others, they also assisted the institution to reach its mission and goals. In fact, participants in this study were fairly adamant in the fact that when a person reaches the

upper-level administrative arena, the emphasis is on others to nurture and influence success rather than on self. Purposeful leadership encompasses the values of creating a supportive environment, promoting future sustainability through harmony with nature, and constructing communities based on reciprocal and shared responsibility (Madden, 2002). Dr. Samuelson used an analogy to describe where a woman in upper-level administration should focus her attention.

“From a woman’s aspect, it’s like if you’re going to a party and you’re going to worry about what you’re going to wear because you want to make a good impression on everybody versus going to the party and making sure that you have made everybody else comfortable and spoken to everybody. If you lack confidence, you’re going to worry about what you look like. If you are confident, you don’t worry about what you look like, you’re going to worry about everybody else having a good time.”

Participatory, collaborative, team oriented, and cooperation were words used by the participants to describe various leadership styles. According to Madden (2002), collaboration is an effective leadership strategy. Collaboration works because participatory and consensus-based decision-making is far more satisfying for participants and produces results and plans that people readily embrace. The participants in this study would be best described as catalysts leaders in which they feel good when bringing out the best in others and by being democratic. According to Brunner (1993), catalyst leaders do not use the “power over” people because they achieve power through people by moving people, motivating people and getting the job done through people. At the same time, the “power to” method is used when they want to empower others to make their own decisions collaboratively and to carry them out through a collective and inclusive model.

The participants in this study agreed that women leaders often possess the attributes of compassion, empathy, inspiration, and vision, equating these aspects of nurturance forming the basis of tone, voice and vision in women's leadership. These attributes of a leader were necessary as women leaders advance in their careers (Helgesen, 1990). In fact, participants described their role models with many of these attributes in addition to promoting other women, being human or real, leading as a woman rather than as a man, and creating a harmonious work place. As Wenniger and Conroy (2001) noted, the leadership roles are changing and people today are prone to gravitate towards leaders who are nurturing, caring, and giving.

Furthermore, working with a diverse group of people who have various experiences and expertise were noted by the participants as a motivational factor in their advancement to upper-level administrative positions. In fact, working with people from different backgrounds and experiences was one of the advantages cited for moving from one institution to the other. More importantly, participants in this study found working in teams was beneficial and ensured that the experts were at the table when making tough decisions. Participants admitted that time influenced the ability to receive consensus or input and therefore, decisions had to be made without full consensus. However, participants made every effort to involve the people most affected by the decisions.

Essentially, a team oriented leadership characteristic was effective for the participants in this study. In addition, the participants strived to be inclusive and keep the communication lines open. For one participant, Ms. Roller, a quilting bee came to mind as she described her leadership style along with good communication.

“I look at it [my leadership style] like a quilting-bee. You've probably seen them on TV. My grandmother used to do them. It's this big room, with a big frame and

you have all of these women on all the corners and they work together to reach the middle. They have to communicate. How many spots am I off, and so when they get to the middle it all works, because if it's off, it doesn't work, and so it takes lots of communication so that they are in sync when they get to the middle. So I think that that's my leadership style.”

In essence, the participants in this study conveyed the importance of supportive people either in their career development or career advancement. These supportive people provided the encouraging words, the suggestion of new methods, the feedback to improve, and the team spirit to pursue an upper-level administrative position.

Alternatively, the opportunity to influence and work with individuals or groups of people were highlighted many times by the participants as reasons for being in higher education. Conversely, it was also the reason to not pursue the presidency because of the isolation from these groups of people who the participants felt they helped. Therefore, for women to pursue upper-level administrative positions, opportunities to interact, influence, and impact people are important motivational factors.

Knowledge and Skills

All of the women in this study expressed strong personal confidence and self-esteem. For the most part, these women never doubted their ability to do the job or to lead a group. Participants based their confidence on their acquired knowledge, experience in the field and doing well. Echoing the statement of Hymowitz (2004), these women did not view themselves as ambitious, but viewed their success as resulting from their positive experiences, effective leadership, accomplishments, either personally or through other people, and increased responsibilities.

Participants emphasized the need to be prepared and acquire various skills especially in listening, interpersonal, institutional process, higher education finance, and

even the law. One participant indicated the need to read well, quickly, and feel comfortable in just catching the broad view rather than all the details. The participants tended to agree with Madden (2005) in that women's lack of experience and knowledge in the areas of finance, strategic planning and research has prevented women from reaching the upper-level administrative positions in higher education. Thus, gaining knowledge in these areas was very important.

The participants found it difficult to be motivated in the direction of scholarly writing or publishing even though they recognized the need to be good researchers and scholars and to understand what it means to engage in scholarly activity. Even the participants in the student affairs units contributed to chapters in books and NASPA articles, but a high proportion of the participants' time was focused on the students and the needs of the university. Heward (1996) maintains that in the academic profession, the main currency is reputation. For these women, their reputations are based on their contribution to committees, implementation of programs, and resolving issues and concerns rather than peer evaluation of intellectual work, theses, publications, conference papers, and research applications.

Ms. Butel summarized the necessary skills and attributes needed for her position, which also can be translated to other positions in higher education.

“To do this kind of job, you have to have very good leadership skills combined with very good managerial skills. In the kind of job I do, I not only oversee my specific division, but I'm also part of the executive leadership team and budget counsel of the university, so I need to know a lot about the entire institution and how it functions to be a participant at that level. You need to have very good people skills. And I think this is particularly relevant for women. You have to be the kind of person who can be aggressive when you need to be, persuasive, and sort of get things done. Get people to collaborate around a set of goals, push hard when you need to, and back off when you need to. You know, do all of that

without being abrasive without creating too many enemies. And at least the way I do my job, I have to be able to function on a lot of different levels.

All in all, skills in the area of leadership, interpersonal and integrity as well as institutional knowledge, experience in the field, and being prepared either for job interviews, meetings with faculty, staff, constituents, or talking with the CEO were highlighted by the participants in this study. Therefore, obtaining a broad knowledge base, being competent in the field, and acquiring good interpersonal skills are important factors to motivate women to pursue upper-level administrative positions.

Value Systems

Participants in this study shared the need for women to determine if positions they pursue are a good fit. In other words, women need to assess their values and the value system of the institution to determine if there is a match. The participants cautioned other women not to compromise their values and to not lose sight of what is really important in life. This follows the feminist principles that require the articulation of very clear statements of right and wrong, or acceptable and unacceptable behavior (Madden, 2002). Thus, strong leaders are guided by values and feminist theory provides a belief system that is the foundation for the values of higher education administrators of both genders.

Dr. Patton concurred in that

“the secret to my success is being able to identify where the values are in sync. And where I struggled, is when [the institution] didn’t even know what their values were, let alone whether my values were in sync with their values. And I think that’s a piece that fuels success or fuels trouble. But part of that is environmental, but the specific piece for me is what does the institution value, what is the character of that institution, and who am I as a person, and are those consistent?”

At the same time, women in this study determined that the tone of the institution was set by the president or CEO. The CEOs of institutions play a central role in shaping

norms, policies, and practices that help create or ameliorate the chilly climate for women administrators (Chliwniak, 1997). If the CEO is a strong advocate for women, then acceptance and support for women in upper-level administration is more prevalent. According to several participants in this study, the CEO is the key to changing the 'good old boys' club' culture to a culture that values women in top level positions. One participant was very ecstatic as she described her institutional culture because a new president arrived and major changes occurred. She admitted she probably would not have stayed at that institution if personnel changes had not been made.

Although all but one of the participants' CEOs were men, three participants indicated that their institution would be ready to hire a woman CEO. If that would happen, these institutions may experience increases in women advancing to upper-level administrative positions as was found in a recent study of the Integrated Post-secondary Educational Data System (IPEDS) in which institutions with women CEOs experienced significant increases in their proportional representation of women administrators (Poplin Gosetti & Opp, 2000).

All the participants commented about time and how they have had to make choices in their professional and personal life regarding time commitments. Long hours and numerous responsibilities in the workplace coupled with family, household, marital, social, and personal demands on time lead to multiple time commitments. The long, irregular hours usually required of administrators often lead to a lack of sufficient time for family. This conflict may cause an upwardly mobile woman to feel guilty, confused, and isolated (Oakes, 1999). Three women in this study admitted they chose career over family because trying to balance both commitments would be difficult if not impossible.

Even with a family, participants admitted they directed their energies and time to their careers.

In addition, making tough value oriented decisions about where to spend their time created compromises for the women of this study. Participants put their careers on hold while raising a family or decided to remain at an institution to allow their children to complete school rather than taking the fast track up the career ladder. O'Brien and Janssen (2005) conclude that women are encouraged to apply for positions, yet led to question if they really can fully participate because of external responsibilities such as caregiver roles within a family. At the same time, participants recognized that institutional time has become their time. In other words, participants found difficulty in finding personal time and time to be with friends.

Ensuring a good fit between the participants and the institution, specifically not jeopardizing personal values were necessary factors influencing women's decisions to pursue upper-level administrative positions. Being ethical, credible and accountable were important attributes in leaders and were further emphasized when the participants described their role models and the reason their role models were successful. In addition, time and how women are able to spend their time were major concerns among the participants. Although, given the opportunity, all the participants indicated that they would not have changed any of their decisions or experiences.

Interaction of Themes

The main thrust of Bandura's Model of Reciprocal Determination is that people are motivated by the interaction of their personal confidence or self-efficacy, their personal behaviors, and the environment. Likewise, the themes of this study are

intertwined which enabled the participants to pursue upper-level administrative positions in higher education.

The support and encouragement by others influenced the participants' decisions to enter higher education and to pursue upper-level administrative positions. At the same time, knowledge and additional skills were gained by people who showed interest in the participants and coached them as they moved to the next level. As was discovered by the participants, the supportive environment and positive culture for women was linked to the CEO. Participants remained at institutions where they were valued by the CEO, and thus by the institution.

The participants were very much engaged to help and influence others. At the same time, they promoted collaborative and team oriented work places. Inclusion rather than exclusion was the motto for the participants. In other words, focusing on others rather than self as well as how they could improve the institution were ways in which the participants were motivated to move to an upper-level administrative position.

The position required value driven skills such as good ethics, accountability, and credibility. Without a set of values aligned with the institutional values, women have difficulty working in diverse environments and may develop a high tolerance to accept what they feel cannot be changed. On the other hand, possessing the knowledge, skills, and experience provided participants the confidence needed to develop strong values and not compromise those values as they advanced in their careers.

Demographics in Relation to Themes

Some interesting connections of the findings to the demographics of the participants were revealed. In essence, the longer a woman is employed at an institution,

non-tenured and not mobile, the more likely she is motivated by the ability to increase knowledge, gain experience, attend workshops and trainings. In order to pursue upper-level administrative positions, women who stay at one institution need to develop more skills and increase institutional knowledge to be competitive.

The need for support groups and the opportunity to nurture others are motivating factors for women newly hired at an institution and employed at an institution with less than 25% of the upper-level administrative positions filled by women. Women need sounding boards and people to encourage them to do well at the new institutions. At the same time, women find it important to nurture other women and become mentors, especially with a small number of women employed in the upper-level administrative area.

Similarly, newly hired women who are non-tenured, and mobile are motivated when their values are not compromised and are in sync with the institutions' values. Women who are mobile are more likely to search for institutions that are good fits and are willing to move when their own values are compromised.

Recommendations

As was discovered through this study, women have the self-confidence, educational background, and years of experience to pursue upper-level administrative positions. However, women need support groups and the ability to nurture others. In addition, the opportunity to acquire knowledge and skills, and ability to maintain and evaluate values were identified as motivational factors for women. Consequently, women need assistance from the institutional leadership to develop, promote and implement initiatives focused on these factors, which will motivate women to pursue

upper-level administrative positions. This section recommends three initiatives: (1) implementation of mentoring programs, (2) provide professional development opportunities, and (3) encourage a family-friendly culture.

Implement Mentoring Programs

The mentors, coaches, and supporters described by the participants were either sought by the participant or people found the participants. This informal mentoring program has worked for these women and may lead to a positive outcome, but aspiring women administrators need avenues to find coaches, mentors, and supporters. Thus, initial support and encouragement from superiors, advisors, or colleagues would start the process. In turn, these aspiring women administrators would then mentor to new hires within their own unit.

At the same time, aspiring women administrators should seek out support groups within their field and investigate any opportunities to network with women and men in similar fields. As the participants in this study shared, communicating with fellow colleagues in similar roles provides a sense of comfort and a reality check that others experience similar issues and problems.

In addition to informal mentoring, institutions need to consider supporting formal mentoring programs. The development of mentoring programs which pair promising young women with experienced male or female administrators can help women understand the unwritten rules. At the same time, organizations could see the potential of mentoring as a powerful learning and developmental strategy which could be used on the job. It may even help the men who participate to overcome any reservations about the abilities of women to perform administrative work. Ideally, in formal mentoring

programs, men and women would volunteer to be mentors and aspiring women administrators would have the opportunity to select mentors from these volunteers.

Formal mentoring programs create potential challenges. The first issue is the danger of allowing a mentoring program to proceed when the complete organizational commitment to the program is not present. Second, is the complexity and potentially expensive administration associated with a mentoring program that incorporates cross-functional pairing. Obviously, a positive outcome is most assured for the mentee when the institution supports the program fundamentally and financially and both the mentor and mentee are committed to the program (Murray and Owen, 1991). Unfortunately, the formal mentoring program's major disadvantage is that its success is not guaranteed since the program is not compulsory, but voluntary (Enrich & Hansford, 1999).

Furthermore, Bolman and Deal (1997) posit that women are thought to thrive as leaders within institutions that have human resource frames with reporting lines going in both directions, which provides for greater open communication. This framework fits well with women administrators who work collaboratively and in team oriented settings rather than in hierarchical frameworks. Human resource frameworks also provide opportunity to nurture and influence colleagues and support staff. Basically, the institutional structure must move from one that is hierarchal to one that is more inclusive and ensures that the appropriate people (men and women) are at the table to make decisions.

Support Professional Development Opportunities

The participants in this study emphasized the need for training, competence, and good written and verbal communication skills. Therefore, institutions must either

develop training programs or financially support aspiring women to attend various state and national organizational groups to become networked and take advantage of their internships and training. In addition, institutions must encourage department and unit heads to allow women in their respective units to attend these professional development opportunities. Essentially, programs are available through higher education associations and individual institutions which are designed specifically to help women to understand the values and structure of higher education and to develop the skills that are needed to be successful in educational administration (Cullivan, 1990). Thus, institutions need to take advantage of these opportunities to assist women at their institutions to advance in their careers.

Women need to take the initiative and volunteer for jobs that would increase their visibility and further develop leadership skills and abilities. At the same time, institutions need to offer opportunities to aspiring women to develop their leadership skills through training, specialized leadership institutes, and ensuring women are well represented on various campus committees and task forces. Institutions also need to find ways, such as job rotations and administrative internships, for women to demonstrate their skills and abilities in other arenas (Johnsrud & Heck, 1994).

Encourage Family Friendly Culture

Higher education institutions must consider re-evaluating their value system to ensure it is inclusive of everyone's values, including those of women, and to implement family friendly initiatives. Obviously, this will not be an easy task. However, one step is for institutions to stop requiring excessive time commitments that force employees to "prove" their job is more important than their family. The Commission recommends

organizations adopt policies that recognize and accommodate the balance between work and family responsibilities that impact the lifelong career paths of all employees (U.S. Glass Ceiling Commission, 1995)

Secondly, incorporating family friendly policies and practices allows women and even men to be caregivers of children or parents without being penalized and provides a secure and friendly work environment. At the same time, institutions must also consider allowing flexible work schedules and realizing the benefits of personal time away from the office. As one participant commented, people need to disconnect from work. In other words, everyone needs to clear their head, recoup, and re-energize or they would be no good to the institution or anyone else.

Thirdly, institutional leaders need to be conscientious of other time commitments and realize dedicating all one's time to work is not healthy for anyone or very productive. Women often display the following abilities based on their experience and socialization: flexibility and adaptability, ability to handle multiple demands, sensitivity to different perspectives, and an approach to life and work which involves a longer term view of how to make a difference for the greater good of the family, group, organization, or society (Middlehurst, 1997). Because of these abilities, women are asked and therefore accept too many responsibilities and obligations, which create time commitment issues and thus, women are forced to make compromises. Women need to set parameters on their time and recognize that overcommitting their time is not healthy and is not a benefit to anyone, especially women.

Women need to be tough and establish values that fit their personality and integrity. Women must stand up for what they feel is right and not conform to values that

deviate from their own values. Women need to establish a strong set of guidelines for how they will spend their time and allow for personal time away from work. As was quoted by Vice Provost for Diversity, Geraldine Downey, during the symposium held at the Columbia University Business School, “Universities, if they are going to encourage the careers of women (and of everyone), need to be willing to embrace ‘people with different values’ and be sure that they are fully included” (cited in Jaschik, 2008, ¶ 26). To the extent some men will compete for anything, Downey said, “that should not set a standard where only women who share those values can succeed in academe” (¶ 26).

Recommendations for Future Research

A number of unique issues arose in this research that warrant further exploration. The first issue is the general health of women especially as more women enter the upper-level administrative positions. Participants were concerned about their personal health and fitness. Having enough energy, discomfort of menopause, and emotional instability are just a few of the examples from participants. According to Harter (1993), ambitious women need to be realistic and not to succumb to physical annoyances. Taking care of oneself is the obligation of executives and the result is an image of a kind of invulnerability; of a kind of toughness that is associated with success and the ability to bear a great many burdens without collapsing. At the same time women need to protect themselves from real jeopardy to their physical well-being, and the test is knowing the difference.

Women even commented about being exhausted and not finding a break in their day for “me” time. Essentially, the more isolated women felt as individuals in their institutions geographically, and in their personal lives, the more exhaustion they

expressed. According to Spurling (1997), “exhaustion is inevitable for senior women. What you have to avoid is burn out” (p. 44). One participant was strong enough to disconnect from work when she goes on vacation while another is spending almost every hour of the day returning phone calls and answering emails.

The second issue concerns women who do not promote other women. In other words, women may discourage more than they encourage other women. As the participants indicated, women have not been as helpful to other women in their advancement as men often are for other men. Heim and Murphy (2001) referred to what happens when women do not support other women when they are promoted as “commotion over promotion.” Heim and Murphy found that when a woman is promoted other women rarely feel neutral on the matter. Heim and Murphy explained that either these women are really, truly happy for the individual or the promotion evokes feelings of betrayal and jealousy amongst the women left behind.

Similarly, participants felt women have less inclination to celebrate the successes of other women and it may be a competitive thing. Competition and jealousy within female relationships were mentioned as indicators of how women can be hard on other women. One indicator of how women are hard on other women was one woman having more power. Heim and Murphy (2001) called it power dead-even rule: “for a positive relationship to be possible between two women, the self-esteem and power of one must be, in the perception of each woman, similar in weight to the self-esteem and power of the other. These essential elements must be kept “dead-even” (Heim & Murphy, 2001, p. 53). Researching why women diminish other women’s successes especially as they advance may provide further insight as to women’s slow progress towards upper-level

administrative positions. Cox (1996) agreed that women can at times be hard on other women and that this occurrence should be researched further. “The question of why women are so hard on other women has not received much attention and what we have not yet identified are the problems women face both within peer groups and in recognizing other women as possible leaders” (Cox, 1996, p. 148).

Another issue to research is the imposter phenomenon. A couple of the participants raised the idea of feeling as though they were imposters and wondering if anyone was going to question them. The imposter phenomenon is an experience that negatively affects one's self-concept and self-esteem. A person suffering from the imposter phenomenon believes even though they are successful, their accomplishments were the result of luck or some external circumstance (Clance & Imes, 1978). Even though the phenomenon was introduced 30 years ago, the possibility that this phenomenon is affecting women's advancement to upper-level positions should be investigated.

A fourth recommendation of a topic of further study is a gender comparison of the motivational factors influencing the decision to pursue upper-level administrative positions in higher education. This study only focused on women and did not compare motivational factors between genders. By identifying the factors that motivate men and comparing those to the factors found in this study, the differences or similarities will provide additional insight as to why women do not advance to upper-level positions as quickly, especially to the CEO position.

Another research study is to identify the motivational factors of aspiring women in higher education (women in middle management), and compare those factors to the

motivational factors identified through this study. Ideally, similarities would validate this study. On the other hand, differences would provide additional motivational factors influencing women to advance in their careers.

For this study, the researcher decided to purposely sample women from land-grant institutions because the number of women in upper-level administrative positions at land-grant institutions was increasing at a slower rate than at other four-year public and private institutions. In addition, the culture at the land-grant institutions would be similar for each of the participants in the sample. Given this limitation, an interesting comparative research study is to broaden the sample to include women from other four-year non land-grant institutions and determine if the motivational factors discovered in this study would apply to women at other institutions. In addition, a research study investigating the reasons why women compared to men, do not stay as long at land-grant institutions, and why those who do stay, do not advance into administrative positions as easily may also provide additional insight into differing cultures and environments based on the type of institution.

Finally, the women in this study were not observed in their work setting. Since phone interviews were used to gather the information, the culture, environment, and how these women interacted with colleagues and subordinates were not observed. As mentioned, time was a limiting factor. However, a researcher could use a fairly new method called work shadowing (Czarniawska, 2007). Essentially, the researcher would be taking a detached approach to the observation method. By being a shadow, the researcher might be able to enter arenas that are not as easily accessible (President's staff meetings). Again, the researcher needs to seek approval with the person being shadowed

as well as the other administrative units. The downside to this method is that people may not act naturally and may not view what truly happens in specific meetings or discussions. By including observations, especially using the shadowing method, this study would become richer with data and be further verified through triangulation.

Conclusions

The women in this study provided a wealth of information about themselves, their personal lives and their professional careers. Participants shared confidential situations that impacted their workplace experience, while others conveyed major achievements. Their willingness to share their stories, successes, and challenges was commendable.

One of the objectives of this study was to embrace a more positive tone of research rather than one that analyzed topics perceived as negatively charged in determining causes for women not advancing as quickly in higher education. The objective was achieved in this study by identifying factors motivating women to advance in their careers rather than searching for additional barriers. This study conceded that barriers existed, but looked internally to what motivated individuals, which was a much more exciting and positive topic. As Marsh (1981) concluded, it is possible to improve morale and develop careers by first changing some attitudes about motivation and about career.

Using Bandura's model for this study assisted in developing parameters which narrowed the scope of the research and created a more manageable dataset. In addition, Bandura's model focused heavily on the individual and what the individual believes, does and experiences. This model provided a method of determining the individual motivating

factors, specifically factors influencing women's decisions to pursue upper-level administrative positions.

Overall, the women in this study continually searched for opportunities to gain additional knowledge, skills and experience. At the same time, they realized the importance of visibility and getting involved on campus, which provided a means to become known as one of the experts. Participants also recognized that becoming overcommitted was a downside to volunteering for committees, task forces, and additional responsibilities.

Furthermore, the women in this study had no regrets or would not change anything if given the opportunity. They made conscientious and rational decisions that fit their personalities, abilities, and values.

Finally, women in this study were self-fulfilled in their current positions and felt they achieved or exceeded their career goals. The women in this study have no desire, aspiration, or motivation to advance higher to the presidency. By some standards, these women would be considered stalled out by the nature of their jobs. But, for these participants, working closely with students, faculty, and staff and influencing their successes were much more important than power and prestige, which would take them away from what they valued. In essence, the definitions of success and reaching the top one's career are determined by each person and not by the statistics or woman's organizations believing women have not succeeded unless they have reached the top position at the institution. As Dr. Samuelson expressed,

“I'm not looking for the next job. I don't have to worry about me, and I'm not focused on building my resume. I'm not focused on building me. Instead I'm focused on building the university, and getting faculty awards and getting grants for them, and building their programs. I'm confident I can do that. And I enjoy

doing that. And I think to me it's not money, it's not title, it's not power. It's if I enjoy what I'm doing, and I'm having fun at it, and if it's advancing the university. If the purpose of my job is working out so that what I'm doing is adding value, then I'm very successful. I'm very pleased. And from department chair up it's always been about the other person, not about me. And can I grow the other people? Am I growing my faculty? Am I increasing the quality of students? Is the curriculum better? Is general education better? It's all about making other people successful, and if they're successful then I'm successful.”

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: TABLES

Table A-1: Number of full-time staff in higher education in 1991, 1995, 1997, 2001, and 2003 by primary occupation and gender at 4-Year Public Institutions

	1991		1993		1995		1997		2001		2003	
<i>Executive Administrative</i>	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Men	39,296	63.6%	36,332	62.8%	35,448	60.6%	35,196	58.8%	32,477	56.2%	36,411	53.6%
Women	22,491	36.4%	21,515	37.2%	23,082	39.4%	24,684	41.2%	25,273	43.8%	31,503	46.4%
Total	61,787		57,847		58,530		59,880		57,750		67,914	
<i>Other Professional</i>	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Men	89,129	40.6%	86,761	40.9%	93,292	41.1%	99,338	41.7%	124,961	40.7%	130,039	42.1%
Women	130,528	59.4%	125,392	59.1%	133,512	58.9%	138,988	58.3%	181,765	59.3%	179,111	57.9%
Total	219,657		212,153		226,804		238,326		306,726		309,150	

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, *Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System, "Fall Staff Survey" for 1991, 1993, 1995, 1997, 2001, 2003.*

Table A-2: Doctoral Degrees conferred by degree-granting institutions, by level of degree and sex of student: Selected years - 1995-96 through 2013-14

Year	Total	Males		Females	
		N	%	N	%
1995-96	44,652	26,841	60.1%	17,811	39.9%
1996-97	45,876	27,146	59.2%	18,730	40.8%
1997-98	46,010	26,664	58.0%	19,346	42.0%
1998-99	44,077	25,146	57.1%	18,931	42.9%
1999-2000	44,808	25,028	55.9%	19,780	44.1%
2000-01	44,904	24,728	55.1%	20,176	44.9%
2001-02	44,160	23,708	53.7%	20,452	46.3%
2002-03	46,024	24,341	52.9%	21,683	47.1%
2003-04	48,378	25,323	52.3%	23,055	47.7%
2004-05 ¹	47,200	24,600	52.1%	22,600	47.9%
2005-06 ¹	48,500	25,100	51.8%	23,300	48.0%
2006-07 ¹	49,500	25,600	51.7%	24,000	48.5%
2007-08 ¹	50,200	25,700	51.2%	24,400	48.6%
2008-09 ¹	50,600	25,800	51.0%	24,800	49.0%
2009-10 ¹	51,100	25,900	50.7%	25,200	49.3%
2010-11 ¹	51,800	26,100	50.4%	25,700	49.6%
2011-12 ¹	52,700	26,400	50.1%	26,200	49.7%
2012-13 ¹	53,800	26,900	50.0%	26,900	50.0%
2013-014 ¹	54,900	27,300	49.7%	27,600	50.3%

¹Projected.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, *Projections of Education Statistics to 2014; 1986-87 through 2003-04 Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System, "Completions Survey" (IPEDS-C:87-99)*.

(This table was prepared July 2005.)

Table A-3: Number of full-time staff in higher education in 1991, 1995, 1997, and 2001 by executive administrative and gender at 4-Year Public Institutions and Land-Grant Institutions

	1991		1997		2001	
<i>4-Year Public Institutions</i>	N	%	N	%	N	%
Men	39,296	63.6%	35,196	58.8%	32,477	56.2%
Women	22,491	36.4%	24,684	41.2%	25,273	43.8%
Total	61,787		59,880		57,750	
<i>Land-Grant Institutions</i>	N	%	N	%	N	%
Men	10,433	67.5%	9,196	62.5%	7,406	62.0%
Women	5,022	32.5%	5,511	37.5%	4,531	38.0%
Total	15,455		14,707		11,937	

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, *Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System, "Fall Staff Survey" for 1991, 1993, 1995, 1997, 2001, 2003.*

Table A-4: Number of women chief executives offices at institutions for selected years from 1975 to 1995

Institution Type	1975	1984	1992	1995
Private	132	182	184	237
4-Year	98	134	154	199
2-Year	34	48	30	38
Public	16	104	164	216
4-Year	5	32	58	78
2-Year	11	72	106	138
Total Women CEOs	148	286	348	453
Total Number of Institutions	2,500	2,800	3,000	2,903
Percentage of Women CEOs	5.9%	10.2%	11.6%	15.6%

Source: Touchton & Ingram, 1995

Table A-5: Study Participants and Demographics

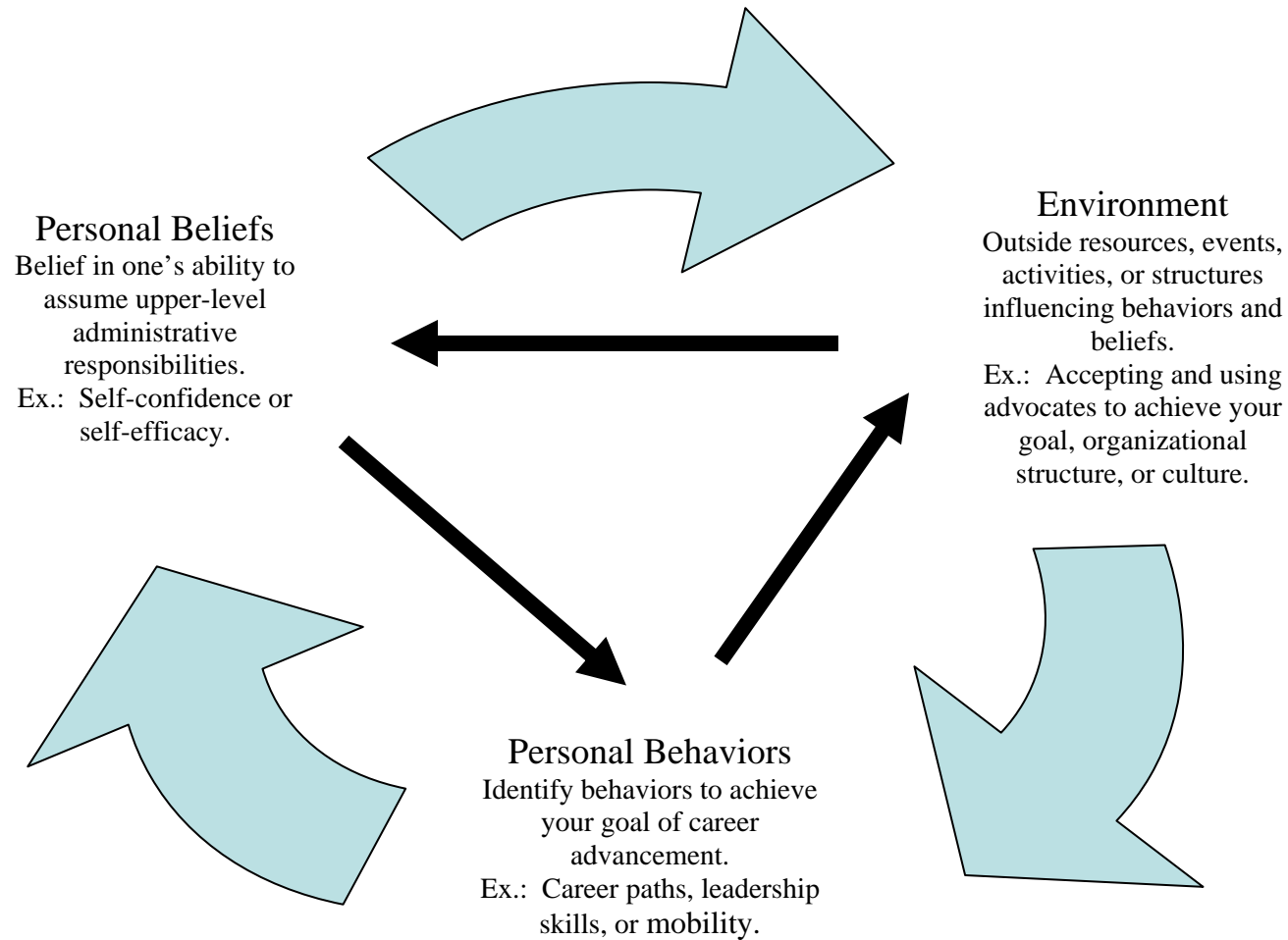
Alias Name	Alias Name of Institution	Institutional Demographics (Based on Current Employed Institution)					Personal Demographics			
		US Location	Current Position	First Woman to hold position at Institution (Y/N)	Reports To:	# of Women in Upper-level	Years in Position	Tenure Status	Highest Degree	Mobil (Y/N)
Kathleen Anderson	University of Concretia	Midwest	Vice President for Institutional Effectiveness	Y	President - Male	2 out of 10	6	Non	PhD	N
Carol Butel	Salsberry State University	West	Vice President for University Relations	Y	President - Male (African American)	6 out of 13	7	Non	JD	N
Kelly Caldwell	Jackson State University	Southeast	Vice-President for Student Affairs	Y	President - Male	3 out of 12	3	Non	EdD	Y
Diane Clark	Marvel State University	South	Senior Vice President and Provost	Y	President - Male	2 out of 9	4	Tenured	PhD	Y
Ashley Colter	University of Concretia	Midwest	Vice President for Student Affairs	Y	Provost - Male	2 out of 10	5	Non	EdD	Y

Christine Garrett	Jackson State University	Southeast	Provost	N	President - Male	3 out of 12	3	Tenured	PhD	Y
Evelyn Gutrell	University of Catterberry	Midwest	Vice Chancellor - Student Affairs	Y	Chancellor - Male	3 out of 9	6	Non	PhD	N
Amanda Hatfield	Elijahton University	East	Vice President for Development & University Relations	Y	President - Male	1 out of 13	7	Non	PhD	N
Julie Letterman	University of Bartelsville	Midwest	Senior Vice Chancellor for Academic Affairs	N	Chancellor - Male	2 out of 6	3	Tenured	PhD	Y
Kathy Marshall	Bethany State University	Midwest	Vice Provost for Academic Services & Technology; Dean of Continuing Education	Y	Provost - Male	4 out of 12	13	Tenured	PhD	N
Charlene Patton	Evergreen State University	East	Vice President for Student Affairs	Y	President - Male	2 out of 8	4	Non	PhD	Y

Mary Pratt	University of Johannesburg	South	Vice Chancellor for Student Affairs	Y	Chancellor - Male	1 out of 6	8.5	Non	PhD	Y
Loraine Roller	Sussex University	South	Senior Vice President and Chief Financial Officer	Y	President - Female	3 out of 12	3	Non	BBA	Y
Barbara Samuelson	University of Donovan	Southeast	Provost	Y	President - Male	4 out of 14	6	Tenured	PhD	N
Linda Sankey	Evergreen State University	East	Senior Vice President Research and Dean of Graduate School	Y	President - Male	2 out of 8	8	Tenured	PhD	N
Martha Schlinder	University of Bartelsville	Midwest	Vice Chancellor for Business & Finance	Y	Chancellor - Male	2 out of 6	7	Non	MBA	Y
Joan Shavley	University of Shenandoah	West	Vice President Student Services	N	President - Male	6 out of 15	9	Non	PhD	Y
Katrina Shilo	Marvel State University	South	VP Student Affairs	Y	Provost/Sr. Vice President - Female	2 out of 9	7	Non	PhD	Y

APPENDIX B: FIGURE B1 - Bandura's Model

Bandura's Theory of Reciprocal Determination Applied to Woman Leaders in Higher Education



APPENDIX C: Participant Invitation Letter

Date

Name

Title

Institution

Address

Dear

I am writing to invite you to participate in a study of upper-level women administrators that I am conducting for my doctoral dissertation at Kansas State University. The focus of my study is aimed at women who are currently employed at a land-grant institution and who are also employed within the upper-level administrative branch. The upper-level positions would include the president/chancellor, provost/chief academic officer, vice-president for finance/administration, and vice-president for student affairs. To capture the critical decisions and behaviors encountered by women in upper-level administrative positions, this study focuses on women who are considered successful in their careers. Essentially, the study includes women who have retained an upper-level administrative position for at least three years.

For this study, I am most interested in the motivational factors that influenced a woman's decision to pursue an upper-level administrative position. The motivational factors to be explored are: self-efficacy, career goals/paths, mobility, leadership skills, organizational structure, culture, and mentoring. However, this study is not limited to this list of items. Other factors will be allowed to emerge and be explored, as well.

The study is qualitative in nature and therefore involves a personal interview focusing on your perceptions and experiences. Depending upon time and travel constraints, the interview may either be conducted face-to-face or via telephone. The length of the interview will be approximately 90 to 120 minutes. If necessary, I will make additional telephone interviews to complete the data collection.

If you are willing to participate, please complete the enclosed short questionnaire and return the documents in the enclosed self-addressed stamped envelop no later than {date}.

Thank you for your time and consideration of participating in this important investigation. It is my sincere hope that you will participate in this study as your insights and experiences will assist in the development of programs and initiatives to help advance the careers of women administrators in higher education. A more detailed overview of the study is enclosed for your information. I look forward to hearing from you.

Sincerely,

Kelline Sue Cox
Doctoral Candidate
Kansas State University

Enclosures

APPENDIX D: Intent to Participate Form

Identification and Background Information
Study of Upper-Level Administrators at Land-Grant Universities

The following questions ask general background questions that will be used to confirm that you meet the criteria for participation in this study. Please mail the completed form back to me in the enclosed postage-paid envelope by {date}.

1. Name: _____
2. Institution: _____
3. Position Title: _____
4. Campus Telephone Number: _____
5. Email address: _____
6. Are you the first woman to hold this position at your institution?
Yes ____ No ____ Don't Know ____
7. How long have you been employed in your current position?
____ year(s)
8. What is your academic rank?
____ Professor ____ Assistant Professor ____ No
Academic Rank
____ Associate Professor ____ Instructor
9. What is your tenure status?
____ Tenured ____ Earning Tenure ____ Non-Tenured
10. If you have been employed less than three years at your current institution, have you been employed at another higher education institution?
Yes ____ No ____ (skip to question 15)
11. Was this institution considered a land-grant institution?
Yes ____ No ____
12. Please provide the name of the institution:

13. What position did you hold at your prior institution:
____ President/Chancellor
____ Provost/Chief Academic Officer
____ Vice-President of Finance/Administration
____ Vice-President of Student Affairs
____ Other: _____

14. How long were you employed in the position marked above?

____ year(s)

15. What is the best method to contact you?

____ Telephone

____ Email

____ Postal

16. If you meet the sample criteria, which interview format would you prefer?

____ Telephone

____ Webcast (teleconference)

____ Face-to-face, on-site

17. Which month or months are you available for either an on-site interview or a telephone interview? (check all that apply)

____ June

____ July

____ Other _____

APPENDIX E: Prospectus

3/25/2007

Because of the glacial pace of change in the advancement of women to upper-level administrative positions, the low percentage of women in these positions has been perpetuated by setting subtle limitations on other women's perceptions of what is possible and thus, what is the overall reward or value of striving to achieve career goals.

Furthermore, research has identified barriers and documented the external forces inhibiting a woman's ability to move upward in her career, but has made a subtle impact on the number of women advancing to the upper-level administrative branch. Therefore, the focus of this study explores the motivational factors that influence women's decision to pursue upper-level higher education administrative positions. By looking through a different lens and focusing on women's motivation and success, this study provides an opportunity for women aspiring to advance in their careers to learn and benefit from what is discovered about the career progression and experiences of women who were successful in advancing to the upper-level administrative branch. Presently, there are no studies that specifically connect self-efficacy, personal behaviors, and environmental cues to the career advancement of women.

This is a qualitative multi-case study anchored in real life situations. This approach results in a rich and holistic account of a woman's experiences and personal behaviors in their career advancement in higher education. The accounts of the participants in this study will be kept anonymous. No names, states, or regions will be associated with any of the reported data. For purposes of data collection and analysis, a number of pseudonyms will be used to protect the identity of the participants.

Data will be collected through in-depth, semi-structured, individual interviews and pertinent documents related to each woman's career advancement. The interviews will be tape-recorded so that it can be transcribed for purposes of analysis. Data will be analyzed as they are being collected. Inductive analysis will be employed to identify themes that emerge from the data. Credibility and consistency of the data will be ensured through a variety of means, including in-depth, detailed, rich, thick descriptions of the woman's perspectives and experiences. The study will provide for triangulation of the data through interviews, questionnaires, and document analysis (vitas and institutional materials). Peer examination and member checks will be employed to provide confirmation of the reasonableness of themes.

The information gathered in the interview is only to be used for the purposes of this research. In addition, the data collection sheets, vitas, specific institutional information, logs with research codes, tape recordings and transcripts will be kept in a secure place for two years after the study and then destroyed.

Procedures

The participants will be asked to do the following:

- Consider being a participant in this important study
- Complete the short questionnaire
- Read the Prospectus
- Submit a vita and organizational chart from her respective higher education institution
- Sign the Informed Consent Form

The Interview:

- Participate in a taped face-to-face, webcast or telephone interview answering questions regarding the motivational factors that influenced the participant's decision to advance to an upper-level administrative position. The questions are centered on self-efficacy, personal behaviors, and environmental factors.
- The interviews conducted are approximately 1 ½ to 2 hours. If this is not plausible, the participant may elect to several short webcast or telephone interviews.
- Participants will be asked if the researcher may possibly call back one time for purposes of clarification of the responses only.

Data Analysis:

- The interviews will be transcribed either by the researcher or a hired transcriber.
- The interview transcript will be read and coded by the researcher and will be overseen by the major professor.
- The participant's name and research code will be kept in a log and the log along with the data collection sheets, transcriptions, and tape recordings will be maintained by the researcher.
- The participant's identity, that of her institution, and the identities of those mentioned in the interview will be kept strictly anonymous.
- If the participant agrees, the researcher will provide a transcript of the interview to the participant to review for accuracy. Peer examination will also be employed to ensure credibility and accuracy.

Participation and Withdrawal:

Participation in this study is completely voluntary and the participant has the right to terminate her involvement at any time, for any reason. The participant may also refuse to answer any questions she does not want to answer and still remain in the study.

Identification of Investigators:

If the participant has questions or concerns about the research, she may contact:

Researcher: Kelline Sue Cox
785.532.2118 or email: kellicox@ksu.edu

Faculty Sponsor: Dr. Trudy Salsberry
785.532.7801 or email: tas@ksu.edu

IRB Chair: Dr. Rick Scheidt, IRB Chairman
785-532-3224.or email rscheidt@ksu.edu

APPENDIX F: Confirmation Letter

Date

Name

Title

Institution

Address

Dear

Thank you for responding to the invitation to participate in my doctoral dissertation study. For this study, you have been selected as one of the fifteen women to be interviewed because you met all the sampling criteria (a woman, employed in upper-level administrative position for three years or more, and currently employed at a land-grant institution).

The next step in the process is for you to provide your vita and institution's organizational chart. On the organizational chart, it would be helpful if it included whether the position was held by a male or female. Names of the incumbents are not necessary. Please send *{attach these documents to a reply email}* in the enclosed self-addressed stamped envelop.

Since you indicated the best method to contact was *{phone, email postal}*, I will call *{send}* you *{an email, letter}* to make arrangements for a *{face-to-face, webcast, phone}* interview. I hope to schedule this interview for *{month of}*.

Since I will have the advantage of knowing something about you from your completed questionnaire and vita, I am enclosing a copy of my vita for you to review prior to our meeting *{phone conversation}*. In addition, I have enclosed a list of the interview questions for you to review and the Informed Consent form. I will request that we both sign the form prior to the beginning of the interview *{I will ask that the form be signed and returned in the enclosed envelope two weeks prior to conducting the phone interview}*.

Again, I appreciate your willingness to participate in this important study. I look forward to having a conversation about your experiences and perceptions regarding the motivational factors that influenced your decision to advance in your career within the higher education upper-level administration.

Sincerely,

Kelline Sue Cox
Doctoral Candidate
Kansas State University

Enclosures

APPENDIX G: Informed Consent Form

My name is Kelline Cox and I am conducting a research study in which I am asking you to be a participant. The purpose of the study is to explore the motivational factors influencing women’s decision to pursue an upper-level administrative position at a higher education institution. This study will use Bandura’s model of reciprocal determination in which three components of motivation will be examined, specifically, self-efficacy, personal behaviors, and environmental factors. The interview data will assist me in developing this study and in pursuing my doctoral degree.

As a participant in this study you will be asked to participate in a 90 to 120 minute interview regarding your perceptions and experiences. This type of research poses minimal risk to you as a participant. Furthermore, if you are uncomfortable with any question, you may decline to answer and still remain in the study. The interview will be audiotaped and later transcribed for further analysis. Data gathered during this process will only be available to me as the researcher. The information gathered in this interview is only to be used for the purposes of this research. Furthermore, if you agree, I will provide you with a transcript of your interview to review for accuracy.

Quotations from the interview may be used in my study and/or published works, but the participant’s identity, that of your institution, and the identities of those mentioned in the interview will be kept strictly confidential. Participants name and assigned research code will be kept in a log. The log and all the research materials, including the participant’s vita and specific institutional information, and the tape recordings will be kept in a secured place by the researcher and will be destroyed within three years after the study’s completion.

Participants will be asked if they would like to receive a copy of the findings and conclusion of the study. An added benefit to the participants is that she will have contributed to a body of knowledge in regard to motivation as it relates to women’s decisions to advance in their careers and the pursuit of the doctorate.

Your participation in the interview is completely voluntary and you have the right to terminate your involvement at anytime. Furthermore, if you have any questions regarding the use of human subjects you may call Dr. Rick Scheidt, IRB Chairman, 203 Fairchild, KSU, Manhattan, KS 66506, 785-532-3224.

I understand the procedures described above. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction, and I consent to participate in the aspects of this study as stated in the Informed Consent Form.

(Signature of Interviewee)

(Date)

(Printed Name of Interviewee)

(Signature of Interviewer)

APPENDIX H: Interview Protocol

The researcher will ask each participant to respond to the following open ended questions as thoughtfully and completely as possible. The researcher may need to rephrase or ask additional questions if the participant needs clarification or more complete details. The open-ended questions are designed to allow for adaptation to information which has not been anticipated by the interviewer. In addition, the interviewer will allow ample time for participants to respond completely to the questions without interruptions. In some situations, participants may be under a time constraint, which may result in a follow-up interview to thoroughly capture the responses for all the questions.

Interview Questions:

In the last 30 years, we have seen a steady increase of women enrolling as students in higher education, becoming faculty members in higher education, and even moving into higher education administration positions. However, the progression of women entering the upper-level administrative positions (president, provost/chief academic officer, or vice-president) has been relatively slow. Women seem to be satisfied to reach the mid-level or support staff positions (directors, associate provosts, associate vice-presidents), and do not have a desire to progress to the next level. Therefore, the focus of this study is to explore the motivational factors that influenced a woman's decision to pursue upper-level administrative positions. The interview questions are separated into five sections.

General overview:

1. What interested you in an upper-level administrative position in higher education administration?
2. What attributes, besides the level of education, are required for your current position?

Self-Efficacy

3. How do you define success as it relates to your career?
4. How confident are you in your ability to succeed in everyday work tasks?
5. In what ways have you been able to build on your self-confidence?
6. Provide an example of when you have been successful in your job? How has that affected you?
7. What is the greatest challenge (risk) you have taken in your career and what was the outcome?

Personal Behaviors

8. Prior to this position, what were your career goals? What are your career goals now?
9. What were the strategies used to obtain your current position? In other words, when you applied for your current position, was it a result of a conscious, deliberate decision or as a result of unexpected opportunities (such as an interim position)?
10. Provide an example of when you have not been successful in your pursuit of an upper-level position. How did you respond?
11. What trade-offs or compromises have you made to meet your career goals?
12. Considering your career history, if you could have done anything differently, what would that be?
13. In your opinion, what are the advantages and disadvantages between moving within an institution and moving from one institution to the other for women to advance in their careers?
14. Describe the leadership style needed for your current position. To be successful in this position, how important is having or adjusting to this particular style of leadership?

Environmental Factors

15. How would you characterize the culture at {current institution} in accepting women into positions within the upper-level administrative branch?
16. How do the current institutional structures and policies support your success?
17. Please describe a person or network of people who have provided you encouragement, support, or feedback in your career advancement?
18. Has your support system increased or decreased as you have assumed more responsible positions? Why do you think it has changed?
19. Provide examples of women who you consider to be successful in upper-level administration at your institution or other institutions and explain why you consider them successful. What impact, if any, do you think this has or would have on the perception of women advancing to upper-level positions?

Overall

20. Of the areas discussed in this interview, what has contributed most to your decision to advance to an upper-level administrative position in higher education or was it a combination of several factors? Please explain.
21. What advice or suggestions would you provide to women who are in the mid-level position and might consider advancing to an upper-level position?
22. What other areas would you like to add that I have not covered?

Thank you for participating in this interview. Your responses to these interviews will be kept confidential and will not be connected to you. Also, if necessary, would you be available and comfortable for a potential follow-up interview?

APPENDIX I: Self-Efficacy Definitions and Codes

Self-efficacy is the belief that one can achieve, succeed, and be effective. Self-efficacy is defined as the belief that people have in the ability to exercise control over events that affect their lives (Bandura, 1995). Among the mechanisms of human agency none is more central or pervasive than beliefs of personal efficacy. Whatever other factors serve as guides and motivators, they are rooted in the core belief that one has the power to produce desired effects by one's actions, otherwise one has little incentive to act or to persevere in the face of difficulties (Bandura, 2003). Performance experiences (success and failure) are the most powerful sources of self-efficacy information (Bandura, 1977).

- A. Confidence – feeling of assurance or certainty.
 - a. Reflection – examining, reviewing, scrutinize oneself in relation to confidence level
 - 1) Internal belief - compare to others, evaluate self
 - 2) skill driven – what skills attribute to confidence - competence, credentials, abilities
 - 3) condition – situations or events that provide confidence
 - 4) imposter phenomenon – fear that people are going to find out that the man or woman is not as smart as they think they are
 - b. Building – ways, methods, or items which increase confidence.
 - 1) experiences/challenges – through different types of experiences or challenges, one's confidence is increased
 - 2) external factors – accomplishments, rewards, feedback contribute to one's increased confidence
 - 3) internal factors – emotion, hardship, “I can do it” attitude plays a role to increase confidence, looking to others vs. self
 - 4) consequences – events, circumstances, situations happen because of confidence
 - 5) networking - learning from others, which provided opportunities to increase confidence.
- A. Success – achievement of something desired, planned, or attempted.
 - a. Definition – description of success, meaning of success
 - 1) making a difference
 - 2) solving problems or resolving issues
 - 3) people - assist and respect, build relationships
 - 4) achievement – reaching a goal, accomplishing a task, promotion
 - 5) contentment - have fun and be happy in the position
 - b. Examples/Experiences of success
 - 1) responsibilities - committee chair, project manager, fund raising campaign
 - 2) change - new position, processes, new boss, crisis management
 - 3) people – hiring, advising, supporting, rewards, working with difficult people
 - 4) internal factors – emotion, feelings of happiness, joy, anxiety, sadness
- C. Challenge – events or experiences that require full use of one's abilities, energy, and/or resources.
 - 1) people – working with different types of people, dealing with personnel issues
 - 2) codes of conduct – discriminatory, ethical, political

- 3) change – within jobs, between jobs, policies, teaching of courses, programs
- 4) health – dealing with health issues or disabilities
- 5) internal factors – emotion, feelings, sacrifices

APPENDIX J: Personal Behavior Definitions and Codes

Personal behavior is the actions or reactions of persons under specified circumstances. The main concepts of social cognitive theory explain human behavior as a dynamic and correlated interaction between the person and the environment. Bandura noted that persons acquire internal codes of behavior that they may or may not act upon later. Behavior is largely regulated through cognitive processes. Bandura identified three types of behavior reinforcements. Direct reinforcement would be directly experienced by the learner. Vicarious reinforcement would be observed consequences of the behavior of the model. Self reinforcement would be feelings of satisfaction or displeasure for the behavior gauged by personal performance standards (Bandura, 1986).

1. Career Path - can be defined as the preparation for, choice of, entry into, and adjustment to work through the life span (Super, 1990). A career path to senior position in higher education can best be described as moving up in positions that are clearly defined and tightly ordered in a sequence of increasing responsibility (Moore, 1984a; Twombly, 1990).
 - a. Decision to enter higher education - Studies of women leaders indicate that they tend to make late career decisions (Mark, 1986) by entering the academic arena late in their educational preparation and not attending graduate school immediately upon completing the bachelor's degree (Christiansen, et al., 1989; Slimmer, 1984).
 1. serendipitous – by accident, fortuitous, unplanned.
 2. performance – ability, self-motivated, increased responsibilities
 3. extrinsic – money, need to work, outside influences, time
 4. intrinsic – individual interest, like to work in higher education, taking charge, policy maker, change maker
 - b. Goals – Goals guide behavior. Essentially, women who aspire to advance into positions of leadership in higher education should actively plan and develop multi-dimensional career paths. Critical career pathing should identify both long and short range plans which address the needs of the total individual, not solely her job-related efforts. These plans should specify goals and objectives that address the following areas: occupational and organizational development and advancement; social skill development; and personal or recreational enhancement (LeBlanc, 1993).
 - 1) *Pre-goal setting* – goals set prior to entering higher education
 - a. aspirations/dreams - to be college president, college VP, Dean of Students
 - b. performance - do the best
 - c. short term goals – get a job, complete degree, continue in current role
 - d. no goals set
 - 2) *Post-goal setting* – future goals set
 - a. status quo – stay in current position
 - b. aspiration – to be president or other career goals
 - c. contentment – happy in what I am doing
 - d. pursue new projects
 - e. no long term career goals - retirement
 - c. Strategies for interviews and acquiring the position - Preparation included having the necessary credentials, keeping current, and well-read. Women

need to take the initiative and volunteer for jobs that would increase their visibility and further develop leadership skills and abilities (Gupton & Slick, 1996).

1. preparation – research, inquiry, investigate, skills needed, degree needed, outside assistance from mentors or friends
 2. good fit – similar values, good work environment, ability to use skills
 3. opportunities – advance and improve the institution, be successful
 4. pursued – search committees come to the person to apply
- d. Reaction for not getting the position - A person will evaluate the outcome (either success or failure), attribute this outcome to a particular cause, elicit an emotional reaction, and then respond in a particular way (Weiner 1985).
- 1) *Emotion felt*
 - a. frustrated/angry/betrayed
 - b. disappointed/devastated
 - c. self-doubt/deflated
 - 2) *Overcome the failure*
 - a. feedback – talk to mentors, interviewers or colleagues, encouragement
 - b. healing factors – internally - regain confidence, to know that one can not change the results, and to try again
 - c. knowledge – information to know what to do next time, improve, good fit (aligns with one’s values and vision), and what may be expected
2. Mobility – Women are more likely to move within the institution, whereas men are more likely to be recruited from outside the institution (Moore & Sagaria, 1982; Sagaria, 1988). However, for top positions within an institution, women have tended to build their careers by moving between institutions (Johnsrud, 1991; Moore, 1983; Sagaria, 1988).
- a. *Advantage to Move* - Women should be willing to relocate. Being place-bound limited many women from upward mobility (Gupton & Slick, 1996).
 1. promotion and salary – easier upward mobility, reduce salary compression.
 2. external experience – new ideas and insights, different methods and processes, broader knowledge to make decisions, become the change agent, work with a variety of people.
 3. perceptions – people see the person in a new role rather than in a past role, earn respect for capabilities and skills.
 4. growth – professional and personal, gain new experiences, increased knowledge, become a better administrator, capacity to start over, security knowing one’s ability to work in different environments, change in relationships.
 - b. *Advantage to Stay* - Miner and Estler (1985) identified evolved responsibility or accrual mobility as an alternative process of position creation in which an employee first accrues responsibility, skills, or knowledge in a current position that exceeds normal growth in that position.
 1. institution or organization – history, knowledge, built relationships or connectivity, hire people with similar values, help more people.
 2. family obligations and employment for spouse.

3. reputation – earned credibility and trust, can get the work done, stability, accountability.
 4. continued growth – increased responsibilities, promotions, leadership opportunities, making a difference, be a part of the change.
3. Leadership Skills - For women, they need to gain self-confidence and understand that they can self-consciously establish a leadership tone just as men so naturally do. Basically, the people one serves, works with, and works for are the beginning and end of managing (Harter, 1993).
- 1) Current – leadership skills used either in a prior position or in the position they currently hold.
 - a. collaborative – inclusiveness, involve everyone, ask opinions, listen; may include participative, team member, nurturing relationships
 - b. assertive – take charge, make the decision, problem solver, may ask for suggestions, process oriented, change agent
 - c. empowerment – provide power to others, encouragement, instruction (learning environment), rewarded for organizationally important rather than traditional tasks, increased responsibilities, facilitatory
 - d. attributes - credibility, respect, and trust, patience, humor
 - 2) Ideal – leadership skills that are the best to use but may or may not be used in current position.
 - a. visionary – have a direction as to where the university should be going, innovative ideas
 - b. decision maker – communicate decision, be decisive
 - c. people – encourage staff development, collaborate, empowering.
 - d. expectations – knowledge about the university, expertise in various areas, types of leadership skills used and when to use them,
 - e. feminine style – interpersonal, relationship oriented, democratic, more efficient, integrity, compassion, listening, know limitations, be transparent, do things openly, nurturing, helping others, supportive.
4. Skills – behavioral capabilities are the knowledge, skill and attributes needed to perform a given behavior which in turn promote mastery learning through skills training.
- 1) Performance – skills in specific areas to exceed expectations in the position
 - a. communication
 - b. people skills
 - c. competence, effectiveness and persuasiveness
 - d. researcher, faculty member, and write more publications
 - 2) Knowledge – information required or suggested for the position
 - a. institution – understand the culture, organization, structure
 - b. education – degree or abilities within the field
 - c. professional development - learn or train in specific areas of expertise
 - d. experiences - in the field, with a particular topic, area, or unit
 - 3) Attitudinal – beliefs, values or commitment in people, position, or the system.
 - a. values – personal, other people’s ideas, need for other people’s expertise
 - b. vision – direction of the institution, strategic planning, intuition, insight

- c. people – working with different types, respect, tolerance, good references
 - d. individual attributes – be who one wants the faculty or staff to be like, reduce ego, increase credibility, trust, work ethic, wisdom, passion for work
- 5. Rewards or Consequences – mediate behavior and are used to form expectations of behavioral outcomes.
 - 1. work related – spending more time at work, risks are taken, pursued different or other degrees, compromises – administration vs. research or teaching, take advantage of opportunities.
 - 2. family/personal – having children, time with spouse and children, choices and balance between work and family
 - 3. health – lack of good eating habits, exercise, rest, relaxation, and personal vacation, personal time. As more women enter the executive levels either in higher education or business, several health risks or issues have been raised by women, whereby in the past health have been focused on men.
 - 4. no changes – see every experience and challenge as positive and something to build upon

APPENDIX K: Environmental Factors Definitions and Codes

Environment factors, by definition, are external to the individual and are not as easily changed, altered, or implemented, but provides opportunities and social support.

Environment refers to the factors that can affect a person's behavior. Bandura advocated the concept of observational learning and vicarious reinforcement. Bandura described three types of modeling stimuli: (1) live (family, teachers, colleagues, mentors, etc.), (2) symbolic or pictorial representation of behavior, and (3) verbal instructions or non-performance models (Bandura, 1986).

- A. Organization Structure - higher education organizations may shape administrative advancement opportunity by determining the distribution of positions and rewards as well as by determining the policies that govern promotional decisions (Johnsrud, 1991).
 - 1) advocate for women – women in many administrative levels, active commission on the status of women, supportive, give power
 - 2) old boy's club - solitarians, competitors, no support for women; marginal positions for women
 - 3) hierarchical - top down structure
 - 4) reports directly to president
- B. Culture - Culture of an institution has an interactive effect, along with traits and behaviors that produces experiences which may differ for groups of women compared to groups of men. How good a fit is there between the goals, values, style and personality of the manager and the goals, values, style, and culture of the institution (Mark, 1986).
 - 1) receptive towards women in upper-level administration
 - 2) non-receptive of women in upper-level administration or may accept unconsciously
 - 3) president/CEO – sets the tone, culture, environment
 - 4) change – transformation is in progress
 - 5) impression - good fit, good relationships among the top administrators, values the person, understand the units and their needs, awkwardness, tougher for women in some disciplines or parts of the university
- C. Mentoring - Women in leadership and administrative positions are most likely to make progress when they work through networks and coalitions of women, and when groups of men and women share in their priorities (Johnson, 1993).
 - 1) Career Functions - Included under this umbrella are sponsorship, coaching, protection, exposure and visibility, and challenging work assignments (Kram, 1983). The focus of these mentors is the woman's career and being successful.
 - 1. sponsorship
 - 2. coaching
 - 3. visibility and challenging work assignments or committees
 - 2) Psychosocial benefits - protégés enjoyed encouragement, advice and feedback, as well as an enhanced sense of competence, effectiveness, and clarity of identity (Kram, 1983). The focus of these mentors is the woman's internal belief and self-esteem.
 - 1. encouragement and support
 - 2. feedback
 - 3. networks

- 3) Women's own demise – women are not as helpful to other women.
- 4) Advice - The advice mentioned by most women educational administrators to make a difference within the current culture was to be prepared. Preparation included having the necessary credentials, keeping current, and well-read. Women need to take the initiative and volunteer for jobs that would increase their visibility and further develop leadership skills and abilities (Gupton & Slick, 1996). To survive in the current academic culture, responding chief academic officers (CAO) offered personal advice. First, make certain one can deal with conflict and prosper under adversity, not taking personally the complaints and criticisms of faculty, students, and staff who just need to vent their frustrations. Secondly, one needs to develop a tough skin, do not panic, and learn to juggle, finding ways to handle stress so as not to compromise one's own physical or mental health (Walton & McDade, 2001).
 1. Learn - need to learn as much as one can and understand the environment, know when to leave.
 2. Values – evaluate values and how these values match where one works
 3. Visibility – to be successful, women need to be visible, active on campus, volunteer for committees and task forces. Women need to be known for what they can contribute and their expertise in specific areas.
 4. People support – very important to have a network of people.
 5. Build skills – need to build a skill set that is respected, education (earn doctorate)
 6. Steps – there are certain steps in the move to upper-level administration. Need to know these steps and develop a plan to achieve each step.
- 5) Change in support System with Movement to Upper-level
 1. becomes smaller or changes
 2. lonelier
 3. moves outside the institution
 4. professional support system increases
 5. personal support system decreases
- 6) Role Models - Women must see the mentor as a role model and develop leadership skills under the auspices of the mentor (Vaughn & Klaric, 1990). In addition, a woman moving up the administrative ladder needs to find role models of either gender. Women need supporters (Glass, 1999). Overall, the presence of role models greatly enhances women's career development (Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987; Bolton, 1980; Douvan, 1976; Mitchell & Krumboltz, 1984, 1990).
 1. Personal Traits
 - a. respect earned by others and respect and appreciation given to others
 - b. attributes – personal - knowledge, communication and interpersonal skills, common sense, caring, giving, helpful, positive attitude, strong, tough, courageous, approachable, confident

- c. attributes - job related – efficient, consistent, effective, flexible, accomplish goals, resourceful, problem solver, sense of community, manage situations, professionalism, leave position when appropriate, position related traits
 - d. presence - national and local, good people working for them
 - e. successful – to make the institution and others look good, provide opportunities for growth so others can do well
2. External Impression
- a. promote women, lower barriers, good work environment, good fit
 - b. self reflection - reality check
 - c. proximity - Lack of women role models or can't get close enough to interact with role models to know that they are really like
 - d. being oneself – do the unexpected, go against the norm (i.e., acting like a man), keep human values, enjoy the work