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THE MID-CAREER FEMALE MBA GRADUATE: AN ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN STAFF AND LINE MANAGERS

A THESIS
SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF THE GRADUATE SCHOOL
OF THE UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA
BY

JANICE LINDEN KALIN

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE OF
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

John L. Romano, Ph.D., Adviser

May, 1998

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

This is to certify that I have examined this copy of a doctoral thesis by

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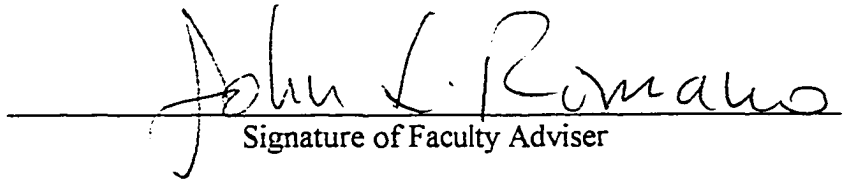
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I dedicate this book to the memory of my father, Leon Linden. He didn't live to see the end of this project, but he saw it's beginning. He understood why I was trying to climb this mountain and enjoyed watching the ascent.

Janice Linden Kalin (341 words)

Abstract

Differences between mid-career female MBA graduates employed in staff or line positions were examined. One goal of this study was to learn about reasons for the lack of women in upper management in US business organizations. A popular perception is that women in business do not have the necessary line experience to advance into top management positions. It is widely believed that mostly men are promoted into upper management because they have line experience, while women are not because they are primarily in staff positions. The literature suggests that many differences between female and male managers are attributed to sex, not the function of the position. This study advanced the literature by studying women only, without comparison to men.

A total of 614 questionnaires were sent to female MBA graduates from a large, mid-western university who graduated during the period 1979 through 1990. A total of 365 questionnaires were returned, a return rate of 59.5% Of these, 253 (line, n = 132 and staff, n = 121) met the study's criteria of working in business in a staff or line position. Self-employed women were not included. Questions such as management level, years in current employment, number of people supervised, age, and yearly income were answered by the participants Participants completed the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) and scales of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ): ability utilization, advancement, achievement, autonomy, authority, compensation,

responsibility, and overall career satisfaction. The women also answered open-ended questions about their career satisfactions and frustrations. Results showed that line women were significantly higher than staff women in management level, hours worked weekly, and number of people indirectly supervised. The line women were significantly higher on three MSQ scales: ability utilization, achievement, and responsibility. Overall career satisfaction was a significant factor in predicting life satisfaction for both groups. Generally, the women were satisfied with their careers and lives. The results suggest that women choosing a career in business need to consider the nature of the position, i.e., line or staff, and the implications of their choice regarding future advancement.

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

Women in the 1990s constitute more than half of the population in the United States and they comprise a greater portion of the work force. Between the years 1970 and 1996 the proportion of women working outside the home increased from 41% to 59%. (United States Bureau of the Census, 1997).

The above statistic indicates that women are an integral part of the work force in the United States. In proportion to their numbers, however, women are under-represented at the top decision-making levels in many occupations. This study examines one segment of working women: the career experiences and level of career and life satisfaction of mid-career female Masters of Business Administration (MBA) graduates in line and staff positions.

Business organizations in America reflect the general US trend in growth in female worker numbers, but at the executive level this trend is not apparent. The overall proportion of female managers in the US has grown over the years; from 4% in 1900, 14% in 1950, 26% in 1980 to 39% in 1990 (Gutek, 1993). However, in large companies (those with more than 100 employees), the picture is quite different. In 1979, in the nation's 1000 largest companies, only 1% of all managers were women, growing to 3% by 1990 (Newsweek, 1990). At the executive management level, 5% were female in 1990 (Catalyst Fact Sheet, 1995). Five years later, the proportion had not grown. The Glass Ceiling Commission (Report of the Federal Glass Ceiling

Commission, 1995) reported that women still represented only 3 to 5% of senior managers in major corporations, but comprised 37% of all employees and 17% of management in general. In fact, the Federal Contract Compliance Manual (US Department of Labor, 1991) projected that if the present rate of career progression were to continue, it would take another 475 years for women and men to be proportionally represented in top management.

Other surveys revealed equally low numbers. An examination of the number of directors and highest executives in 799 major companies in the US showed that men held 3993 of the directorships and executive positions, while 19 were held by women (Kilborn, 1990). Another survey (Business Week, 1990) investigated the gender of chief executive officers of the United States' 1000 largest public corporations ranked by market value. The survey found that 986 CEOs were male and 2 were female. In 1994, all but two of the CEOs of the Fortune 1000 were male (Wood, 1994).

Two studies (Catalyst, On the Line: Women's Career Advancement, 1992; Catalyst, Women in Corporate Leadership: Progress and Prospects, 1996) conducted by Catalyst, a non-profit research organization devoted to women in business, asked CEOs and human resource professionals what prevented women from advancing. A vast majority of the CEOs and the human resource professionals indicated that the lack of significant general management/line experience was the major barrier to advancement. The CEOs were referring to people in line positions. Employees in line positions usually have a lot of direct customer contact, generate revenue for the company and are highly visible. On the other hand, staff positions are positions within

the company that are supportive and advisory to the line organization. Staff positions are those such as accounting, human resources and personnel. Historically, men have comprised the greatest percentage of line positions and women, the greatest percentage of staff positions. It has been suggested that women choose the wrong career path if their goal is to move up the management hierarchy. They need to opt for line jobs in order to move up, as important promotions are usually made from line positions (Lear, 1994).

These data lead to many questions. Are women as qualified as men? Do they have the same career and work experiences as men? Are they socialized differently so as to discourage upward movement? Are women being overlooked for promotions? Are women satisfied at the middle levels of management? Do they aspire to hold higher positions? The coining of a phrase such as the "mommy track" (Schwartz, 1989), a suggestion that companies assign less demanding work to multiple role women until they are ready to re-enter the work force with full commitment, casts aspersions about a woman's commitment. Should one assume that a mother and spouse will not dedicate her "all" to her other role as worker?

One study (Valdez & Gutek, 1987) hypothesized that the women with greatest potential for conflict and overload (those who were wife, employee and mother) would report greater job dissatisfaction than women with less potential conflict in their lives. Their hypothesis was unsupported. Married women expressed the least amount of job dissatisfaction. Another study (Zanna, Crosby & Loewenstein, 1987) found that women who were married, childless and made a significantly larger amount of money

compared to other women in the study, but who compared themselves to men, were less satisfied with their jobs than women who used other women as reference groups. The number of roles did not appear to influence the women's level of satisfaction. Rather, it was the job itself, although what aspects of the job they found dissatisfying were not clarified.

Why are women not represented at the top more in proportion to their numbers in the work force? Could it be that they are not receiving the same education credentials as men? Harvard Business School accepted its first women into the MBA program in the 1960's (Adler, 1993). The numbers have been growing, with business schools graduating increasing numbers of women. In 1971, 3.9% of MBA graduates were female. By 1994, 36.5% of all MBA graduates in the United States were female (US Bureau of the Census, 1997). Clearly, women are being formally educated for career mobility.

Women have been found to lead as effectively as men, though differently (Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Eagly, Karau & Makhijani, 1995; Jacobs & McClelland, 1994; Rosener, 1990). Women tend to see themselves as a more interdependent part of a complex world, where they share and empower others. Upper managerial men view themselves as more independent, apart from others and within a hierarchical structure where they gain status through aggressiveness and power. Do women need to lead like men in order to move up?

Women's experiences are different from men's within the organizations in which they work. Could the differential at the top be accounted for by their

experiences? For example, compensation varies between men and women in comparable jobs. Studies show that after controlling for factors such as employment gaps, experience and work hours, women's income was 13% less than men's which represented more than $10,000 per year difference (Reskin & Ross, 1995; Schneer & Reitman, 1994). Also, women have been shown to not have the same amount of authority, when evaluated by number of people supervised. They supervise fewer people than do men in equivalent positions (Lyness & Thompson, 1997; Reskin & Ross, 1995).

Other studies have found that women are treated differently on the job. Many studies found that in order to be characterized as successful in the eyes of those (predominantly male) who make promotion decisions, women needed to take on the stereotypical characteristics of men, such as aggressiveness and competitiveness (Dodge, Gilroy & Fenzel, 1995; Hardesty & Jacobs, 1986; Heilman, 1995; Rosener, 1995). There has been speculation that women have been guided by men's expectations of certain roles for women and by the women themselves into the belief that women are generally not risk takers or competitive by nature; however promotions are usually made from positions characterized as requiring the greatest amount of risk and competitiveness (Catalyst, 1992; Hardesty & Jacobs, 1986; Rosener, 1995; Schwartz, 1989).

Significance of the Problem

The lack of women in upper management should be of concern to profit-making as well as non-profit organizations. Women make up more than half of the population and are being educated in greater proportions in business schools. Companies will limit themselves by not considering the entire field of candidates and not availing themselves of the larger talent base. Companies need to attract and retain high quality human resources to be competitive in the job market, regardless of gender (Burke, 1991; Hardesty & Jacobs, 1986; Rosener, 1995).

Schwartz (1992) viewed the larger proportion of women in society from a different perspective, noting that because of current lower fertility rates and therefore, future labor force shrinkage, men born after 1975 cannot possibly fill all the entry level jobs vacated by advancing baby boomers or the many jobs that are created by new businesses each year. She predicted that since half of all MBA graduates are going to be women, one can assume that half of the most sought after graduates, those at the top, are also going to be women. If organizations do not develop women more aggressively at lower management levels, Schwartz asserted, they will not have a significant number of qualified women in the upper echelons of organizations in the future. Bright and capable women may not be inclined to join a company where there are not already a number of women in senior management. Those companies might have to settle for second-tier women, as those at the top of their class may be more inclined to work for themselves, move to a more equality-oriented climate, or receive training from the organization and then leave (Bamford & Pendleton, 1997).

Businesses need the skills that women bring. According to several studies (e.g., Hardesty & Jacob, 1986; Rosener, 1995), in a growing global economy, qualities such as resourceful power (as opposed to reactive power), and interpersonal orientation and cooperation (versus competitiveness) are important characteristics to add to burgeoning work teams that are being emphasized in organizations. Attributes such as these create a working unit that is well-rounded, with talent to deal with myriad situations, thus fully utilizing and enhancing worker skills.

Purpose of the Study

A widely held assumption in business today is that "line experience" is the best preparation for promotion and advancement within an organization (Catalyst, 1992 & 1996; Lear, 1994; Levinson, 1996; Rosener, 1995; Schwartz, 1992). A survey completed by Catalyst (Women in Corporate Leadership, 1995), found CEOs to perceive that women's lack of general management/line experience was the primary reason for lack of advancement and the second reason was that women had not been in the pipeline long enough to move up the management ladder. Other studies (Lyness & Thompson, 1997; Reskin & Ross, 1995) similarly found that women's authority was significantly less than men's because men were either higher in the organizational chain of command or had more authority or they were men.

For this study, the following assumptions are noted, based on prevailing perceptions in the contemporary business world:

- Women have been socialized to avoid "risky" (e.g.. line) positions.

- Management prefers not to encourage or promote women to line jobs.
- A background of line experience is necessary in order to be promoted.
- Women have not had enough line experience and have not been in the pipeline long enough to find themselves in top positions in larger numbers.

The purpose of this study was to compare and examine MBA women graduates working in line and staff positions. Most previous studies compare female and male managers, but do not differentiate between line and staff roles. This study addresses differences, if any, in line and staff position women, the work experiences they have had, the personal lives they lead, and the satisfaction they derive (or do not derive) from their careers and their lives. The objective of this researcher is to contribute to the knowledge base about women in management by providing information about the women themselves, their experiences, and the impact of their choices on their careers. An underlying question is whether the women who have gone the route that men usually take, the line route, are actually holding higher positions and reaping the rewards of the position. Delving further, are the women, both line and staff, satisfied with the choices they have made?

The make-up of organizations has changed rapidly over the past twenty years. Forecasting future trends accurately will allow businesses to proactively plan for the changes they will encounter. In so doing, businesses are less likely to be caught off guard, potentially impacting future growth. Likewise, individuals must change to meet the demands of the organizations just as organizations must be open to meet the challenges of the changing work force. The enormous changes in the work force will

bring "both upheaval and opportunity for those involved in organizations" (Offermann & Gowing, 1990). I hope to add to the understanding of the change process by offering more information on the women who are experiencing and influencing change in management. Both groups, the organizations and the women, can then better plan for the future.

The research questions were:

1. Are there significant demographic differences in the personal and career lives of female MBA graduates who are in line and staff positions?

2. How satisfied are female MBA graduates in various aspects of their careers? Are there differences in career satisfaction between women in staff positions and those in line positions?

3. How satisfied are female MBA graduates with their lives in general? Are there differences in life satisfaction between women in staff positions and those in line positions?

4. Is there a relationship between career and life satisfaction for women in staff and line positions?

Hypotheses

The null hypotheses are:

Hypothesis 1: There are no significant differences between female MBA graduates employed in line and staff positions with respect to personal demographics of

(a) age, (b) marital status, (c) race, (d) number of children, (e) age of youngest child, (f) income of spouse/partner and (g) number of hours worked weekly by partner.

Hypothesis 2: There are no significant differences between female MBA graduates employed in line and staff positions with respect to the career demographics of (a) management level, (b) income, (c) hours worked weekly, (d) years in current position, (e) number of people supervised directly, and (f) number of people supervised indirectly.

Hypothesis 3: There are no significant differences between female MBA graduates employed in line and staff positions with respect to level of satisfaction as measured by the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) on (a) ability utilization, (b) achievement, (c) advancement, (d) authority, (e) compensation, (f) independence, (g) responsibility, and (h) general career satisfaction.

Hypothesis 4: There are no significant differences between female MBA graduates employed in line and staff positions with respect to overall life satisfaction as measured by the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS).

Hypothesis 5: Career satisfaction (as measured by the general career satisfaction scale on the MSQ) and nature of position, line or staff, do not predict life satisfaction as measured by the SWLS.

Definition of Terms

Organizations

Trade, market and business literature usually refer to Fortune 1000, Fortune 500 or Fortune 100 companies when referring to business organizations. The numbers are references to Fortune magazine's rating of non-government, US businesses according to their profits (e.g. If a company is in the Fortune 100, it indicates that it is among the 100 highest profit-making companies in the US). Sometimes, the literature refers to "large" companies, which can mean those with 100 to more than 1000 employees. The literature review for this research interchanged the terms "corporate America", the "corporate world", "US corporations" and "US businesses" and is more specific when possible.

Line Positions

These positions are considered to be central to the revenue generating focus of the organization. People in these jobs deal directly with the profit and loss of a company. They are positions involved in areas such as sales, marketing and manufacturing. The output from line positions is easily measurable and results are tangible. Proportionally, men occupy line positions in much greater numbers than do women. Line positions are jobs that frequently require risk taking and highly competitive behavior. Typically, a history of line experience is necessary for advancement within the line function of the organization (Catalyst, 1992 & 1996; Levinson, 1996; Rosener, 1995; Schwartz, 1992).

Management Level

These levels identify where, within the management hierarchy, an employee's position is located. The three most typically labeled management levels are top, middle and lower. Each organization may label its structure differently (Levinson, 1996; Rosener, 1995).

Mid-Career

For purposes of this study, a woman at mid-career is identified as having worked in her field from seven to fifteen years, could be as young as 35, but probably not much beyond 50, and has likely had at least one promotion (Levinson, 1987 & 1996; Schlossberg, Waters & Goodman, 1995; Schneer & Reitman, 1994).

Staff Positions

These positions are advisory in nature for the purpose of supporting people in line jobs. Employees in staff positions may be involved in areas such as public affairs, legal advising, accounting, finance and human personnel. Staff performance may not be easily measurable. Staff personnel do not typically deal directly with external customers or with the product. Women frequently make up a higher percentage of staff workers compared to men (Catalyst, 1992; Ohlott, Ruderman & McCauley, 1994; Rosener, 1995).

CHAPTER II

Review of Literature

This review of literature covers three broad areas pertinent to the current study. The first section reviews the evolution of women's career development theory. The second section concentrates on the experiences of women managers in US businesses today, comparing women to men and then women to themselves. The final section reviews literature on career satisfaction and life satisfaction relating to female managers.

Women's Career Development

It is important to examine the progress made in examining women's career development as a separate entity from that of men. Understanding women's career development gives insight to the state of women in management today. During World War II, women started to enter the workplace in record numbers, replacing men who were fighting overseas. After the war, women continued to work, while many people never became comfortable with the situation. Part of society believed that a woman's place was in the home, caring for the family. Even in contemporary society, married, working men are enhanced by a partner taking on the role of family manager, dealing with the children, household chores, meal preparation, and emotional support, while women working outside the home are hindered by marriage (Valdez & Gutek, 1987). Even as women have become responsible for half of the financial support in many households, they still retain the primary responsibility for maintaining home and family.

Women bearing and caring for children and running the home, despite media reports that men are participating more in the home, continue to constitute chief differences between male and female career development (Baruch, Biener, & Barnet, 1987; Fitzgerald, Fassinger, & Betz, 1995; Hochschild, 1990; Nevell & Super, 1986).

Super (1957) was one of the first theorists to recognize that women could not be categorized the same way as men when describing their life-career patterns. He saw women falling into seven mutually exclusive categories: (1) the stable homemaking pattern (women at home after marrying early in life), (2) the conventional career pattern (women who worked, but stopped permanently upon marriage), (3) the stable working pattern (never married and worked continuously throughout their lives), (4) the double-track career pattern (women who combined work and family continuously), (5) the interrupted career pattern (returning to work later in life, after raising children), (6) the unstable career pattern (irregularly moving in and out of the work place), and (7) the multiple-trial career pattern (an irregular work pattern, but essentially continuous work). Two studies (Harmon, 1967; Vetter, 1973) supported Super's categories. Each study found that approximately 60% of women had not worked outside the home after they were married. The women were either lifelong homemakers or worked until marriage, not having re-entered the paid work force.

Super's categories are still relevant today, but with dramatically different numbers representing the various categories. The double-track career is the best descriptor of women today, while a much smaller percentage of women stay home full time (Fitzgerald et al., 1995). The "traditional" family pattern of father working and

mother staying home has decreased from 43% in 1975 to 20% in 1994. In cases where both parents work outside the home, 35% of all families with children fit this description in 1975, while in 1994 it was 48%. The figures do not take into account single parent households with children (Costello & Krimgold, 1996). In the last thirty-five years, single women have remained employed at about the same rate, while the number of married women of working age has doubled in the work force (US Department of Labor Statistical Abstract, 1995).

While Super observed different work patterns of men and women, he was inadvertently acknowledging socialization in the US. The gender model of work (Feldberg & Glen, 1979) focused on the socialization process to explain differences in how men and women worked. The authors postulated that men are socialized to believe that their role in life is to build a career and be the main economic resource in the family. The women, conversely, are socialized to be supportive of men and handle the responsibilities of home and children. The theory continues that women are more concerned with love and marriage, circumstances that are incompatible with a career (Ahrons, 1976). A further assumption was that to succeed in the work place, a woman must take on the characteristics of the man in action and appearance.

Gottfredson (1981) suggested that individuals examine careers on the basis of three criteria: prestige of the occupation, sex type (masculinity and femininity) of the occupation, and the field of the work. Gottfredson hypothesized that the sex type of the job would be the last characteristic given up if an individual was forced to choose to make a compromise among the three criteria. Gottfredson's theory of career aspirations

gave other researchers a starting point for testing the criteria that have the most impact on career choice decisions.

In a study of Gottfredson's model, the hypothesis that the sex type of the job would be the last characteristic given up if an individual was forced to compromise between the three criteria in making a job decision went unsupported (Leung & Plake, 1990). Subjects had a tendency to give up sex typing when given a choice between prestige and same gender occupation choice. Also, female participants were much more willing to consider nontraditional occupations and were more amenable to change than men. The researchers acknowledge that a limitation to the generalizability of the study was that data were collected in a college setting. Outside a collegiate setting, the outcome may be very different in that people would make a decision based on factors other than prestige and gender type of job.

Another study examining Gottfredson's model showed that gender type may be the least influential factor when compromise is necessary in career selection (Holt, 1989). Holt used forced-choice and card-sort methods when working with social work and engineering majors. The engineering students were more likely to select high-status Social (from Holland's codes) occupations over low-status Realistic occupations. The engineering students chose against their assumed type in order to maintain high status. However, the social work students preferred either high or low-status Social jobs over high-status Realistic occupations. They did not sacrifice type for status. Holt conjectured that compromise could be a function of the personality or interest types of the individual student. The research did not control for the sex type of each occupation

and verification of each subject's own occupational interest categories was not performed.

Astin (1984) incorporated the impact of one's environment in her proposal when she constructed a theory of career choice and work behavior. Astin based her theory on four constructs: motivation, expectation, opportunity, and sex-role socialization. Astin highlighted the role that opportunity plays in determining what a person does, in combination with interests, personality and abilities. She equated opportunity to recent socio-cultural trends such as changes in the nation's economy, reproductive technology, increasing divorce rate and declining birthrates. Her needs-based model assumed that men and women have the same needs, but work expectations and outcomes are different for each sex because of sex-role socialization and the structure of opportunity. She assumed that recent opportunities had equalized the playing field, resulting in women making broader career choices. She further assumed that since early socialization practices have not changed as dramatically as the occupational behavior of women, broader career opportunities are part of the reason women who work outside the home are choosing nontraditional careers to satisfy their needs. In other words, girls and boys are still primarily socialized to believe that there are certain things women do and certain things men do (e.g., boys are socialized to win, be competitive, make points, etc., while girls are primarily socialized to do household tasks, play with dolls, and care for others.). It is Astin's belief that if socialization patterns have remained the same over the years, then opportunity must be influencing the women who are turning to nontraditional careers, not their socialization.

Hansen (1984), in response to Astin's theory, expanded Astin's structural opportunities to include not only more external variables (such as network contacts, random personnel assignments and organizational changes), but also internal variables such as (intellect, physique and interests). She concluded that every career contains serendipity (unexpected opportunities), which will always prevent researchers from total accuracy in predicting a person's career development.

Another theory of career choice, the Betz-Fassinger-Fitzgerald Model (Fassinger, 1985), takes into account outside factors when attempting to predict a woman's career. It was formulated on highly gifted female college juniors and seniors. The researchers measured how the women's career choices were congruent with their interests and abilities. Individual differences and the potential under-utilization of the abilities of women were the focus. The authors hypothesized that preference for lifestyle and the realism of career choice could be predicted by previous work experience, academic success, role model influence, perceived encouragement, attitude towards work, attitudes toward self and sex-role, lifestyle preferences and plans and realism of career choice. Studies based on this model have tended to support the theory (Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987; Fassinger, 1990; Fitzgerald et al., 1995).

The preceding studies focused on career development primarily in the beginning stages of a person's career. The following studies have the commonality of focusing on the adult at mid-career, after the initial choices are made and a career has begun.

Adult Mid-Career Development

Levinsonian development theory defines the concept of mid-career. Levinson, (1978), described four distinct "eras" in the career development of men. The four eras he defined were; pre-adulthood, birth to 22 years of age; early adulthood, ages 17 to 45; middle adulthood, 45 to 60; and late adulthood, starting at age 60 to 65 (Levinson, Carrow, Klein, Levinson & McKee, 1978; Levinson, 1986).

To test Levinson's theory on women's adult development, Roberts and Newton (1987) combined four unpublished doctoral dissertations that examined women and applied Levinson's theories to the women's development. The four studies included a total of 39 biographies. The age range of the women was 28 to 53 years compared to the men's range of 35 to 45 years. Most of the female subjects were married, while all the males in Levinson's work were married, with 52% of the women and 80% of the men parents. More women were college educated compared to the men.

The authors found that the Levinsonian eras for men coincided with the women's eras. Differences appeared when the women and men articulated their values and career goals. The more educated women working outside of the home tended to make an emotional break from husbands and family, becoming more independent. It took women a longer time to formulate an occupational goal and make a career commitment compared to men. Women were concerned with a more complex life structure (e.g., marriage, motherhood and career), whereas men primarily thought about careers. Women's goals tended to be more complex than the men's and this appeared to strongly shape and influence the women's adult life structure. The relational emphasis on

marriage and motherhood was as much of a priority for many of the women as the establishment and maintenance of a career. Men put relationships at a lower priority than women. Women with very specific early career goals gave precedence to career over family and relationships. However, women who regarded family as primary initially, changed their priorities as they aged, with career becoming more primary.

The unpublished studies were not duplications of Levinson's 1978 study. The methodology was similar, not identical. The authors point out that the researchers were female and roughly the same age as their subjects, so they may not have been able to identify certain qualitative changes in life structure because they lacked the age perspective of Levinson, who was 5 to 15 years older than his subjects. On the other hand, the female researchers were immersed in the same life situations as their subjects and might have been more sensitive to the subtleties of the women's lives.

Levinson's last book, The Season of a Woman's Life (1996), was the completion of a desire to study women separately and write the female version of his first book, The Seasons of a Man's Life (Levinson et al., 1978). Levinson eschewed quantitative methods for both books as he thought the methods were "poorly suited to exploratory research in a field relatively lacking in theory, in descriptive knowledge and in measuring (assessment) instruments of demonstrated validity" (p.8). He used Intensive Biographic Interviewing, as he did in his first book, where the subjects was interviewed for approximately 20 hours over a period of two to three months. He then used Biographical Reconstruction to qualitatively analyze the women's life stories. He divided his sample into three groups: homemakers, businesswomen, and women in

academia. Each group consisted of 15 women. This method has obvious limitations of reliance on memory and reconstruction, but it enabled the researcher to achieve a picture of complexity of the life structure, including career choices.

The businesswomen in Levinson's study were born between 1936 and 1947 and thus, were part of the first wave of women to enter the male dominated world of high status corporate occupations. He found that the 15 businesswomen decidedly chose corporate careers over homemaking. The women avoided "feminine" occupations such as nursing and teaching, but also consciously avoided "masculine" occupations such as engineering and law. Only a quarter of the businesswomen chose business or economics as college majors. The women rejected the idea of an MBA program, partially because at that time (the 1960s) few business schools were admitting women. Near the end of the study, when the women were in their late thirties and early forties, three were in middle management positions with no decision-making authority, nine had made very limited progress in their careers or were not working, and two were high achievers in corporate line positions.

Personal demographics showed that 9 out of the 15 businesswomen eventually became mothers. Levinson is not consistent in how he reported statistics, as sometimes he combined the career women's (business and academia) demographics and at times he did not. It appears that at least 14 of the 30 career women married eventually, with five of them divorced, but there were some re-marriages. By the age of 34, seven had never married. Several of the marriages were disappointing, with the women working a full time job and also responsible for everything at home. By their mid forties, the women

were reassessing the choices they had made in their personal lives as well as their careers, wanting more involvement and engagement in both.

Levinson acknowledges the richness and complexity of a person's life. He ascertained that the businesswomen were weathering the storm of opposition at work and beginning to open the glass ceiling, while reappraising their lives and making some career and life changes. The women found the term "glass ceiling" to be a misnomer, as they discovered that after they passed through one ceiling, there was another at the next level with more problems waiting. Levinson concluded that there was a "need to overcome our vast ignorance of life and development in middle adulthood. Almost no guidance is available from the popular culture or the social sciences which have generally ignored the topic of career development at mid-adulthood" (p.375-376).

A recent book, Integrative Life Patterns (Hansen, 1997), addresses both men and women as they interact with their total environment, acknowledging the richness and complexities in career development as it is interwoven into the entire life planning process for both genders. This dynamic model recognizes the changing society of today and includes gay/lesbian, single parent and blended families as well as the "traditional" family in its concepts. Hansen is mindful that planning for the future includes taking into account changes in society and unforseeable changes in an individual's situation. One must make decisions by "anticipating, creating, designing and managing changes" (Hansen, 1991, p. 81). She proposes strategies for individuals, schools, colleges, workplace and corporations to embrace and work with the changes in society.

Integrative Life Planning (ILP) promotes a vision of egalitarianism, life roles instead of jobs, utilization of rationality and intuition, spirituality and holism.

Other theorists comment on the importance of life events and how chronological age may be a less useful descriptor than "life stage". For example, women seem to be labeled middle-aged and old before men. Those from higher socio-economic groups begin mid-life later and it lasts longer than for those from working class and low income groups. (Fiske & Chiriboga, 1990; Schlossberg et al., 1995).

Sheehy (1995) wrote that middle-age was loosely defined as the years between 50 and 65. She contended that, when all women in the US, regardless of income, IQ and current health, are averaged together, they can still "expect (to live) at least thirty-two years and likely a span of forty or more years to fill with meaningful, gainful and productive living, after reaching their fiftieth birthday. That amounts to a second adult lifetime" (Sheehy, p. 6).

Summary: Women's Career Development

The models of career development demonstrate the shift of thinking about women's very existence in the work place to how to best understand and integrate all the changes and challenges in a woman's life in general. It is clear that women should not be studied through the lens of the white male. Super recognized this error forty years ago (Super, 1957) and efforts were begun to study women's development separately. From that, the gender model of work (Feldberg & Glen,1979) described a world where men and women were socialized to believe that they have a gendered role in life to follow, where men work outside the home and women remain in the home to tend to

responsibilities of children and hearth. If women ventured outside of the home to work, especially in a non-traditional career, it was assumed they had to take on the characteristics of men in order to succeed. Sex type of the occupation remains a mainstay through other theories, with additional influences in career decision-making being introduced such as compromise and circumspection (Gottfredson, 1981), opportunity (Astin, 1984) and outside factors such as lifestyle preferences, realism of career choice and attitude towards work (Fassinger, 1985). Tests of many of these models have generally been carried out on college students, so generalizability to an older, working population should be suggested with caution.

With the study of women's career development, it became evident that women's interests and abilities cannot be studied alone, but in the context of life itself. So too, it has been recognized that men's career development also is part of a whole. Recent career development and life planning models like Hansen's (1997), Sheehy's (1995), and Levinson's (1996) take into account the ever changing (and aging) individual who is attempting to adapt in response to her/his fluctuating environment while attending to individual needs, abilities and desires. It is a dynamic process that continues throughout the life span and impacts one's life at every stage, be it college, mid-career or retirement. Levinson's (1996) accounts of the lives of bussinesswomen accentuates the complexities and richness of women in business in particular, and the impact of socialization and of choosing a nontraditional career.

Women and Men in Management

This section reviews the literature of women working in management in US business and corporations. These women have attracted much attention in the popular media, especially business sections of metropolita newspapers. Examples of popular commentary can be found in articles depicting the lives of successful women in business, such as a recent series appearing in the Minneapolis Star Tribune (Apgar, Meyer & Friedmann, 1997). The series described the lives of several women in senior executive positions and how the women took charge of their jobs and lives. Articles found in Fortune (Sellars, 1996), Forbes, (Munk & Oliver, 1996), Working Woman (Greene & Greene, 1997), and the New York Times (Truell, 1996) describe the hard work, complications of balancing work and family (e.g., not taking the entire maternity leave), behaving decisively without hesitation on the job, being able to shoulder the blame and take the credit, and fitting in with the men. One woman described her career as if she lived in a "glass box" (Truell, 1996) and said that her style, because she is a woman, can often take on more importance compared to issues of substance.

Other articles depict gender bias in the workplace. A Newhouse News Service article (King, 1997) described a suit filed against a national home improvement company that began with one woman and had the potential to become a class action suit on behalf of 22,000 women. The woman claimed that the company directed women of the same age and education as men into dead-end jobs with little prospect of moving up the corporate ladder. The article also described a large insurance company's settlement of $250 million to a group of women who were deterred from positions in insurance. This

problem was supported by the industry's own publication, LAN (Norris, 1996), that few women desire to enter into insurance sales and the industry is losing out on their talents.

States have conducted their own self-examination of the under-representation of women in leadership positions. Minnesota is no exception, establishing a task force (Governor's Task Force on the Glass Ceiling, 1995) to study the problem. The task force found evidence of bias in the public and private sectors, including law, education and state and city government . The report outlines attitudinal and organizational barriers found (e.g., women are not as serious as men about their careers; female characteristics are less desirable than male characteristics in executives; the organization has few or no women and people of color in line and decision-making positions) and discusses recommendations for the future to advance women and people of color and disabilities (Apgar, 1996; Governor's Task Force on the Glass Ceiling, 1995; Jackson, 1996; Jarvinen, 1997; Kirkpatrick, 1996).

The popular press has also promoted the notion that in order to succeed in the business world, women must resemble men in as many ways as possible. The public is besieged with information about how women can accomplish the gendered model of success with articles such as: "How Women Can Link Up with the Links" (Wallace, 1994); "Forging Links among Executive Women " (Clancy, 1994); and "Look Who's No Longer Missing the Links" (O'Donnell, 1994). With 40% of all new golfers women, an executive women's golf league was formed in 1991 and by 1994, there were already 3500 members and 60 chapters (O'Donnell, 1994). The importance of the right clothes is implied by articles such as "Women's New Relationship with Fashion" (Steinhauer &

White, 1996); "Who's Wearing the Pants?" (Adams, 1996); and "Whom Do Women Dress For?" (Vogue, 1994). In a book entitled Dress for Success: The Myth and the Reality (Molloy, 1987), Molloy reported that women prefer to wear business suits that are more masculine and conservative in order to express managerial competency.. Women are encouraged to be like men not only in their actions, but also in their dress and leisure activities.

The assumption that the organizational environment is male oriented and dominated appears to be widely accepted (Catalyst, 1996; Hardesty & Jacobs, 1986; Hearn, Sheppard, Tancred-Sheriff, & Burrell, 1989; Marshall, 1993).

The gender model of work that explains differences in individual work behavior suggests that the differences men and women bring to the work place are attributable to the differences in sex role socialization that have occurred throughout the person's life. Men are socialized to believe that their role in life is to build a career and to provide the main economic sustenance for their family. Women, on the other hand, are trained to accept the roles of child bearer and homemaker (Feldberg & Glen, 1979). Therefore, these stereotypical sex roles place women at a disadvantage since they are not socialized in ways that are advantageous to many work environments (e.g. competitiveness, aggressiveness, risk-taking behavior and even appearance).

Businesses have been successful without women's involvement in the past, and if success is to continue, one could argue that the stereotypical "male" traits are necessary for success. The patriarchal structure of the corporate culture first takes root in the broader environment of society at large. There is a social dominance of male values and

this has become so ingrained within the organization that women have had to try harder to prove themselves equal to men. The women end up being judged by male-defined standards (Sheppard, 1989; Marshall, 1993). One researcher called high-achieving women "prisoners of men's dreams" for accepting male norms of work behavior, life style and success (Gordon, 1991). By studying those who are successful (at the upper levels of management), determinations can be made as to what characteristics invite success. It would follow that those who pattern themselves after men would reach the upper echelons of organizations, so it is no wonder that many women deem it necessary to imitate men.

Some research suggests that the predominant role for women managers is to fit in and not buck the system. Loden (1985) and Sheppard (1989) found that female managers accommodate themselves into the culture of the organization and are pre-occupied with blending in as a way to succeed. However, homogeneous mixing with the men still does not seem to be the answer for women's success at work. Loden concluded that "Even when they (women) attempt to behave exactly like their male counterparts, they are still not perceived by others in the same light" (p. 38).

A study conducted by Catalyst (1996), a private, non-profit research organization that studies women in business, surveyed executive women throughout the United States. Sixty-one percent of the women attributed their success to identifying a style that male managers found comfortable. In their opinion, doing the work brilliantly was not enough to ensure success. Half of the women believed they had to make influential men

"comfortable" with their presence and that if they did not cater to the men they could not advance within the organization.

Women have been encouraged to imitate and fit in with men in order to be successful in the world of business. The remaining sections of this part of the literature review focus on what has transpired as women have entered the world of business and corporations. The first part examines leadership and influence in the business setting, while the second part reviews literature investigating the experiences of women in business as compared to men.

Leadership and Influence

Although the ranks of women into entry level management are growing, the actual power and influence they achieve have been questioned. In an early study, McClelland (1975) found that there was a female style of power that was different from males. The researcher's main focus was to find the general effects of power motivation, and while doing so he discovered sex differences in how men and women express their power. He studied male and female volunteers who had completed at least three years of college. All of the women were married (a female requirement for other study purposes) and two-thirds of the men were married (not a male requirement to be in the study). The subjects wrote short stories to four pictures aimed to bring out thought sequences dealing with power. The pictures and the scoring of the pictures were based on studies by Winter (1973) regarding power motivation. The participants also answered a questionnaire which focused on ascertaining the outlets the subjects had for their power.

Results showed that women high in need for power were different from men high in need for power in that the women were concerned about building up their own internal resources, materially, physically, and emotionally. This meant that for women, power was expressed by sharing one's resources and women needed to build up their resources in order to share them. For instance, women shared their information by passing it on to co-workers, thus empowering them. McClelland hypothesized that the women saw themselves as a resource. In order to be able to give, a woman must strengthen her resources. Men high in need for power had an assertive approach to life by acting powerfully, boasting about their sex lives, and getting into arguments. McClelland commented that "the men found strength in action, the women in being a strong resource" (p. 51).

Twenty years later, Jacobs and McClelland (1994) studied managers within a corporate setting and again examined how men and women lead. The concepts of Resourceful Power (i.e., when a person in authority aids another by protecting, helping, inspiring, and teaching) and Reactive Power (assertive or aggressive action against another person) were developed from the 1974 study and used to describe kinds of power in the 1994 study. The subjects in the 1994 study were entry-level managers. Upon entering the corporation between the years 1977 and 1982, each subject was administered the TAT along with self report instruments, behavioral simulations and an interview during three days of assessment. Subjects were revisited every 2 years and completed the same assessment from 1977 to 1986 and again in 1990.

Results showed that women in upper management used Resourceful Power, suggesting they wanted to help, empower and share. Upper management women exhibited this tendency more than women in lower management. Men in upper or lower management showed no difference in utilizing Resourceful Power. Men were more likely to use Reactive Power, which was not a preferred style of leadership for women at any level of management.

Rosener (1990) also found the same differences in style of leadership between men and women. Her study involved prominent female leaders in diverse professions. Results showed men describing a transactional form of leadership, where they exchanged rewards for services rendered or punishment for unsatisfactory performance. The women used interactive leadership, where they utilized participation to clarify their views, shared power and information and energized others. Rosener's findings were similar to those of Jacobs and McClelland (1994).

A meta-analysis (Eagly & Johnson, 1990) synthesized 162 leadership studies, producing 370 comparisons between men and women examining leadership style. In studies involving subjects in actual work situations, the women were more democratic and participative and less autocratic and directive when compared to men.

Another study (Boyd, Mulvihill, & Myles, 1991) investigated gender differences in relation to power across executives and managers in three industries. The authors found that even though women were a majority in two of the industries (commercial services and public services), men were more autonomous and had more authority in all of the industries, regardless of the number of women employed. If women had authority,

meaning decision-making abilities, it was typically only over other women, not men. Men had authority over both men and women. The women in authoritative positions occupied them only in what the authors termed "female job ghettos" (p. 194), places such as social service agencies, health, education and welfare, and consumer and retail services. Results showed that women were losing ground to men in the upper-level executive positions, but improving their position relative to men in lower-level management and supervisory jobs.

Establishment of the fact that women lead differently than men leads to the next question. How effective are the women in their management leadership positions? The goal of another meta-analysis (Eagly, Karau, Makhijani, 1995) was to determine leadership effectiveness, regardless of style. The analysis included 22 studies that examined the effectiveness of working managers in a business setting. The authors were highly selective in their inclusion criteria and eliminated any study from the analysis where effectiveness was not measured directly (e.g., inferred) and not coded by trained judges or rated by the subject's co-workers at different levels. Results showed that women were more democratic and participative and less autocratic and directive when compared to the men, a conclusion established in previous studies. In addition, managers were found to be more effectual if they were leading employees of the same sex as themselves or if the management role was defined in more masculine terms (e.g., the military) for men and less masculine terms (e.g., education) for the women. Conversely, women were found not to be effective leaders in a masculine defined position and vice versa for men.

The authors suggested that although women were as effective as men, there was "gender role expectation spillover onto leadership roles within organizations " (p. 140). The spillover affected the effectiveness of the leaders. The results imply a ubiquitous gendering of leadership where women (and men) need to assess whether the situation in which they are involved defines leaders in particularly "masculine" or "feminine" terms, because their leadership effectiveness might be at risk. The authors added that a limitation of the study was that when the sex of raters was correlated with the studies' outcomes, male raters tended to favor the male leaders while female raters did not favor one sex over the other, showing evidence of rating gender bias.

Another study (Irwin & Perrault, 1996) attempted to measure the effectiveness of women from an intellectual domain rather than by type of leadership. The data were collected via computer generated questionnaires and responses to a measurement tool commonly used in organizational evaluation, generically called a 360-degree evaluation system. This tool refers to a system of questionnaires given to a team member (the target) and co-workers that surround him/her, such as peers, superiors and subordinates, in order to evaluate the target's performance. The authors analyzed data from clients such as General Electric, Johnson & Johnson, and Kinko's. The study utilized the responses of 5400 people on 915 target individuals, with the majority of female targets being evaluated more often by men than by other women.

The researchers found that women's and men's scores were significantly different in 25 of the 31 behaviors evaluated. In general, the women were found to be significantly better at planning, controlling (e.g. organizing, monitoring, meeting

commitments), managing relationships, leading (e.g. delegating, motivating, facilitating), and communicating. The women were lower than men, but not significantly so, in handling pressure, coping with their own frustration and managing self. The results indicated that women were effective as leaders, more so than men. The authors reported that construct validity and inter-rater reliability were high, averaging .74 for the latter. Each target also evaluated him or herself with the same questionnaire as their co-workers. The women rated themselves very much like their colleagues, while the men had an inflated perception of themselves when compared to others who rated them. One implication suggested by the authors is that women do not do well on self-promotion and may need to feel more comfortable and be more vocal as promoters of their own careers.

Earnings

One way studies have gauged success in the business world is to examine earnings. Income gives an idea of the value placed on the work delivered by the employee. The element of wage is studied because companies possess a "bottom line" orientation and because it can be measured objectively and fairly easily. There is a wealth of empirical literature examining the differences in salary between men and women, so the topic is given it's own section here, apart from the next section about demographic differences. Salaries, historically, have been less for women compared to men. In a survey by the US Bureau of Labor Statistics (1995), it was found that in 1994, women working full time, year round, earned 76.4 cents for every dollar earned by men.

For managers, the inequities between men and women in salaries reflect the nation's. Legislative guidelines (Title VII of the Civil Rights Act) that govern how new

managers are compensated when they are hired but not maintained as careers advance. One study (Kazal-Thresher, 1990) examined the employment earning patterns of Stanford University MBAs. Graduates from 1973 through 1985 received surveys (N=896, 56% response rate). Results showed that the men started their careers in higher positions than the women, with salaries commensurate with their positions. The men earned 12% more than the women at the beginning of their careers. When work hours, job responsibility, type of industry and part time work were controlled, the men still earned 11% more than the women. The wage differential widened as years passed. The two factors found to be significant in explaining wage differential were the number of people supervised and the number of positions held over the years. The more people men supervised and the more positions they held, the higher their wages. For women, as the number of jobs held since graduation increased, their earnings decreased by 8%. Also, the author found that the women had a higher propensity to be in staff positions, which in turn put them in a position to supervise fewer people, possibly resulting in lower wages.

Another study (Schneer & Reitman, 1995) hypothesized that women would work less, earn less, and be at lower levels compared to men as their managerial careers unfolded. In this longitudinal study the authors surveyed male and female MBAs who received their degrees between the years 1976 and 1980. The first part of the study was conducted in 1984 and the follow-up in 1990. The response rate was 74% (N=176) in the 1990 follow-up, a total of 55% of the respondents completing both surveys was women. The average age of all respondents was 41 years, 72% were married, and 66%

had children. Employment status was significantly different between men and women at the time of the second survey, with 79% of the women and 95% of the men at full-time status.

Statistical analyses were calculated only on respondents employed full-time at both surveys, N=140, with, coincidentally, an equal number of men and women. Statistically significant results showed that the incomes for men and women in 1984 were not significantly different. However, six years later, the women earned over $10,000 (13%) per year less than the men. Gender was found to be the most significant contributor to the salary differential even after controlling for other factors.

A study (Lyness & Thompson, 1997) examining matched pairs of male and female executives found that although the genders did not differ on base pay and bonuses, the differences in stock options were close to significance, with women receiving a median of 2767 stock options and men a median of 3333 per year over a three year period. The authors point out that stock options are viewed as a "a long-term incentive for retaining the most critical managers, suggesting that the women may be valued less than their male counterparts" (p.371). The authors controlled for comparable education, performance ratings, nature of position, age, and position.

Other studies have also shown large wage differentials between men and women. Reskin and Ross (1995) studied managers and controlled for managerial level, supervisor authority and final-decision making authority. They found that men out-earned women with the same amount of experience, education and managerial responsibility by $10,487. Jacobs (1995) examined two sets of data, one from 1970 and another from 1988,

totalling over 15000 subjects. He created a pooled cross-sectional time series design and found that women earned 56.9% of men's wages in 1970 and 61.1% of men's wages in 1988. Although women's income rose slightly, it was still significantly lower than the male managers's income. Chauvin and Ash (1994) examined MBAs and business undergraduates who graduated in 1973 and 1983 and worked full-time. Women received 76% of the men's mean pay. A statistically significant portion of the gap in total pay was "due to differences in that part of the total pay that is contingent on job performance" (p. 646). The authors suggest this may mean that women are not in positions where their performance is rewarded with bonuses or profit sharing, perhaps due to the selection process of the organization where women may be screened out of positions that lead to bonuses.

Demographic and Experential Differences

Another way of examining differences in male and female managers is to examine the actual experiences women have and compare them to men's. The next group of studies examines gender differences in developmental opportunities of the position occupied and career and personal demographics of managers and executives.

Ohlott, Ruderman and McCauley (1994) examined the gender differences in managers' developmental job experiences. They hypothesized that women did not have the same developmental opportunities as men, which resulted in less preparation for, and thus less likelihood in obtaining, upper-level positions. They further hypothesized that men would experience more developmental challenges stemming from highly visible, formidable and risky assignments, characterized as line positions. This is the first piece

of empirical research that this author found where the researchers deemed it important to make a distinction between line and staff positions. The authors acknowledged that organizations had a tendency to direct women into staff jobs with less visibility and fewer opportunities to establish an influential network. The surveys were sent to managers who participated in a management development program, resulting in a 73% response rate.

Demographic data showed women significantly younger than men (39 versus 43 years), in their current job a shorter time (2.8 versus 3.5 years) and significantly more educated (44% of the women versus 31% of the men held graduate degrees). The women held staff jobs at a significantly higher rate than men. When controlling for tenure, age, job type and education, men experienced greater challenges compared to women, especially experiences that provide high levels of responsibility, power and visibility. Women were given some opportunities that appeared to be high risk (handling new ventures and saving old businesses), but not given access to all of the challenges as the men. Women were not assigned to jobs that would enhance their visibility and stretch their breadth and strategic ability.

The data for this study were based solely on self reports. The effect of gender was small, but significant. The authors point out, however, that small differences, when applied to large organizations, represent thousands of people. The authors suggest that the study uncovered subtle discriminatory staffing practices, like discriminatory job assignments. They interpret the results to mean that because women are denied access

to certain high-level responsibilities, they are discriminated against in their professional development.

Another study (Reskin & Ross, 1995) that examined authority as dictated by type of position found that men had more involvement in the revenue generating end of the business, i.e. line jobs. Men had greater access to authority; they had twice the chance of reaching the top compared to women; were twice as likely to supervise subordinates who, in turn, supervised others. More people were directly and indirectly subordinate to male managers compared to female managers. Women had less power when it came to hiring, firing and promotion decisions, and less power and influence outside her unit compared to men. The researchers regressed the number of decision-making arenas on the managers' education, firm tenure, hours worked, race, sex, size of organization, self-employoment and private employer (as compared to government employer), occupational percentage of females and managerial level and position. The findings showed that what empowered final decision authority the most was the person's position in the managerial hierarchy and the sex of the manager.

The sample was not particularly large (N=222), but randomly selected. The data were collected in 1982 by telephone interviews and only the respondents who described themselves as holding a management position and worked at least 20 hours a week were included. Generalizability was affected by the fact that the subjects were from a single state. The researchers controlled carefully for the effects of mislabeling managers and the effects of self-employment.

Lyness and Thompson (1997) found, in their study of matched samples of male and female executives, that women had less authority than men when authority was determined by the number of subordinates they managed. Women had significantly fewer subordinates than their male counterparts. In addition, the female executives were significantly less likely to be married or have children. The authors suggest that women may have been so ambitious in their careers, that they sacrificed other roles to dedicate themselves totally to their jobs.

The following two studies were carried out by organizations seeking to evaluate the advances that women have made in United States (US) corporations. The studies are large in scope as the research organizations that conducted them have access to US businesses that are the biggest profit makers in the country. Although no tests of statistical significance were calculated, both studies are frequently referred to in both popular and academic literature. It is important to include them in this literature review.

A definitive study of the status of executive women was conducted in a collaborative effort by Korn/Ferry, an international executive search firm, and the UCLA Graduate School of Management (Korn/Ferry, 1992). The 1992 survey was an update of a 1982 survey. In addition to comparing the women to each other after ten years, a similar survey was sent to male executives in 1989. In effect, there are two sets of comparisons, one between men and women, and the other between two samples of women with comparable titles and companies at two different time periods. The male/female comparison is reviewed here, with the female/female comparison examined in the next section of this review.

The 1989 study surveyed 4298 senior executives in Fortune 500's largest industrial companies and the 500 largest service companies. A 16% response rate (N=698) was achieved. No explanation was given for the low rate of response. The 1992 study surveyed 1554 women executives in Fortune 1000's largest industrial and 500 largest service companies [response rate of 33% (N=716)]. Only respondents currently in the 1000 largest industrial and 500 largest service companies with comparable titles to the 1982 respondents were included. The final sample size was 439.

The women, on average, were younger than the men by eight years, three times less likely to be married, four times as likely to be divorced or widowed, nine times as likely to have no children, half as likely to have two or more children, and 20 times less likely to have a spouse who did not work outside the home.

Examination of career demographics revealed that both genders worked the same number of hours with 79% of each group working 46-60 hours a week. Approximately 70% of both groups considered the ability to make decisions the most important factor that enhances an executive's chances for success. More differences arose than similarities, however. Over 41% of the men were currently working in general management, while only 17% of the women functioned in that area. Almost half of the men aspired to be CEO, while only 14% of the women considered CEO their highest goal. Women considered risk-taking more than twice as important as men when it came to enhancing an executive's chance for success, but the survey gave no indication how the women acted on this belief. Women had a tendency to remain in the same area in which they began their career, i.e. in staff positions. Men, on the other hand, were

predisposed to move from staff to line positions. Slightly over 71% of the women who began in personnel (a staff function) remained there , while only 36% of the men chose to remain. More women then men took leaves of absences (36% vs. 6%). Most respondents felt that their leaves had no effect on their careers.

A recent Catalyst study (Women in Corporate Leadership: Progress and Prospects, 1996) compared the perceptions of women executives who held the position of vice-president or above of Fortune 1000 companies with male CEOs of Fortune 1000 companies. The goal was to learn more about women in management, their career paths and strategies.

The women had the following characteristics; 64% had advance degrees, 91% were Caucasian, 72% were married, and 35% had no children. Of those having children, 64% had children under the age of 17 and 87% of the women were part of a dual-career couple. The women's average yearly income was $248,000 and 60% of the women were in staff positions. The women spent an average of 12 years with their current company. The personal demographics were not reported for the male CEOs.

Summary: Men and Women in Management

The above studies indicate that male and female managers have different styles of leadership. Women are shown to have a more interactive and resourceful style of leadership (Boyd et al., 1991; Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Jacobs & McClelland, 1994; Rosener, 1995). Even though they lead differently, women are shown to be effective as leaders (Eagly et al., 1995; Irwin & Perrault, 1996), but maybe not in all situations. The same is true for men. A meta-analysis (Eagly et al., 1995) showed that managers were

more effective if leading same gender employees or if the manager was in a same gender defined position, suggesting a genderfication of leadership. However, another study (Irwin & Perrault, 1996) found that women were rated by their co-workers significantly better than men in 80% of the leadership behaviors evaluated. Both studies found the women to be effective leaders. Genderfication seems to apply to where and whom the women lead (e.g., in sterotypical female environments). Women tend to be leaders in environments that do not allow for high visibility, therefore their promotion prospects are lower than that of men's.

The above studies also established that women in management are not paid as much as men, even when factors such as experience, education, and number of hours worked weekly are controlled. The pay differential appears to be around $10,000 a year. Women start out at the same rate, but after a few years there is a salary gap. Women in staff positions (Chauvin & Ash, 1994; Kazal-Thresher, 1990) received less salary. The one study that examined matched samples of male and female executives (Lyness & Thompson, 1997) found no difference in pay, but a significant difference in stock options, with the men receiving more than the women. The authors assumed that there were more men than women in line positions, and surmised that line positions pay more, regardless of other factors such as level of education or hours worked.

The studies (Ohlott et al., 1994; Reskin & Ross, 1995) examining demographic and experiential differences between male and female managers showed that women were more likely to have graduate degrees, were younger than men, and in their current job a shorter time. Women did not have the same developmental opportunities as men,

which resulted in less challenge, visibility, authority, and power. The women's chances to reach high level positions were lessened because of the likelihood that they held staff positions. Two large surveys (Catalyst, 1996; Korn/Ferry, 1992) came to the same conclusions. Also, at the higher levels in the managerial hierarchy, women have given up some of their roles as wife and mother, as the higher divorce rate, lower marriage rate and likelihood of having no children indicate (Korn/Ferry, 1992; Lyness & Thompson, 1997).

The literature examining men and women managers has established the differences and similarities in career development and socialization, level and nature of position, salary, education, perceptions and personal demographics. If it is assumed that men occupy the majority of line positions and women can be found in the majority of staff positions, differences between the genders may be accounted for variables other than gender. The aforementioned studies begin to make this distinction. The uneven distribution of men and women in line and staff jobs affects the women's access to developmental opportunities. Controlling for the nature of position should lead to more understanding of the outcomes of different developmental challenges. If women have the same opportunities that men have in line positions, are their situations any different than women in staff positions? Larwood and Lockheed (1979) suggested that research on women in the second generation of managers requires examination of bits and pieces from organizations, (e.g., hiring practices, intentions to quit, succession planning), subjects of varying backgrounds, and archival information (e.g., salary histories and

patterns in past promotion decisions). They predicted almost twenty years ago that progress would be slow, and they have been proven correct.

Women in Management

The next group of studies focuses on corporate women only. The literature examining female managers falls into three categories. There are articles theorizing about the existence of the barriers to women management, literature describing the characteristics of female managers and their advancement, and manuscripts suggesting possible solutions to the problems of women's lack of progression into the upper echelons of corporate management.

Theories

The term "glass ceiling" (Morrison, White, Van Velsor & the Center for Creative Leadership, 1987) has become a common term depicting inequality for women and other minorities in the work place. Anecdotal information found in books such as Success and Betrayal (Hardesty & Jacobs, 1986) and When Work Doesn't Work Anymore (McKenna, 1997) describe the lives of women working in management, including the problems, barriers, and frustrations encountered. These descriptions inspire theorizing on the reasons for the glass ceiling . Examples of popular explanations center on three basic themes: the human capital theory or individual deficit model, discrimination theory also known as sexual stereotyping, and the structural model (Kanter, 1977; Morrison & Glinow, 1990; Gutek, 1993; and Heilman, 1995).

Human capital theory suggests that people are rewarded by the investment that they have made in their education and job training. An assumption of the theory is that the investment pays off equally for all, regardless of gender or ethnicity. This theory has not been supported as the return for white males has been much higher compared to females or ethnic minorities (Becker, 1967; Business Week, 1988).

The structural model (Kanter, 1977; Lipman-Blumen, Fryling, Henderson, Moore, & Vecchiotti, 1996) focuses on the impact of the structure of work organizations. This model suggests that women react to the organizational structure and that remedying the problem of advancement should focus on altering the institution to promote greater equity between genders. The size, age, hierarchical design, public image, formal policies, recruitment policies, gender composition of corporate boards, and the industries themselves can dramatically impact advancement opportunities for women. For instance, when positions become vacant, the plans for succession are made by upper management. Gender balance is usually not a consideration at the upper levels, as it is in the hiring stages of new managers where federal and state equal opportunity laws apply.

When inequities in education, experience and ability are eliminated as causes, explanation turns to sex-stereotyping and discrimination in order to explain under-representation. The prejudice can be attributed to stereotypes, usually negative, based on historical roles (Larwood, Gutek & Gattiker, 1984; Powell, 1988; Morrison et al., 1987; Nivea & Gutek, 1981). Different expectations are created by society, which play out in many arenas of life and definitely in the work place. Discrimination is subtle, hard

to prove, with the "old boy network" firmly in place (Schneer & Reitman, 1994). In a review of literature, Heilman (1995) found that attributes that characterize a successful manager are ones that stereotypically describe a man and not a woman. Schwartz (1992) discovered in extensive interviews with professional women and corporate leaders that at the deepest level, the boss (usually male), thinks that the woman should really be at home with the kids. She concluded that "corporate leaders' preconceptions that women are not risk takers and are not cut out for technical jobs lead them to shun talented women away from line positions that are essential to running a business; male managers overlook women for transfer opportunities because of the belief the women will not want to relocate so women do not gain the lateral experience they need to make policy as a senior executive; men who supervise women often are not comfortable giving women candid performance evaluations and constructive suggestions for growth to help women move up as rapidly and as far as their male colleagues" (p. 45). Preconceived and stereotypical notions such as these reduce objectivity involved in the advancement of women within organizations.

Empirical Studies

There is a dearth of empirical studies examining women without being compared to men. Fouad (1994), in an annual review of vocational choice for the Journal of Vocational Behavior, suggests that the wheel should no longer be reinvented. She said "There should be no further investigation and studies documenting differences between men and women on almost any variable" (p. 158). The following studies examine female managers and their differences on various characteristics. While an effort was made to

include only studies of MBAs as research subjects, this proved to be too constraining as a criteria as it further diminished a limited number of empirical studies.

Sachs, Chrisler and Devlin (1992) explored the notion of women having to be and think like men in order to succeed. The authors sent surveys to 200 women selected at random from the Women In Management, Incorporated membership list, a national association of managers with 1700 members. Ninety-five women responded, a return rate of 45%. The personal demographics showed 80% were married and 72% were mothers. The women completed the Bem Sex-Role Inventory to categorize their gender-role orientation, and the Attitudes Toward Women Scale. Results showed that 52% of the women were categorized as androgynous and 33% as masculine in their gender role orientation, with 11% feminine and 4% undifferentiated. The groups differed from Bem's normative sample of college women who were found to be 34% feminine, 29% androgynous and 16% masculine. The majority of the study sample held very high egalitarian attitudes toward women's roles, with a mean score for the group of 90.5 out of a possible 100.

A large percentage of the women (85%) categorized themselves as either masculine or androgynous in sex-role orientation. If the assumption is accepted that management is a "masculine" field, the authors suggest that these women have self-selected themselves into management because of the fit of their personal orientation. However, since the study was not experimental in design, it is impossible to make causative statements. A limitation of this study was that a description of requirements for membership in the subject pool was not listed. It is not known what level in the

corporate hierarchy the women occupied, the nature of their positions, or their educational level. The range of ages was quite large (31 to 60 years) and age might have had an impact on sex-role attitudes and orientation.

Burke and McKeen (1993) designed a study to determine the career priority patterns of managerial and professional women, indicating how managerial women perceive themselves and the personal and organizational antecedents of their positions. The researchers were exploring Schwartz's (1989) theory of career-primary and career-family women, where she described the "mommy-track", suggesting that organizations consider assigning the career-family women to a less demanding work load in order to retain them over the long run.

The respondents were 792 female business graduates, both undergraduate and graduate, from a Canadian university. The average age was 30 years, 63% were married, and 35% had children. Almost all of the women had worked ten years or less for their present employer.

The career priority pattern was established by the respondent reading two descriptions of a woman and her career and indicating how similar she was to them, using current employment as a reference. The patterns were career-primary (career over family as a priority-13% of the sample), modified career-family (career and family equal in priority-51%) and career-family (family more important than career-36%). The career-family women were significantly older, had more children, were more likely not to be working, were at a lower level of income and lower on the corporate ladder, supervised less people, had more gaps in employment and worked in smaller

organizations. There were no significant group differences on spouse's income, hours worked by spouse, number of jobs since graduation, and the number of professional designations held.

The career-primary women were significantly more likely to have an MBA, have been employed continuously, to have taken less and shorter leaves, and to feel more overloaded at work than the career-family women. The career-primary women earned significantly more money, had fewer children and spent less time on household duties than career-family women. The study did not assess the nature of the women's work, either line or staff.

In a later analysis (Burke & McKeen, 1995) of the same sample described above, the authors examined the relationship of particular work experiences to the career success and development of female managers. The authors based their predictions on successful work experiences identified by Morrison et al., (1987), by suggesting that "managerial and professional women indicating work experiences hypothesized to be associated with career success will report more positive work and career outcomes" (p. 84). The average age of the women was 30 years, 64% were married and 64% were childless.

The women with more academic degrees were more optimistic about their future, worked more hours, felt more job involved, were at higher management levels, and were more satisfied with their careers. Also, the women who reported having more challenge and visibility in their job assignments were more satisfied overall. There were no significant differences between the two groups. The authors concluded that when

women have more training, feel more involved in their jobs, and are visible and challenged by their work, they are more likely to be successful and remain in their jobs.

Burke and McKeen (1995) indicate that the results are indicative of the feelings and attitudes of women currently in management. The data were not analyzed by level of management (which they had measured), nor by nature of the position (which they did not measure).

Burke and colleagues conducted the same study in Bulgaria and Singapore (Burke & Kong, 1996; Burke, Kotzeva, Todorova & McKeen, 1994). In Singapore, the sample (N=104) was much more career-family oriented than career-primary and much younger than the Canadian group. There were no significant correlations found, meaning that the women's career priority pattern showed no relationship with age, length of marriage, income, years in present position or other career and personal characteristics.

The Bulgarian study (N=218) provided modest support for the Canadian results. The Bulgarian sample was less career-family oriented than the Singapore study and the women, on average, were 12 years older. Only one correlation between the measure of career priority pattern and work outcome showed statistical significance. Career-family women were significantly less job involved than were career-primary women, as were the Canadian women. The foreign sample data from Singapore and Bulgaria indicate that results from one country cannot necessarily be generalized to other countries. The potential influence of cultural differences (e.g., values attached to upward mobility and a country's ideology about working women) are very difficult to assess.

The only study found that specifically examined the impact of line and staff experiences of women was a Catalyst study (On the Line: Women's Career Advancement, 1992), examining the impact of line and staff experiences on women's career development and movement up the corporate ladder. The information was gathered in three phases. There were structured interviews with human resource professionals and senior managers, and focus groups with middle-level managers, involving 389 people. Much of the data were not reported in percentages. Often, terms such as "many of the personnel workers" or "most of the women" were used to quantify the results.

It is important to remember that the findings are perceptions of the people who work in business organizations. When asked why they chose to work in line positions, people described the fast pace, upward mobility and the direct affect line positions had on business as motivation to work in this area. Employees chose staff work because of the intellectual stimulation, job availability, and the global view of the job. When respondents were asked what characteristics were required to work in each area, they listed interest in making a profit, leadership, decision-making qualities and the ability to think quickly as requirements for line positions. Staff positions required a service-oriented approach, a team player attitude and analytic skills.

Theoretically, the respondents did not see any obstacles to women holding line positions. However, they reported that women did not tend to hold these positions, with a most notable absence at the higher levels. Sixty per cent of the human resource managers claimed that from 61% to 100% of senior women are found in staff positions,

an area that they said "limits their (the women's) access to knowledge of the nuts and bolts of the business, where they have limited networking possibilities and limited opportunity to advance" (p.18).

Many managers offered as explanation for the proliferation of women in staff positions that the positions require specific educational credentials, such as accounting and law. The women believe that if they have the credentials they will gain respect and more opportunities, possibly overcoming gender bias. Also, it is the perception of the employers and the women themselves that their career aspirations and abilities funnel them into staff areas where scheduling is more controlled and predictable, providing the opportunity to more readily balance work and family obligations.

Other perceptions include the importance of establishing the right contacts as an integral part of moving up the ladder. The women must fit in with the men who hold the "right" positions to be considered for promotion. The human resource personnel surveyed also observed that putting women in line jobs is risky for the company because women usually do not have the right qualities to be successful. The women themselves felt that they had to be twice as good as men in order to advance, and they are held to higher standards.

Other studies examining female managers were found in Dissertation Abstracts with data collected through survey formats. An example is a dissertation (Brooks, 1995) with the purpose of determining if successful females had developed a more traditional male model of success or if they began to develop a more female or androgynous style. The author found that even though the women worked for female friendly organizations,

the most often answered choice as to how to be successful was to follow a course of masculine sex role traits. The most often reported barriers were sex discrimination and the existence of the "old boys' network. Tests of significance were not calculated, even though the author had categorized the women by sex role attitude of male, female or androgynous.

An earlier dissertation (Talley, 1988) studied barriers to advancement experienced by corporate and entrepreneur women. The women cited stereotypical attitudes, discriminatory practices and the existence of the "old boys' network" as common barriers embedded in the corporate structure. The size of company and numbers of years worked did not diminish the impact of barriers. Statistical significance between the corporate and entrepreneur women was found only in the number of adverse barriers. Entrepreneurial women cited a higher percentage of perceived barriers than the corporate women.

An ethnographic dissertation (Wallace, 1994) examined in depth four female hospital executives and concluded the following: The women had to take risks, work at networking, and understand and adapt to the corporate culture in which they found themselves. They learned how to adapt and fit into the "old boys' network" by talking the same talk, always wearing a jacket (to make the men feel comfortable), learning about the system and culture, and either postponing marriage or marrying highly supportive men. The author conducted all interviews and observations herself and suggests that this could have introduced bias into the results.

Summary: Women in Management

Various theories abound to explain the under-representation of women at executive levels in US businesses. There is a sense of betrayal amongst the women. On the one hand, they have made investments in themselves by obtaining MBAs, and believing that along with hard work and experience, fair treatment and recognition would result. Upon discovering otherwise, theorists examined the organization itself, what is rewarded and what is not. The traits that appear to be rewarded by pay increases and promotions are ones that are also stereotypical male traits. If a woman doesn't manifest these traits, then she probably will not end up in her own executive office. On the other hand, businesses might be losing out by not valuing the differences in types of leadership and influence that many women have to offer, regardless of their dissimilarities to men.

The theorists suggest that sex discimination within an organization can ultimately lead to losses and lack of growth for the company if women are not promoted (Hardesty & Jacobs, 1986; Morrison et al., 1987; Rosener, 1996; Schwartz, 1992).

Studies documenting the experiences of women managers and their differences are few in number. The first study reviewed (Sachs et al., 1992) showed that 80% of the managers were either masculine or adrogynous in their gender role orientation. The authors implied that masculine women "would better fit into organizations based on stereotypically masculine principles" (p.96). They further suggested that the women in this study may be self-selected to fit the masculine characteristics of the job. Burke and McKeen's (1993) Canadian study of executive women suggests the same outcome for women who were determined to be career primary. They make more money, have been

employed continuously, and were more likely to have an MBA compared to women who held family as a priority over career. In other words, career primary women have assumed some of the stereotypical male characteristics of the job. The dissertations cited also came to the conclusion that women needed to fit in with the males and adapt their behavior in order to become successful, even if they worked in a female friendly organization. The Catalyst survey of human resource workers, female managers and CEOs came to the same conclusions. Theorization (e.g., Levinson, 1996; Rosener, 1995; Schwartz, 1989) has given impetus to studies concerning perception of barriers, gender-role orientation, career patterns, and successful work experiences. Results of these studies have repeatedly found that the women who take on stereotypical "male" characteristics are the most successful in business organizations.

Satisfaction

The following section focuses on the satisfaction women derive from their work and their lives in general. The salient issues of work and life roles and how they affect the psychological well-being of women are important issues for women, their families and the organizations in which they work. The popular media has been attuned to the unique problems of executive women and the possible affects on the organization and the women themselves. For example, articles in a recent issue of Fortune (Morris, 1997; Nocera, 1997) center on the effects of family on a woman's career. They suggest that at times, the job is more important than the family and women should become comfortable with that notion. Another article (Kurscher, 1996) indicated the characteristics of a

healthy work environment where day care subsidies abound, where women are appointed from within, and where there are on-site fitness centers. Another article (Gearing, 1995) describes a set of symptoms a psychologist labeled as Female Executive Stress Syndrome. The psychologist routinely treats executive women for fatigue, loneliness, depression and stress. These articles highlight the importance of the women feeling good about the work they do.

Other publications focus on women dropping out of the corporate environment. Essays appearing in Fortune (Morris, 1995), the Minneapolis Star Tribune (DePass, 1997) and the Atlanta Journal and Constitution (Poole, 1996) describe the hardships and frustrations of women working in business environments and how much women want to drop out.

Morris (1995) surveyed 300 female corporate women managers and executives on their intentions for the future. The results showed that 45% were thinking of starting their own businesses and 31% were thinking of leaving their jobs and not working. This type of movement is costly for companies.

The popular media highlights the growing dissatisfaction of women in management today. Although women have increased their education and are in management positions in increasing numbers, many do not feel particularly satisfied in their multiple roles (Schuster, 1990). It is possible to be successful according to societal standards (e.g., income, status, material goods) and not satisfied personally just as it is possible to be satisfied personally and not successful according to societal standards.

Measuring different aspects of what makes a person satisfied determines what is valued by a person, and in turn describes what "success" is to that individual.

Work Satisfaction

Dawis and Lofquist (1984) formulated the Theory of Work Adjustment. Their theory suggested that determining the relationship between an individual's personality style, abilities, values, and job requirements and reinforcers would result in work satisfaction and therefore success. An individual has skills and abilities that are brought to a job. Along with that, the person also brings needs and values which, hopefully, will be met by the job. Like the individual, the work environment also has ability requirements and reinforcer systems. According to the Theory of Work Adjustment, career satisfaction occurs when individual ability matches or exceeds job requirements and when the work environment provides the proper reinforcers for the individual (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984; Dawis & Lofquist, 1993; Lawson, 1993).

Hardesty and Jacobs (1986), two disillusioned female executives, gave many anecdotes of women who initially saw themselves as "successful", but eventually felt "betrayed" and dissatisfied as the rewards they received were not what they expected. The authors call this the "myth of reward", where salary and title are not enough for the women. If the women reach the top of the ladder, they look around and wonder why they don't feel satisfied. When women enter the corporate world with high expectations, they become dissatisfied and feel betrayed as they progress. The authors' intent was to replace this fantasy with reality. Hardesty and Jacobs said that "in an era of upward mobility, the rewards will have to shift away from single-minded devotion to promotions

to the idea of making work more palatable. The old corporate fruits of competition and upward mobility may no longer define the standards by which people succeed" (p. 431).

There are conflicting reports on career satisfaction for men and women. One study (Strober, 1982) found that women were more satisfied in their early careers compared to men, while two other studies found no gender difference (Cox & Harquail, 1991; Cox & Nkomo, 1991). Schneer and Reitman (1994) found that there were no gender differences in early career, but by mid-career, women were less satisfied with their careers than men.

Zanna, Crosby and Loewenstein (1987) examined high status women and their level of job satisfaction. The researchers performed secondary analysis of data collected in a previous survey conducted in 1978 (Crosby, 1982). Results showed that one out of four women used a male-reference group in deciding how satisfied she was with her own job. The male reference group was not surprising as the women studied were mostly in male-dominated professions. However, a third of the women who also worked in male-dominated professions used females as a reference group and were found to be more career satisfied than the male-reference group women. The male-reference women made a significantly larger amount of money, tended to be married but childless, felt more deprived and were more pessimistic about their future. Women with a mixed reference group tended to resemble the male-reference group women in their outlook.

A study by Valdez and Gutek (1987) examined role overload. The authors hypothesized that women with the greatest potential for conflict and overload (those who were wife, mother, and employee) would experience more job dissatisfaction than

women with less potential for conflict. The subjects were a representative sample of 827 women surveyed by phone. Inclusion criteria were that the women had to be over 18 years of age, currently employed outside the home at least 20 hours a week and for at least the last 3 months.

The hypothesis went unsupported. Married women expressed the least amount of career dissatisfaction and the never-marrieds showed the highest proportion of dissatisfaction with their jobs. The data also revealed that as education and commitment required of a job increased, there was an increase in the proportion of women who were childless or who had three or less children, if the women held nontraditional positions.

Burke and McKeen (1993) examined the antecedents and consequences of managerial and professional women's career priority patterns. The researchers wanted to know if women chose low career commitment patterns freely or were forced into patterns by the realities of who does the most second shift (i.e., home responsibilities) work. If they were free to choose, what would bring them the most career satisfaction? Results showed that the female MBA graduates who worked, but were career-family women, were less job satisfied, less satisfied with their career success, less involved in their job and had lower promotion expectations than women who were career primary. The career-family women were in lower level positions and held them longer despite the same number of years working for their current employer as the career-primary women. The sample was relatively young (average age 31 years) and the average number of years with the employer was 3.5. The study did not reveal the levels of dissatisfaction or the specific occupations of the women.

Schneer and Reitman (1995) examined female and male MBAs at mid-career, with one hypothesis being that women MBAs at mid-career will be less satisfied with their careers than men. The study, described in detail earlier, provided data on 676 MBAs at two points in time, 1987 and 1993. Career satisfaction was measured as the average response on a 5-point Likert-type scale on the specific dimensions of salary, title, autonomy, responsibility, job security, skill acquisition, use, and advancement. At early career, women were more satisfied than men. By mid-career women were shown to be equally satisfied with their careers as men, although they earned 19% less, were more likely to have experienced career gaps, and were less likely to be in top management positions (9% vs. 23% excluding the self-employeds). Employment gaps and company size were negatively related to career satisfaction, while experience and work significance were positively related. One explanation for these findings might be that women may have had lower expectations to start out and thus found more satisfaction earlier, with an adjustment downward as the rewards did not materialize (Hardesty & Jacobs,1986). It is noteworthy that the Schneer and Reitman research specifically asked if the respondents had felt they had been denied a position because of discrimination. In the later questionnaire, 4% of the men and 30% of the women reported sex discrimination with an additional 23% of the women noting that they might have been subjected to sex discrimination, but were not sure.

Another study (Mason, 1994) examined data from 4348 managerial men and women provided by a North American management consulting company database of 130 organizations. The researcher measured levels of satisfaction about career variables such

as external equity and pay, fair treatment, job interest, and overall job satisfaction. The responses were on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly agree or excellent to strongly disagree or poor.

Managerial men were found to have slightly higher mean scores when satisfaction of comparable worth in pay was measured. Women were slightly higher in their mean scores for all other measures of satisfaction, including co-workers, external equity in pay, performance evaluation and overall job satisfaction. The sexes were equal in level of satisfaction in fair treatment and supervision. Overall, the mean differences between the men and women were small, the largest being .10. Tests of significance between the men and women were not calculated.

Popular literature and some theorists (Hardesty & Jacobs, 1986; Morris, 1995; Morrison & Von Glinow, 1990) have examined the intention to exit corporate life as a measure of satisfaction. An example of research in this area is a study (Miller & Wheeler, 1991) in which the authors expected gender differences in intention to quit to disappear when age, job satisfaction, wage, job tenure, and education were controlled. The researchers used the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) to measure levels of satisfaction in various parts of the job. They found that overall job satisfaction and age were significant predictors of the intent to leave the organization for both men and women managers and executives. However, women were twice as likely to say they might leave. Women were significantly less satisfied with pay increases, opportunities for promotion and recognition. Monetary consideration was not found to be related to

women's intent to leave, but the longer a woman worked for an organization, the stronger was her intention to leave.

Life Satisfaction

As women have added outside work to their daily lives, the stressors of role conflicts and time pressures affect her psychological well-being, her life satisfaction. Life satisfaction has been defined as "a combination of mastery and pleasure" (Lewis & Borders, 1995, p.95), where mastery is the greater contributor, along with total family income and sexual satisfaction (Baruch et al., 1987). Essentially, life satisfaction can be described as the cognitive assessment of a person's advancement toward desired goals (George, 1979). Research has been conducted to better understand and identify issues related to both positive and negative outcomes of employed women, life satisfaction being one of them. Gender role expectations and role stereotypes, by both men and women, can produce unreachable ideals and eventual stress on the woman, her partner, her children, and her work (Barnett & Baruch, 1985; Baruch et al., 1987; Chester & Grossman, 1990; Eichler & Parron, 1987).

Pietromonaco, Manis, and Markus (1987) conducted a study that investigated the relationship of employment to self-perception and well-being. The women were determined to be either career oriented or not career oriented. Results showed that women who were employed full time were found to be happier with themselves and their lives than those who were not employed or employed part time. However, the women who were not career oriented, but were employed full time, did not find greater self-esteem or well-being in their employment. The results suggest that women who find

paid work to be meaningful receive psychological benefits, even though they experience the demands of multiple roles.

Another study (Napholz, 1995) contended that if one has pressure to participate equally in both home and work, a very high degree of work-family conflict might be experienced. Women equally committed to work and family may experience, among other things, lower life satisfaction than women committed to either relationships or work first. Life satisfaction was measured by the Satisfaction with Life Scale (Diener, Emmons, Larsen & Griffin, 1985).

The subjects were working women between the ages of 22 and 62. Most were employed full time (60%) and had children (65%). Results indicated that the women who put their relationships first had the highest life satisfaction scores, followed by women who rated work as their priority. Women who deemed work and relationships as equal in priority had the lowest life satisfaction scores. The differences were not statistically significant between the three groups. The range of the means was 20.0 to 22.3 out of a possible 35. The authors of the scale suggest that these scores fall in the range of slightly satisfied. Overall, the women were considered to be slightly satisfied with their lives no matter what type of commitment (i.e., family or career) they had.

Lewis and Borders (1995) conducted a study that examined life satisfaction in single, professional, middle-aged women. The authors mailed questionnaires to women in three professional organizations of colleges and universities, with the realization that only a portion of the returned responses could be used because of the parameters of the study (e.g., single, childless and middle-aged). There was a return of 224 questionnaires

(43% response rate), with 152 of these meeting the inclusion criteria of the study. The participants were between 35 and 65 years of age and employed as administrators, counselors and faculty members. The majority of the 152 participants had never been married and most had graduate degrees. Life satisfaction was measured by two scales, the Satisfaction with Life Scale and the Semantic Differential Scale. The gender identity of the women as determined by the Bem Sex Role Inventory was masculine (40%), androgynous (38%), undifferentiated (13%), and feminine (10%).

Results indicated that five predictor variables in combination were highly predictive of life satisfaction; job satisfaction, sexual satisfaction, regrets regarding life circumstances, internal locus of control and leisure-time activities, with job satisfaction being the best predictor of life satisfaction. Gender identity was not a significant predictor of life satisfaction. The mean for the Satisfaction with Life Scale was 24.09, putting the group on the border between slightly satisfied and satisfied. The authors suggest that the five significant predictors imply the importance of a balanced life of work and leisure for the subjects.

Beatty (1996) wanted to know if women who entered male-dominated occupational fields experienced high levels of stress and what those stressors were. In this instance, emotional health and well-being were equated with life satisfaction The subjects (N=193, response rate = 38.8%) were drawn from the Who's Who of Canadian Women. Middle and senior managers made up 56% of the sample, with professionals (e.g., academics and engineers) making up approximately 42%. The subjects were successful career women and the intent was not to compare them to men or less

successful women, but to answer some questions about their stress dynamics. The average age was 47 years, most were married with school aged children and 48% had graduate degrees.. The average subject had worked 11 years for her present employer and 83% supervised the work of others.

The author found that the women did not show high levels of anxiety, depression or hostility. Symptoms did not increase for women in higher level positions, as might be expected. In addition, negative outcome measures, such as irritability, depression and illness were not significantly higher for women with children, even when age and number of children were controlled. The women did not have lower rates of marriage or parenthood as compared to the average woman in North America.

This sample was older than most populations, thus it reflected a slightly higher rate of marrieds and those with children. The author suggested that there is a question of the meaning of "successful" because the critera for inclusion in the Who's Who of Canadian Women were vague. Also, it is possible that this sample might reflect an elite group of women, reducing generalizability of the results. Nevertheless, the women were well-adjusted and did not experience undue stress as might be expected in high demand positions.

Summary: Satisfaction

Work satisfaction can be measured from different perspectives. Some researchers assume a person's level of career satisfaction by measuring salary or level of position achieved, assuming the higher the salary or position, the more satisfied the person. In many cases, this may be true. However, it is possible that a person can have

a high salary and be high on the corporate ladder, but not be satisfied with her career. Separate factors need to be assessed in order to arrive at a fuller understanding of career satisfaction.

The studies examining work satisfaction reveal an overall picture of discontent among professional women, especially those in male dominated fields. The women make more money, have less children and feel more deprived and pessimistic than women who compare themselves to men (Zanna et al., 1987). If women hold family as primary, they are less satisfied with success and less involved in their job (Burke & McKeen, 1995) than women who consider their work to be primary. As women enter mid-career, they become less satisfied with their jobs than they were when they first started (Schneer & Reitman, 1995). Schneer and Reitman (1995) suggested that as women gain more experience, their expectations lower. Either greater opportunities and rewards do not present themselves or, as Hardesty and Jacobs (1986) pointed out, the women may become disillusioned with the ethics of the organization and reconsider the desirability of their original goals. Thus, where mental health may deteriorate and thoughts of dropping out occur.

When analysis of specific aspects of work satisfaction are examined, the results are conflicting. On the one hand, men were more satisfied with their comparable worth than women, but women were more satisfied with their co-workers, performance evaluations and in their overall job satisfaction (Mason, 1994). Conversely, women were found to be twice as likely to leave a managerial position than men and were less

satisfied with pay, opportunities for promotion and recognition (Miller & Wheeler, 1992).

Life satisfaction has been shown to be related to job satisfaction. In addition, women in high demand jobs who also are in marriages and have children do not necessarily have diminished life satisfaction. If a woman is committed to her career and finds her work meaningful, she may derive an added sense of well-being. However, the opposite was shown in a different study where women who held family as a priority were more satisfied in life than women who were career-primary. Other factors have an impact on the level of life satisfaction such as priority of work and relationships, a feeling of control on the job, and spousal support.

The overall indication suggests that even in high demand roles, women can report a sense of positive well-being and life satisfaction. What is not known from any of the preceding studies are if the kind of work has an effect on life satisfaction. As many of the authors acknowledge, their studies are mostly exploratory in nature and the topic of life satisfaction must be investigated further for groups of women at similar career stages and in similar occupational groups.

Literature Review Highlights

The subject of women in the corporate world is rich in information and a large body of knowledge has been included in this literature review. Following is a list of highlights from this review.

1. Career development is more than a matching of abilities, skills and interests. Women's career development theory has highlighted the need to take into account a person's family, the economy, socialization practices and the ever-changing environment in which she lives.

2. Women in North America have been socialized to believe that one of their basic roles in life is to nurture and be supportive of others. This concept has entered into the work world as women who work outside the home are found mostly in jobs that are supportive in nature. Men have been socialized to believe that they must be the breadwinners and are encouraged to enter jobs that require aggressiveness and risk taking. These socialization practices have translated into the corporate environment in such a way that men have a tendency to gravitate toward line positions and women to staff positions.

3. Most promotions are made from the candidate pool of employees in line positions. Therefore, in order to be upwardly mobile in careers, people usually have extensive line experience. People in line positions tend to supervise more people, be competitive, generate revenue and are risk takers. These are generally characteristics associated with men, and men, historically, occupy most line positions.

4. The literature suggests that if women want to be successful, they need to think, act, and even dress like men. Even when women do, many women feel that they have to work twice as hard as men to get to the same place, as they meet obstacles not encountered by men.

5. Women's experiences within the corporate environment are different from men's, even when education and years of experience are controlled. Women make less money, supervise less people, and have a tendency to be in staff positions where their work is not as highly rewarded monetarily, or as highly visible as line positions.

6. Women use a different style of power than men. Women exercise power by helping, inspiring and empowering others and they have an interpersonal orientation toward others. Men tend to show their power by being assertive and even aggressive and they tend to be autocratic.

7. Women are effective as leaders, even if their style is different than that of men.

8. The literature suggests that women higher on the corporate ladder are less likely to be married and have fewer children than other women in corporations. Women may have a tendency to give up roles in order to make their lives less complicated, while men do not have to make this sacrifice.

9. Women in high positions in corporations were mixed in their levels of job satisfaction. Two studies found women more satisfied than men at early career, while another study found no difference. Another study found women less satisfied with their careers at mid-career than men. Women MBAs who were career-primary were found to be more satisfied with their careers than career-family MBAs, but the career-family

MBAs were in lower level positions, which confounds the findings. When individual aspects of the job were measured, high level women were found to be less satisfied than men with pay, opportunities for advancement, and recognition. The women were more satisfied compared to the men with overall job satisfaction, their co-workers and external equity.

10. Female managers were found to be more dissatisfied with certain aspects of their careers, i.e. pay increases and opportunities for promotion and recognition, compared to their male peers.

11. Female workers were mixed in their levels of life satisfaction. Career-oriented women working full-time were shown to be more satisfied with their lives than women who were not career-oriented. However, in another study, women who prioritized relationships over work were more satisfied with their lives than women who deemed work and relationships as equal in priority. Also, job satisfaction was shown to be a predictor of life satisfaction in professional, single women.

The concept of women needing to be like men in order to succeed in the business world is not a new one. What is new, however, is that by now, in the late 1990s, many women have had the opportunity to gain the education and experience needed to progress up the corporate ladder, yet they have failed to do so in proportions that might be expected. Studying women who hold line positions and comparing them to women who hold staff positions would furnish more insight into women's career development, their career paths, and their situation in the corporate world.

CHAPTER III

Method

The research for this study was designed to investigate personal and career differences between female MBA graduates in line and staff positions. In addition, the study investigated the level of satisfaction the two groups of women found in their careers and in their lives in general. It is a between-subjects design, meaning that the variations found will emanate from differences between the subjects at one point in time (Cone & Foster, 1995). Female MBA graduates completed a survey where they indicated whether they held a line or staff position within their companies. On that basis, they were divided into two groups (line and staff) and differences between the two groups were examined.

This chapter consists of four sections. The first section is a description of the sample of subjects. The Survey Instrument section describes the survey questionnaire used to gather the data. Procedures are explained in the second section. The Hypothesis and Analysis section states the hypotheses and describes the data analysis.

Subjects

The sample of subjects was taken from a list of female Masters of Business Administration (MBA) graduates from a large midwestern university. The Alumni Relations Department and the Office of the Dean of the School of Management

provided a list of female MBAs who graduated inclusive of the years 1979 through 1990. A summary of the frequency data for the 365 respondents can be found in Appendix D, Table D1. The year 1979 was the first year of computerized records at the school. An average of 28% of the graduating classes from 1979 through 1990 was female. Since 1990, the average has been approximately 32%. There were 1,248 names on the master list. The list was given to the author with the names arranged according to the year of graduation. A questionnaire was sent to every other name on the list, resulting in half of each graduating class receiving the survey.

The parameters for years of graduation were chosen for two reasons. First, one purpose of this study was to examine the lives of women who have had at least seven years of work experience beyond obtaining their master's. The years of graduation targeted were chosen so that most subjects will have had the opportunity to enter their mid-career phase. They will have had time, if they have worked relatively steadily since graduation, to have established themselves professionally. Some graduates worked on their MBAs while employed, so they have had even more experience in their chosen fields. It is after at least seven years of work experience that women's income starts to differ from men's in corporations (Reskin & Ross, 1995; Schneer & Reitman, 1994). Also, by this time women are reappraising their lives and have weathered some storms in their careers (Levinson, 1996). Questioning the women at mid-career allows ample time for them to obtain job experiences and increased exposure to opportunities, presumably putting them on specific tracks within the company. Also, the records of

the students were computerized beginning in 1979, making the student records easily accessible.

Addresses from outside of the United States were not included as the return postage could not be calculated and paid in advance, and female career development may be very different in countries outside of the US if the company was not US based. The foreign address student was replaced by another of the same graduating class, so as to maintain the mailing to 50% of each class. This study was approved by the University's Human Subjects Committee (see Appendix A). Informed consent was assumed upon the return of the questionnaire to the author.

There were 624 questionnaires sent out. Eight were returned unopened and marked undeliverable with no forwarding address by the post office. Two questionnaires were returned by men who had inadvertently been included on the original list from the business school. Therefore, it is assumed that 614 questionnaires reached their proper destination. Of those, 365 questionnaires were returned, either fully or partially completed. This was a return rate of 59.5%.

After inclusion criterion for this study were applied to the 365 returned questionnaires, 253 subjects remained (69.3% of the total respondents). Inclusion criteria were that respondents be currently employed in a business related field and occupy a line or staff position. Those that owned their own businesses or were self-employed, such as consultants, were eliminated as is common practice in these types of studies. It was presumed that business owners and the self-employed were in authority by definition and many of the questions asked in this study would not pertain to them

(e.g., advancement opportunities, independence and responsibility). Also, including the self-employed and business owners may skew the results. For example, many self-employeds consider themselves to be the CEOs of their companies (as did many homemakers). However, they are the only employee and did not have to climb the ladder to get to their position. The inclusion criteria also eliminated respondents such as full-time homemakers, students, and women working in non-business related fields (e.g., food stylist, artist, physical therapist). Table 2 (in Chapter IV) shows the descriptive characteristics of the 253 female MBAs in the final sample.

Procedure

Six-hundred and twenty-four questionnaires were mailed out, along with a cover letter giving a general explanation of the purpose of the study and an assurance of the confidentiality of the responses. A self-addressed stamped envelope was also included. If participants so chose, they could indicate on the outside of the return envelope their desire to receive a summary of results at a later date. Respondents were tracked by a code number which was placed on the address label and on the questionnaire booklet. As each questionnaire was returned, the corresponding code number was crossed off the original master list. Copies of all mailed items are in Appendix B.

One week after the first batch of questionnaires was sent, a reminder postcard was sent to all subjects. Two and a half weeks after the post card was mailed, another questionnaire and stamped, self-addressed envelope were sent to the non-respondents

with a different cover letter (see Appendix B). The master list of names and corresponding code numbers were destroyed at the completion of this study.

Survey Instrument

Data were obtained through a survey booklet that contained three questionnaires: (a) demographic questions and essay, (b) Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), and (c) Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS). Self-report questionnaires were used in order to survey a large sample in the most cost and time efficient manner (see Appendix B).

The format for the questionnaire was constructed under the direction of the Minnesota Center for Survey Research. In addition, several versions of the questionnaire were examined by the Associate Dean of the MBA school and members of the author's doctoral examining committee. Their suggestions as to content, number of items, sequence and format were incorporated into the final version of the questionnaire. An informal pilot was conducted with several acquaintances of the study author who were not on the sample list. The women were involved in business organizations, completed the survey, and offered their comments. The survey questionnaire was done in booklet form, was ten pages in length, with each page being one fourth the size of a legal page. The next sections describe in detail the survey questionnaire sent to the sample.

Demographic Questions

Demographic information included age, date of graduation, ethnic background, income of the past year, marital status, number and ages of children and spousal/partner position and income. Work related questions included current position, employment in a profit or non-profit making organization, self-employed or non-self employed, primary nature of the current position, line or staff position, level of management, number of positions held since receiving MBA, number of employees in organization, number of years in present organization, number of people directly and indirectly supervised, other positions within current company, number of companies worked for since receiving MBA, gaps in employment, and number of hours worked weekly. This section consisted of 25 questions and required approximately 5 minutes to complete. (See Appendix B).

Three open-ended questions were included at the end of the questionnaire (See Appendix B). The questions were provided in order to add richness, detail and clarification to the results obtained (Meloy, 1994). These questions gave the respondents an opportunity to comment on feelings and experiences that have impacted their personal and professional lives both negatively and positively.

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ; Weiss, Dawis, England & Lofquist, 1967) was used to measure different areas of work satisfaction. The long version of the MSQ measures satisfaction on 21 specific work aspects. Specifically, each scale measures the actual satisfaction with a reinforcer in a particular job (Bolton,

1986). For instance, one person may be satisfied with his/her work because it provides an opportunity to satisfy the need for creativity and autonomy. Another person might be just as satisfied with his/her job, but the reasons could be that there is ample opportunity for advancement and he/she is compensated well. The MSQ makes it possible to obtain an individualized picture of worker satisfaction in different areas. The MSQ is useful because it goes beyond obtaining an overall answer to the question of career satisfaction. The instrument allows the researcher the opportunity to pick the most relevant scales out of the twenty-one available and apply them to his/her research. The MSQ is copyrighted and permission to use parts of the instrument was obtained from the Department of Vocational Psychology Research at the University of Minnesota. (See Appendix A).

Eight of the 21 MSQ scales were used for this study. The following is a list of the scales. The MSQ manual utilized the item on the instrument that correlated the highest with the scale score for a group of 1793 employed individuals to describe each scale. A complete list of the items for each scale can be found in Appendix C. The eight scales are:

1. Ability utilization-The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities.
2. Achievement-The feelings of accomplishment I get from the job.
3. Advancement-The chances for advancement on this job.
4. Authority-The chance to tell other people what to do.
5. Compensation-My pay and the amount of work I do.

6. Independence-The chance to work alone on the job.
7. Responsibility-The freedom to use my own judgment.
8. General Satisfaction-This scale is comprised of 20 items from the MSQ.

The total version of the MSQ has a total of 20 scales. Although only 7 scales were used for the present study, the General Satisfaction Scale is comprised of the highest correlated items from each of the 20 scales in the MSQ. Therefore, these 20 items comprising the General Satisfaction Scale were used in the survey questionnaire. (See Appendix C for a list of the 20 items comprising this scale.)

These eight scales constitute 48 questions of the MSQ, which is 48% of the entire instrument. Estimates for completing the entire MSQ range from 15 to 20 minutes. Therefore, subjects of this study were estimated to have completed this part of the questionnaire in about half that time. The instrument is geared to a fifth grade reading level. The subject is instructed to complete the questionnaire by reading each statement and circling one of five possible responses when thinking about his/her present job: The possible responses are: VS (being very satisfied with that particular aspect of his/her job); S (satisfied); N (can't decide if he/she is satisfied or not); D (dissatisfied); and VD (very dissatisfied). A value of five to one points is given to each answer (5 for VS and 1 for VD) and totals for each scale are added together. The scales were scored by computer and raw scores converted into percentiles. A norm group for managers is included in the 1967 MSQ manual. The description of the managerial norm group is as follows: "top executives from the company president

through personnel managers, division managers and department heads" (p. 46). Only one of the managers out of 135 was female in this norm group. The norms were completed in 1967 and may not be applicable to women in this study.

The MSQ authors are currently working on updated norms, but the norms for managers were not available at the time of this study (D. Weiss, personal communication, January 20, 1998). The MSQ authors suggest that a percentile score of 75 or higher represents a high degree of satisfaction with a particular characteristic of the job and a percentile score of 25 or below indicates a low level of satisfaction. If no appropriate norm group exists, as is the case with this study, the authors suggest ranking MSQ raw scores, these rankings then indicate areas of relatively greater or less satisfaction.

Reliability and validity information for the MSQ has been reported by Weiss et al. (1967). Internal consistency reliability was estimated by Hoyt's analysis of variance method. The following is the list of reliability coefficients for the scales used in this study for the managerial norm group given in the 1967 MSQ Manual: Ability utilization = .91; Achievement = .84; Advancement = .95; authority = .91; Compensation = .95; Independence = .83; Responsibility = .83; General satisfaction = .91. Overall, of the 567 Hoyt reliability coefficients reported on 27 norm groups (examples of norm groups are accountants, buyers, managers, nurses, social workers and the employed disabled) with 21 scales each, 85% were .80 or higher and only 2.5% were less than .70. In the ongoing revision, it appears that the reliability coefficients

are being maintained, although the specific norm group of managers is not available. For example, in a group of 122 retail sales people who took the MSQ in 1988, the range of Hoyt reliability coefficients was from .830 to .962, (personal communication, Pat Harness, Vocational Psychology Research Office at the University of Minnesota, 1997) which is similar to the range found for managers in 1967.

Test-retest correlation coefficients demonstrating stability reliability for the MSQ scales at one week were above .75, with five of the scales above .80. At one year, the test-retest coefficients ranged from a low of .35 for independence to .71 for ability utilization. The authors used canonical correlation analysis that yielded an overall score of .89 for the one year interval. The time period of one week may not be long enough "to allow the effects of memory or practice to dissipate" (Byrne, 1996, p. 39) but the one year span between testing clearly accomplishes this. In addition, the one year span may not be short enough to "ensure that test scores are not adversely affected by developmental or historical changes" (Byrne, p. 39).

Construct validity was derived indirectly from construct validation studies of the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire (MIQ) which is based on the Theory of Work Adjustment (TWA) (Weiss, Dawis, England & Lofquist, 1965). This theory "uses the correspondence between the work personality and the work environment as the principal reason for observed work outcomes (satisfactoriness, satisfaction and tenure). Work adjustment depends on how well an individual's abilities correspond to the ability requirements in work, and how well his/her needs correspond to the reinforcers available in the work environment" (p. v, Weiss et al., 1967). Data showed strong

evidence of construct validity for the scales of Ability Utilization and Advancement, and some evidence of construct validity for Authority, Achievement and Responsibility scales. Little evidence of construct validity was found for the Compensation and Independence scales. General satisfaction construct validity was derived from construct validation studies based on the TWA, where general job satisfaction was the dependent variable and the MIQ scale scores the independent variables in a multi-variate prediction analysis (Weiss et al., 1965). The results of these studies showed that the MSQ measured general job satisfaction parallel to expectations from the TWA.

The authors of the MSQ used factor analytic results to support the content validity of the instrument. If the scores are to be valid, "it's essential that the content of its items be interpreted in exactly the same way by all respondents" (Byrne, p. 41). In general, the authors found that about half of the common MSQ scale score variances were represented by seven scales which they considered to represent the extrinsic satisfaction factor (Supervision, Company Policies and Practices, Working Conditions, Advancement, Compensation and Security). The scales that remained (Ability Utilization, Achievement, Activity, Authority, Co-workers, Creativity, Independence, Moral Values, Recognition, Responsibility, Social Service, Social Status, and Variety) defined intrinsic satisfaction scores, which accounted for the other half of the common variance.

Satisfaction with Life Scale

The Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS; Diener, Emmons, Larsen & Griffin, 1985) measures the general level of satisfaction of life (See Appendix C). Life

satisfaction refers to "an assessment of the overall conditions of existence as derived from a comparison of one's aspirations to one's actual achievements" (George, 1979). Two other researchers (Shin & Johnson, 1978) saw life satisfaction as "a global assessment of a person's quality of life according to his chosen criteria " (p. 478). There are myriad factors related to life satisfaction, job satisfaction being one of them (Baruch et al., 1985; Crohan, Antonucci, Adelmann, & Coleman, 1989). Baruch et al. (1985) made the determination that mastery (specifically, paid employment) was one of the greatest contributors to life satisfaction. The SWLS relies on the respondent's own judgment of his/her life and not on the criteria of others. Different people place different values on the same attributes. Therefore, the authors of the SWLS endeavored to obtain a measure of the respondents' overall satisfaction with life, rather than specific aspects of it. They assumed that in order to be happy one has to have full satisfaction with life as a whole, not just parts of it.

The SWLS consists of five statements about the quality of life. Subjects indicate their response using a seven point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree). An overall life satisfaction score ranging from 5 to 35 points is possible, with 35 being the highest level of life satisfaction and 5 being the lowest. A score of 20 represents the neutral point on the SWLS, the point where someone is about equally satisfied and dissatisfied. The authors recommend the following ranges for scoring the instrument: Scores of 5 to 9 designate extreme dissatisfaction; 15 to 19 represent slightly dissatisfied; 21 to 25 represent slightly satisfied and scores between 26 and 30 represent satisfied. The authors did not label scores of 10 to 14 and 31 to

35. For purposes of this study, they are labeled dissatisfied and extremely satisfied, respectively.

The SWLS has demonstrated internal reliability with a coefficient alpha of .87 and a two month test-retest coefficient alpha of .85 (Diener et al., 1985). Temporally, the SWLS shows a decline of stability. Over longer periods of time, changes of satisfaction could be related to good and bad events in the respondents' lives. For instance, Friedman (from a personal communication in Pavot & Diener, 1993) showed that the level of life satisfaction was significantly greater in a group of outpatient therapy clients that had been in therapy for two months compared to a group of people at the beginning of their therapy.

Validity studies show that the SWLS demonstrates adequate convergence with related measures, including interviewer and informant ratings (Pavot et al., 1991). The results of a college population validation showed convergent validity not only with self-report measures, but also with family and peer reports of satisfaction ($r = .54$), self and family ($r = .57$) and self and peer-reported life satisfaction ($r = .55$).

The SWLS has been shown to be negatively correlated with clinical measures of distress (Pavot & Diener, 1993). The SWLS was reported to have a strong negative correlation ($r = -.72$, $p = .001$) with the Beck Depression Inventory (Beck, Ward, Mendelson, Mock & Erbaught, 1961). The SWLS was significantly negatively correlated with eight symptom dimensions of Arrindell and Ettema's Dutch version of the Symptom Checklist-90 (as cited in Pavot & Diener, 1993) that were assessed, most

notably anxiety (r = -.54), depression (r = -.55) and general psychological distress (r = -.55).

Normative data are available for quite diverse populations. These include prisoners, college students of different nationalities, abused women, disabled adults, and psychotherapy clients. A check of some of the mean scores for these populations shows the variability that might be expected in life satisfaction for such varied populations. For instance, male prison inmates showed a group mean of 12.3, while older French-Canadian men had a group mean of 27.9 (out of a range of 5 to 35).

The SWLS authors found that most of the means of the available norm groups fell in the slightly satisfied to satisfied range, which corresponds with the findings found frequently in Western countries where a majority of respondents (non-clinical) usually answer similar instruments above the neutral point.

Social desirability is an ongoing concern in instruments such as the SWLS. Some research has shown that when social desirability is removed from a subjective well-being measure, the resulting measure does not converge as well with subjective reports submitted by peers (Diener, Sandvik, Pavot, & Gallagher, 1991). The authors suggest that the relationship between social desirability and subjective well-being and the SWLS requires more extensive research. Respondents in the current study were not influenced by issues of impression management, since their answers were confidential and would be grouped within an aggregate of results. However, there may be some fallout of self-deception that should be taken into consideration when interpreting the results.

Overall, the SWLS is an instrument that has moderate temporal stability, with fluctuations according to life events. It also shows adequate levels of convergence with others' ratings such as family and peers. It allows the respondents freedom in evaluating their own lives subjectively, holding themselves up to their own standards, rather than outside sources. This is a strength, but it also may be a weakness in that the tester does not know what standards the person holds.

Hypotheses and Analyses

A table of frequencies and percentages for the survey respondents was created in order to report the demographic data and other responses to questionnaire items. This is Table 1 and can be found in the beginning of Chapter 4. The independent variable is the nature of the position, either line or staff. The dependent variables are the personal and career demographics and career and life satisfaction scores. The risk of error was set at a probability level of .05 unless otherwise noted.

The null hypotheses were:

Hypothesis 1: There are no significant differences between female MBA graduates employed in line and staff positions with respect to personal demographics of (a) age, (b) marital status, (c) race, (d) having children, (e) number of children, (f) age of youngest child, (g) income of spouse/partner, and (h) number of hours worked weekly by partner.

Individual t-tests were calculated for levels of significance on the continuous variables of age, number of children, spousal income and spousal work hours. Chi-

square tests were calculated on the discrete variables of marital status, race and age of youngest child.

Hypothesis 2: There are no significant differences between female MBA graduates employed in line and staff positions with respect to the career demographics of (a) management level, (b) income, (c) hours worked weekly, (d) years in current positions, (e) number of people supervised directly, and (f) number of people supervised indirectly.

Individual t-tests were calculated to test for significant differences between the line and staff groups on the continuous variables of number of hours worked weekly, years in position, number of people supervised directly, and number of people supervised indirectly. Chi-square tests were calculated on the discrete variables of level of position and yearly income.

Hypothesis 3: There are no significant differences between female MBA graduates employed in line and staff positions with respect to level of career satisfaction as measured by the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) scales of (a) ability utilization, (b) achievement, (c) advancement, (d) authority, (e) compensation, (f) independence, (g) responsibility, and (h) general career satisfaction.

An individual t-test was calculated on each of the above scales of the MSQ to evaluate any diffferences between the line and staff MBA women.

Hypothesis 4: There are no significant differences between female MBA graduates employed in line and staff positions relating to overall life satisfaction as measured by the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS).

A t-test was calculated on the SWLS score in order to evaluate any differences between line and staff female MBA graduates.

Hypothesis 5: Career satisfaction (as measured by the subscale general career satisfaction on the MSQ) and nature of position (line and staff) do not predict life satisfaction as measured by the SWLS.

A multiple regression was utilized to test how the variables of general career satisfaction as measured by the MSQ and nature of position, line or staff, predict the dependent variable of life satisfaction as measured by the SWLS. Forward selection was used to enter the independent variables into the equation. The first variable considered for entry was the one with the largest (positive or negative) correlation with the dependent variable of life satisfaction. An additional multiple regression analysis was conducted to test what specific scales (ability utilization, achievement, advancement, authority, compensation, independence, and responsibility) of the MSQ predicted life satisfaction.

CHAPTER IV

Results

This study examined work and personal experiences and career and life satisfaction of MBA women working in line and staff positions. The first part of this chapter reports the demographic characteristics of the 253 women studied. The next part states each hypothesis, the analysis, and the results.

Demographic Data

Table 1 shows the frequencies, percentages and means, where appropriate, for the two groups of MBA women, line and staff. There were 132 women in the line category and 121 in the staff group. Not all of the respondents completed each question. The respondents were quite similar on a number of personal demographic characteristics. The line group's average age was 41.6 years, while the staff group's average age was 40.9 years. Almost all of the respondents were European/American (Caucasian), 97.0% of the line group and 94.2% of the staff group. The majority of the women were married (68.9% line and 71.1% staff), and a majority had children (56.8% line and 66.1% staff). Of the women who had children, about half of each group (48.0% line and 48.8% staff) had children younger than six years of age when the survey was completed.

Career characteristics showed line women in greater proportion at top and upper middle positions (40.1% line; 28.1% staff). Both groups of women work at for-profit companies in the same proportion (71.2% line and 71.1% staff). Since MBA graduation, line women had worked at an average of 2.4 companies while staff women worked at an

average of 2.3 companies. The MBA graduates held a variety of positions. Of those who labeled themselves CEO or Executive Director, none were in staff positions, while 3.8% were in line positions. When the top three categories were combined, CEO/Executive Director, Director and Vice-president, 37.9% of the MBA women in line positions held these titles, while 27.3% of the women graduates in staff positions held these titles. Approximately one fourth (26.5%) of the women in line positions held the title of manager, while 38.0% of the staff women are managers. The category labeled "other" under "Current Position" is comprised of jobs such as project leader, prospect researcher, staffing specialist, management specialist, and review examiner.

Over half (54.5%) of the women in the line group experienced at least one gap in their employment, while almost two-thirds (63.6%) of the staff women had at least one gap. Both groups of women work an average of over 40 hours per week (46.9 hours line; 44.1 hours staff). Over 40% of the women in both groups (40.2% line; 42.1% staff) work in organizations with over 10,000 employees. The women tend to work in large organizations with 65.9% of the line women and 71.0% of the staff women employed in organizations with over 1000 employees.

More line women compared to staff women earned a yearly income of over $100,000 (25.8% line versus 16.5% staff). However, slightly more staff women compared to line women earned between $50,001 to $100,000 (52.3% line; 58.7% staff).

Table 1.

Frequency and Percentages of Female MBA Graduates In Line and Staff Positions

	Line		Staff	
	n	%	n	%
Year of MBA				
1979 - 81	14	10.6	17	14.1
1982 - 84	41	30.7	31	25.5
1985 - 87	30	22.7	30	24.8
1988 - 90	47	35.7	43	35.5
Mean Age	40.9 years		41.6 years	
Current Position				
Manager	35	26.5	46	38.0
VP	23	17.4	11	9.1
Director	22	16.7	22	18.2
Professor/Teacher	14	10.6	3	2.5
Consultant	6	4.5	4	3.3
CEO/Exec. Dir.	5	3.8	0	0

	Line		Staff	
	n	%	n	%
Analyst	4	3.0	13	10.7
Other	23	17.4	22	18.2
Management Level				
Top	13	9.8	6	5.0
Upper Middle	40	30.3	28	23.1
Middle	36	27.3	43	35.5
Lower Middle	3	2.3	15	12.4
Supervisory	2	1.5	6	5.0
Non-Management	35	26.5	22	18.2
No Response	3	2.3	1	.8
Work in For-Profit Organizations				
Yes	94	71.2	86	71.1
No	38	28.8	35	28.9

	Line		Staff	
	n	%	n	%
Gap in Employment (at least one month)				
Yes	72	54.5	77	63.0
No	60	45.5	44	36.4
Mean Number of Gaps	2.0	71	1.8	77
Personal 1996 Income				
0 - $30,000	9	6.8	8	6.7
$30,001 - $50,000	17	12.9	21	17.4
$50,001 - $75,000	41	31.1	42	34.7
$75,001 - $100,000	28	21.2	29	24.0
$100,001 - $150,000	19	14.4	16	13.2
+ $150,000	15	11.4	4	3.3
No Response	3	2.3	1	.8
Number of Employees in Organization				
1-15	6	4.5	4	3.3
16-50	3	2.3	4	3.3

	Line		Staff	
	n	%	n	%
51 - 100	5	3.8	1	.8
101 - 200	8	6.1	7	5.8
201 - 500	12	9.1	6	5.0
501 - 1,000	10	7.6	13	10.7
1,001 - 2,500	9	6.8	9	7.4
2,501 - 5,000	14	10.6	12	9.9
5,001 - 10,000	11	8.3	14	11.6
+ 10,000	53	40.2	51	42.1
Mean Years in Current Job	3.5 years		2.8 years	
Mean Number of People Supervised				
Directly	3.41		3.25	
Indirectly	19.80		8.34	
Mean Hours Worked Weekly	46.9 hours		44.1 hours	

	Line		Staff	
	n	%	n	%
Race				
African/American	1	.8	2	1.7
Asian	3	2.3	3	2.5
Caucasian/White	128	97.0	114	94.2
Other	--	--	2	1.7
Marital Status				
Married	91	68.9	86	71.1
Long-term Partner	7	5.3	4	3.3
Single/Never Married	23	17.4	20	16.5
Divorced	8	6.1	11	9.1
Widowed	3	2.3	0	0
Have Children				
Yes	75	56.8	80	66.1
No	57	43.2	41	33.9
Mean Number of Children	2.2		2.2	

	Line		Staff	
	n	%	n	%
Age of Youngest Child				
Less than 5 years old	36	27.3	39	32.2
6-18 years old	27	20.5	29	24.0
over 18 years old	12	9.1	10	8.3
Occupation of Spouse/Partners				
Business Related	43	32.6	42	34.7
Health/Arts/Social Work	12	9.1	8	6.7
Science/Technology	23	17.4	18	14.9
Law	1	.8	6	3.3
Not Employed	6	4.5	7	15.8
Other	7	5.3	9	7.4
Missing Data	40	30.3	33	27.3
Spouse/Partner Income				
$0 - $30,000	16	12.1	10	8.3
$30,001 - $50,000	18	13.6	24	19.8

	Line		Staff	
	n	%	n	%
$50,001 - $75,000	25	18.9	17	14.0
$75,001 - $100,000	15	11.4	18	14.9
$100,001 - $150,000	12	9.1	9	7.4
+ $150,000	6	4.5	7	5.8
Missing Data	40	30.3	36	29.8

Null Hypotheses, Analyses, and Results

Hypothesis 1: There were no significant differences between female MBA graduates employed in line and staff positions with respect to personal demographics of (a) age, (b) marital status, (c) race, (d) having children, (e) number of children, (f) age of youngest child, (g) income of spouse/partner, and (h) number of hours worked weekly by partner.

Table 2 reports the results of chi-square tests on the dichotomous personal variables comparing line and staff employees (also see Appendix D, Table D2). There were no significant differences ($p > .05$) between line and staff women on the personal variables of marital status, race, having children, age of youngest child, or spouse/partner's income.

Table 3 reports mean levels and standard deviations on the continuous personal variables comparing line and staff employees. No significant differences ($p > .05$) were found between the line and staff employees on the variables of age, number of children and hours worked weekly by the spouse/partner. Based on the results reported in Tables 2 and 3, the first null hypothesis was not rejected.

Table 2.

Frequencies and Percentages for Personal Variables Comparing Line and Staff Employees

	Line		Staff		
	n	%	n	%	p
Marital Status					.38
Married	91	68.9	86	71.1	
Partner	7	5.3	4	3.3	
Single/Never Married	23	17.4	20	16.5	
Divorced	8	6.1	11	9.1	
Widowed	3	2.3	0	0	
Race					.44
African/American	1	.8	2	1.7	
Asian	3	2.3	3	2.5	
Caucasian/White	128	97.0	114	94.2	
Other	--	--	2	1.7	
Have Children					.13
Yes	75	56.8	80	66.1	
No	57	43.2	41	33.9	

	Line		Staff		
	n	%	n	%	p
Age of Youngest Child					.85
Less than 6 years old	36	48.0	39	50.0	
6-18 years old	27	36.0	29	37.2	
Over 18 years old	12	16.0	10	12.8	
Partner Income					.44
$0 - $15,000	7	7.6	7	8.2	
$15,001 - $30,000	9	9.8	3	3.5	
$30,001 - $50,000	18	19.6	24	28.2	
$50,001 - $75,000	25	27.2	17	20.0	
$75,001 - $100,000	15	16.3	18	21.2	
$100,001 - $150,000	12	13.0	9	10.6	
+ $150,000	6	6.5	7	8.2	

Note. Chi-square tests on the variables of marital status, ($\chi^2 = 4.7$, df = 4, p = .38), race ($\chi^2 = 2.67$, df = 3, p = .45), having children ($\chi^2 = 2.29$, df = 1, p = .13), age of youngest child ($\chi^2 = .31$, df = 2, p = .85) and income of spouse/partner ($\chi^2 = 5.89$, df = 6, p = .44) showed no significant differences.

Table 3.

Means and Standard Deviations for Personal Variables Comparing Line and Staff Employees

	Line			Staff				
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	t	p
Age	132	40.9	5.8	121	41.6	6.0	-.97	.33
Number of Children	75	2.2	.9	79	2.2	.8	-.04	.97
Hours Worked Weekly By Spouse/Partner	89	44.4	13.7	86	41.3	13.8	1.48	.14

Note. t-tests on the variables of age (t = -.97, p=.33), number of children (t = -.04, p = .97), and hours worked weekly by spouse/partner (t = 1.48, p = .14) showed no significant differences.

Hypothesis 2: There were no significant differences between female MBA graduates employed in line and staff positions with respect to the career demographics of (a) management level, (b) income, (c) hours worked weekly, (d) years in current position, (e) number of people supervised directly, and (f) number of people supervised indirectly.

Table 4 reports the chi-square test results for the dichotomous variables of management level and personal income (see also Appendix D, Table D3). A significant difference was found between the groups on management level, ($p < .01$). Female MBA graduates in line positions held significantly higher positions than graduates in staff positions. No significant difference ($p > .05$) was found on the personal income variable.

Table 4.

Frequencies and Percentages for Career Variables Comparing Line and Staff Employees

	Line		Staff		
	n	%	n	%	p
Management Level					.003*
Top	13	10.1	6	5.0	
Upper Middle	14	31.0	28	23.3	
Middle	36	27.9	43	35.8	
Lower Middle	3	2.3	15	12.5	
Supervisory	2	1.6	6	5.0	
Non-Management	35	27.1	22	18.3	
No Response	3	2.4	1	.8	
Personal 1996 Income					.207
$0 - $15,000	5	3.9	2	1.7	
$15,001 - $30,000	4	3.1	6	5.0	
$30,001 - $50,000	17	13.2	21	17.5	
$50,001 - $75,000	41	31.8	42	35.0	
$75,001 - $100,000	28	21.7	29	24.2	
$100,001 - $150,000	19	14.7	16	13.3	

	Line		Staff		
	n	%	n	%	p
+ $150,000	15	11.6	4	3.3	
No Response	3	2.4	1	.8	

Note. A chi-square test on the variable of management level ($\chi^2 = 17.98$, df = 5) showed a significant difference between the line and staff MBA graduates ($p = .003$). A chi-square test on the variable of personal 1996 income ($\chi^2 = 8.45$, df = 6) showed no significant difference ($p = .207$).

Table 5 reports means and standard deviations between line and staff women for the continuous career variables of hours worked weekly, years in current position and number of people supervised. Significant differences were found on the variables of hours worked weekly ($p < .05$) and number of people indirectly supervised ($p < .05$). Female MBA graduates in line positions worked more hours per week compared to women in staff positions (though barely significant). MBA graduates in line positions indirectly supervise more people than MBA graduates in staff positions. No significant differences were found on the career variables of income, years in current position and number of people supervised directly. Therefore, the results reported in Tables 4 and 5 offer support to partially reject the second hypothesis.

Table 5.

Means and Standard Deviations for Career Variables Comparing Line and Staff Employees

	Line			Staff				
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	t	p
Hours Worked Weekly	132	46.9	11.6	120	44.1	10.7	2.01	.046*
Years in Current Position	132	3.5	3.7	120	2.8	2.7	1.62	.106
No. of People Supervised								
Directly	128	3.4	4.9	118	3.3	3.4	.300	.765
Indirectly	116	19.8	57.2	109	8.3	14.9	2.08	.039*

Note. t - tests on the variables of hours worked weekly (t = 2.01, p = .046) and number of people supervised indirectly. (t = 2.08, p = .040) showed significant differences. t - tests on the variables of years in current position (t = 1.62, p = .106) and number of people supervised directly (t = .30, p = .765) showed no significant differences. mention. *Indicates statistical significance.

Hypothesis 3: There are no significant differences between female MBA graduates employed in line and staff positions with respect to level of career satisfaction as measured by the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) scales of: (a) ability utilization, (b) achievement, (c) advancement, (d) authority, (e) compensation, (f) independence, (g) responsibility, and (h) general career satisfaction.

Individual t-tests were calculated on the scales of the MSQ to evaluate differences between the line and staff MBA graduates. The number of respondents varies for each scale as the scale includes only those who completed all items for that particular scale. Significant differences ($p < .05$) were found on the scales of ability utilization, achievement, and responsibility. Women in line positions were found to be significantly more satisfied with the opportunities in their jobs to apply their skills, (ability utilization, $p = .046$), accomplish their goals, (achievement, $p = .042$), and hold responsible positions (responsibility, $p = .036$). There were no other significant differences in the remaining scales; advancement, authority, compensation, independence, and general career satisfaction between the line and staff women. Therefore, based on the results reported in Table 6, the third null hypothesis was partially rejected.

Table 6.

Means and Standard Deviations for Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire Scales

	Line			Staff				
	n[1]	M	SD	n[1]	M	SD	t	p
Ability Utilization	126	21.1	3.8	119	20.1	4.2	2.00	.046*
Achievement	129	21.2	3.1	119	20.4	3.0	2.04	.042*
Advancement	126	17.1	5.1	117	16.7	4.8	.61	.541
Authority	124	19.4	3.1	116	19.2	3.1	.49	.623
Compensation	123	18.5	4.2	119	18.2	4.3	.58	.560
Independence	122	20.4	3.2	118	19.7	3.2	1.68	.093
Responsibility	125	21.2	2.6	118	20.5	2.7	2.11	.036*
General Career Satisfaction	120	79.0	9.8	114	77.2	10.4	1.38	.168

[1]Includes only those who completed all items on each of the 8 scales.

*Indicates statistical significance.

Hypothesis 4: There are no significant differences between female MBA graduates employed in line and staff positions in overall life satisfaction as measured by the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS).

An individual t-test was calculated on the SWLS score to evaluate differences between line and staff MBA graduates. No significant difference was found between the female MBA graduates in line and staff positions on the SWLS as shown on Table 7. Therefore hypothesis 4 was not rejected.

Table 7.

Mean and Standard Deviation of the Satisfaction with Life Scale

	Line			Staff				
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	t	p
SWLS Score	132	26.9	6.1	121	26.1	6.2	1.03	.305

Hypothesis 5: Career satisfaction (as measured by the general career satisfaction scale of the MSQ) and nature of position (line and staff) do not predict life satisfaction as measured by the SWLS.

A forward selection multiple regression analysis was used to determine the relationship of the independent variables, general career satisfaction and nature of position, line/staff, to the dependent variable, life satisfaction. The results of the regression analysis appear in Table 8. The procedure yielded a portion of the variance explained by the

predictor variables. General career satisfaction as measured by the MSQ was the only variable to meet criteria and explained 14.91% of the variance in life satisfaction, as measured by the SWLS. The variable of staff/line did not contribute to the equation. Therefore, hypothesis 5 was partially rejected.

An additional multiple regression analysis was conducted to test what specific scales of the MSQ predicted life satisfaction. This was not part of the original hypothesis 5, but provided more in-depth understanding of specific subscale combinations of career variables that predict life satisfaction, possibly accounting for more variance than the general career satisfaction score. The results of this multiple regression analysis and the intercorrelations of the MSQ scales are shown in Tables D4 and D5 in Appendix D. The independent variables entered into the analysis were: ability utilization, achievement, advancement, authority, compensation, independence, and responsibility. The dependent variable was life satisfaction. The independent variables of responsibility, compensation, and ability utilization met the criterion and were entered into the regression equation. Together, they explain 22.39% of the variability in the dependent variable of life satisfaction.

Table 8.

Multiple Regression for Independent Variables Predicting Life Satisfaction (N=233)

Variable	Mult R	R^2	F	p
Step 1				
General Career Satisfaction	.386	.149	40.664	.000*

*Indicates statistical significance

Open-ended Question Results

There were three questions at the end of the questionnaire, allowing the women the opportunity to write about some of their career experiences. Approximately 60% of the women chose to comment on at least one of the questions, many on all three. The first questions was: What do you find the most satisfying about working in the field of business? The second questions read: What do you find the most frustrating about working in the field of business? The third asked if there was anything else they wanted to mention about their lives after completing their MBA. Women either skipped this question or reiterated what they said in their other responses. Many wrote about the value the MBA has or has not added to their lives. A summary of the themes found in the first two questions may be found in Appendix D, Table D6.

The responses to the first question, of what the women found the most satisfying in the field of business, revealed that both groups of women, line and staff, wrote about the challenge of their jobs the most often. They expressed this in various ways, i.e. they had challenging positions which were dynamic in nature; they were exhilarated by constant variety and new learning opportunities. One woman commented, "I wake up and go to a new job each morning." Another woman stated, "There is continuous learning and intellectual stimulation."

The second most satisfying area mentioned by both groups of women was the feeling of satisfaction derived from taking charge of a project and seeing results. They loved solving problems and enjoyed the strong sense of accomplishment when a project was successfully completed. A representative comment was, "I find very satisfying the sense of accomplishment I get when I'm handed a project to complete and I'm able to plan and implement it on time." Another said she found satisfaction in "corralling all the energy, passion and creativity of diverse individuals and channeling them towards a commonly held goal."

Other areas mentioned often by both groups were having the opportunity to use their abilities, being influential and helping others through coaching and mentoring. Both groups also valued the relationships they established, especially with their co-workers.

There were differences that emerged between the two groups of women on other facets of their jobs. Line women mentioned compensation and benefits as a satisfying aspect of their job, more often than staff women. One line woman commented, "I can't believe I am paid to take people out to lunch and golf!" Women often mentioned the

appreciation they had for the lifestyle their income affords them. A number of women commented on hard work that brings financial results. The line women also enjoyed their independence and decision-making ability, while only a few staff women mentioned this. Some women in staff positions mentioned working for a non-profit organization as very satisfying . They also appreciated the latest technology that made their jobs easier.

The most often mentioned area of frustration for both groups of women was politics. They wrote about incidents of promotions given for "style over substance" and hat one was rewarded for "who you know, not what you know". They talked about egos that had to be massaged, of how they could not speak candidly, and how appearance was more important than results.

The next most often mentioned frustration was how women are treated differently compared to men. One woman talked about having to work "harder and smarter" than men, and of men getting more promotions because "he's a golfing buddy of the boss". Many women mentioned unequal pay, the glass ceiling and lack of female role models at the upper management levels. Also, a number of women wrote about loneliness, that "I am the only woman at my level and it's been this way for years". Both groups similarly mentioned differential treatment between men and women.

The third main area of concern for women was the lack of balance in their lives. They stated that there should be "more family friendly companies" and that "the business world still has so little regard for family schedules and life." One woman was considering leaving her place of employment because of the "inflexibility of some employers when it

comes to scheduling". The women wanted more time with their families and more personal time for such things as reading and exercise.

Both groups also mentioned other areas of frustration. They include: incompetent management (especially at the upper levels), businesses that are slow to change or make decisions, and resource constraints. A number of women in both groups wrote about the guilt they felt working in a profit-driven environment. Some mentioned wanting to volunteer in places like homeless shelters in order to assuage their guilt, but they did not have the time. Very few mentioned low compensation as a frustration.

Summary of Results

In summary, the results showed that in the sample:

- MBA female graduates in line and staff positions did not differ on any of the personal demographics of age, marital status, race, having children, number and age of children, and income of and number of hours worked weekly by spouse/partner.
- The women in line positions had significantly higher means compared to women in staff positions on three of the six career demographic characteristics (i.e., management level, hours worked weekly and number of people supervised indirectly). The two groups of women did not differ on income, years in current position and number of people supervised directly.
- The women in line positions had significantly higher scores on three of the MSQ scales. The scales were ability utilization, achievement, and responsibility. They did

not differ on the scales of advancement, authority, compensation, independence and general career satisfaction.

- No significant difference was found between the women on their level of life satisfaction as measured by the SWLS.
- General career satisfaction as measured by the MSQ was found to be a significant factor in predicting life satisfaction, while the nature of the position (line and staff) was not found to be a predictor.
- Qualitative data collected through open-ended questions revealed career satisfaction themes of challenging and dynamic positions, constant variety and new learning opportunities, satisfaction from taking charge and seeing results, and having the opportunity to use their abilities. Career frustration themes included politics, being treated differently than men, and finding balance between their personal and professional lives. The only noticeable difference between the two groups of women was that the line women mentioned satisfaction with their compensation more often than staff women.

CHAPTER V

Summary and Discussion

Summary of Study

The main purpose of this study was to assess career and life satisfaction between line and staff female MBA managers at mid-career. Little research has focused on the career paths chosen by female MBA graduates, their differences, and the impact those choices make. An impetus behind this study was the desire to obtain information about the reasons for the under-representation of women in higher levels of management in US businesses. Previous research has focused primarily on the differences between female and male managers, their earnings, demographics, style of leadership, effectiveness, developmental opportunities and authority (e.g., Jacobs & McClelland, 1994; Ohlott et al., 1994; Reskin & Ross, 1995; Schneer & Reitman, 1995). Studies have suggested that a reason why women are not in the higher echelons of organizations is that they occupy fewer line positions. In organizations, employees in line positions tend to be promoted more (Catalyst, 1992; Catalyst, 1994; Cox & Harquail, 1991; Kanter, 1977; Korn/Ferry, 1993). Research has shown line positions to be jobs that are revenue-generating, highly visible, afford developmental challenges, are authoritarian in nature, and stereotypically male-oriented (Cox & Harquail, 1991; Hatcher, 1991). If a woman wanted to advance within an organization, it would behoove her to pursue a line position within the company.

Questionnaires were sent to 624 female MBA graduates of a large mid-western university, who received their MBA degrees between 1979 and 1990. Out of 365 responses (a return rate of 59%), 253 respondents met the inclusion criteria for the study; they worked for an organization, either profit or non-profit, and they were not self-employed. The 253 women in the final group were comprised of 132 female MBAs in line positions and 121 in staff positions. Participants answered questions about personal and career characteristics and responded to the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) and a shortened version of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ).

The most important feature of this study and one that sets it apart from other studies of MBA graduates is the comparison of female respondents by the nature of their position. It is a variable that a number of researchers have suggested for future research (e.g., Burke, 1991; Burke & McKeen, 1995; Hatcher, 1991; Horgan, 1989).

The major findings of this study showed that the women in staff and line positions did not differ on personal characteristics of age, marital status, race, having children, number of children, age of youngest child, and income and number of hours worked weekly by partner. The two groups of women were significantly different on the career characteristics of; management level, hours worked weekly and the number of people supervised indirectly. In all cases of significance, the women in line positions had higher means than women in staff positions. The women did not differ on income, years in current position, and number of people supervised directly.

Significant differences in three scales measuring areas of career satisfaction were found on the MSQ; ability utilization, achievement and responsibility. Women in line positions were significantly higher on these three scales of the MSQ compared to women in staff positions, meaning the line women found more satisfaction in the areas compared to the staff women. The line and staff women did not differ on their level of overall career or life satisfaction. Also, overall career satisfaction was shown to be a significant predictor of life satisfaction, while the function of position, line or staff, did not predict life satisfaction.

Discussion of Results

Personal Characteristics

Women in line positions had the same likelihood of being married as staff women and were similar in age and race. They were also similar in number and age of their children, and in income and hours worked by their spouse/partner.

The racial make-up of the women in this study was very homogenous, as 97% of the line women and 94.2% of the staff women were Caucasian/White. Previous studies showed high proportions of Caucasians also (e.g., Kazal-Thresher, 1990, 88.8%; Korn/Ferry, 1992, 95.0%). In addition, the women's ages were similar to female managers found in other studies. In this study, the average age for line women was 40.9 years and for staff women, 41.6 years. Other studies of female managers showed average ages of 41 years (Schneer & Reitman, 1995), 39 years (Ohlott et al.,

1994), 44 years (Korn/Ferry, 1992), and 45 years (Lyness & Thompson, 1997). The latter two studies were of executives, which probably accounts for the older age.

Marital status was also similar. In the present study, 68.9% of the line women and 71.1% of the staff women were married. Other studies reported marriage rates of 72% (Catalyst, 1992; Schneer & Reitman, 1995) and 68.8% (Korn/Ferry, 1992). The current study's participants had more children than other studies. Both the line and staff women had an average of 2.2 children. Other studies found that women had an average of 1.2 children (Korn/Ferry, 1992) and 1.7 children (Kazal-Thresher, 1990).

Spousal/partner hours worked weekly, i.e., 44.4 hours for line women and 41.3 hours for staff, were less than the Kazal-Thresher (1990) study where spouses worked an average of 51.1 hours per week. Comparison of spousal income with other studies was difficult as this study asked the participants to select categories of yearly income and other studies reported average yearly income. Overall, the sample in this study of female MBA graduates show similar personal characteristics to female managers in other studies.

The lack of significant differences between staff and line women on personal characteristics was surprising since previous literature (Kazal-Thresher, 1990; Korn/Ferry, 1992; Lyness & Thompson, 1997; Valdez & Gutek, 1987) reported that women at higher levels in business organizations gave up some of their roles (e.g., wife and mother) in order to devote more time to their careers. Under the assumption that women in line positions are in higher positions in their company than women in staff positions, it would then follow, according to the cited literature, that female managers

pay a higher price in their personal lives for their success, by not marrying or having children. This hypothesis was not supported in this study. The results indicate that women in line positions in this study, presumably women in the pipeline for future promotions, chose other life roles just as often as staff women. The women in line positions did not sacrifice interests outside of work so that they could devote more time to their career.

As both groups of women appear to have the same amount of nonwork responsibilities outside of their jobs, it is not surprising that women in both groups commented on the dissatisfaction they felt with maintaining balance in their lives. Data gathered from answers to open-ended questions revealed how some women felt. Some wrote that they felt they were not doing either job well. For instance, a senior manager at a consulting firm commented that "balancing time between personal and professional goals and obligations is frustrating. At times, I come home from work and think, 'is that all?'. It isn't very satisfying on a personal nature." Another woman said "There is always something to be done. When I leave work I think of what needs to be done and I feel guilt for leaving work behind." Others were positive about maintaining balance, but these comments were fewer. For example, an executive director of marketing stated "Life is a juggling act between work and kids, but overall it's very happy and rewarding."

Others have set their own personal limits on how to maintain balance in both their career and personal worlds. A manager of information services declared

> Over the course of the eleven years since I got my MBA, I have come to realize that balance is more important than business achievement. Families, friends, personal activities often get short shrift in the quest to climb the corporate ladder. The transient satisfaction of achieving another rung comes at a heavy price, which I'm not willing to pay too often. I am focusing more and more on who I am and worrying less and less about how much money I make and where I stand in an artificial hierarchy like a business!

Many of the remarks suggest that women realize there are rewards in both of their worlds, work and home. They do not want to sacrifice one experience for the other and are careful to weigh what is important by not giving up too much of themselves.

Career Characteristics

Although the personal characteristics of the line and staff women were not different, there were career differences between the two groups. The first concerned management level. As might be expected, the women in line positions tended to hold higher company positions than the women in staff positions. Upon examination of the proportion of women in top and upper middle positions, 41% of the line women compared to 28% of the staff women fell into these two categories. The lower middle management positions were composed of 2.3% line women and 12.5% staff women. The fact that line women were at higher levels in the management hierarchy supports previous literature that concluded that those in line positions (usually men) are more

likely to be in higher corporate positions than staff employees (usually women) (Boyd et al., 1991; Catalyst, 1992 & 1996; Cox & Harquail, 1991; Hatcher, 1991; Ohlott et al., 1994; Schneer & Reitman, 1995). This finding suggests that line positions are related to upper management positions. The fact that male managers have been found to be at higher levels than female managers, therefore, may have more to do with the nature of the position prior to promotion than the gender of the manager (Lyness & Thompson, 1997; Olson, Good & Frieze, 1987).

The second significant difference between the staff and line managers was the number of hours worked weekly. Women in line positions worked an average of 46.9 hours per week, while women in staff positions worked an average of 44.1 hours per week. While the difference was found to be significant, it may not be that meaningful as it was less than a three hour weekly difference, about thirty minutes a day in a five day work week. Other studies found that executive women worked an average of 56 hours per week (Korn/Ferry, 1992) and high and mid-income female MBAs worked from 41 to 65 hours weekly (Kazal-Thresher, 1990). The Korn/Ferry study examined executive women only and the Kazal-Thresher study did not average the number of hours worked weekly. Both studies, however, did find that men worked more hours weekly than women, but the differences were not statistically significant.

The third significant career difference found was that women in line positions indirectly supervised more people than women in staff positions. This also corresponds to the literature as male managers, assumed to be mostly in line positions, have been found to supervise more people than female managers. For example, Kazal-Thresher

(1990) found that men supervised more people directly and indirectly and found this to be significant in explaining the wage differential between male and female managers. Burke (1991) found that women supervised significantly fewer people than men (2.6 versus 8.1) in the early years of their management careers. Reskin and Ross (1995) found that male managers were twice as likely (compared to women) to supervise subordinates who supervised others, thus male managers indirectly supervised more people than female managers. Also, female executives were found to supervise significantly less people than male executives (Lyness & Thompson, 1997)

In the current study, the line managers indirectly supervised an average of 19.8 people, while staff women indirectly supervised an average of 8.3, a statistically significant difference. The range for indirect supervisees of line women was 0 to 500 individuals, for staff, it was 0 to 70. These numbers suggest that the line women have a more far-reaching network of authority over others, putting them in a more visible position for promotions and giving them added experience compared to staff women.

The three career variables that did not yield significant differences were as follows: income, years in current position, and number of people supervised directly. The fact that the line women's income was not significantly higher than the women in staff positions was surprising, especially since they were at higher management levels. No studies could be found comparing the income of staff and line women. In studies comparing male and female manager income, male managers received, on average, $10,000 more per year compared to female managers (Chauvin & Ash, 1994; Jacobs, 1995; Kazal-Thresher, 1990; Schneer & Reitman, 1995; Reskin & Ross, 1995).

It has been suggested that women do not expect high salaries and that they are grateful to have a position (Hardesty & Jacobs, 1986; Schneer & Reitman, 1994). Some also have hinted that monetary reward is not that important to women and they do not pressure employers for equity in this area (Summers, 1988; Tromski & Subich, 1990). The compensation scale on the MSQ showed both groups of women to be satisfied with their incomes, however it was one of the lowest areas of satisfaction when compared to other areas of job satisfaction.

Many women commented on income when asked what they found satisfying about their jobs. A telecommunications manager stated that she found "good financial rewards for my effort and skills." A retail account executive exclaimed "I'm paid well for what I do. I have a large expense account. It's hard to believe I'm paid for taking customers to lunch or on a golf course." Many women realized they were earning much more than if they went into more traditionally female occupations such as nursing or teaching. They were grateful for the lifestyle their income provides. There were some comments regarding unequal pay (to men), but very few regarding low compensation.

Years in current position did not show a significant difference between the two groups. The line women were in their positions an average of 3.5 years and the staff women, an average of 2.8 years. Comparable studies contrasting women in line and staff positions for number of years in current position could not be found. However, in one study (Ohlott et al., 1994) where 43% of the men and 34 % of the women held line positions, the men had worked an average of 3.5 years and the women, an average of

2.8 years in their current positions, identical to the number of years of work in the current study.

Line position women were not found to directly supervise more people than staff women. The average number of people directly supervised by line women was 3.4 and for staff, 3.2. However, the line women indirectly supervised more people than staff women. This is somewhat confusing, as it would be expected that line women would also directly supervise more people than staff women. Ohlott et al. (1994) found that line and staff women combined reported a greater degree of influencing without direct authority than the men. This may be what is occurring with the current sample of women. The line women's indirect authority was greater than their direct authority, as was true for the staff women. However, the line women's indirect authority was more extensive.

To summarize, female MBA graduates in line positions were found to be at higher management levels, work more hours weekly and indirectly supervise more people than women in staff positions. However, there were no significant differences found between the two groups on income, the length of time in their current positions, and the number of people they directly supervise. The finding of no significant difference in income was probably the most surprising, as it would be expected that line women would make more money than women in staff positions.

Satisfaction

The next part of the study examined differences in career and life satisfaction between the line and staff women. While line women showed higher scores on each MSQ scale, only 3 of the 8 scales showed significant differences. Line women were found to be more satisfied with three aspects of their jobs: ability utilization (the chance to do work that makes use of skills, $p = .046$), sense of achievement (the feeling of accomplishment from the job, $p = .042$), and responsibility (the freedom to make decisions and utilize one's own judgment at work, $p = .036$). Responsibility, achievement, and ability utilization are similar to characteristics found of female managers high on the corporate ladder (Burke & McKeen, 1995). The results of that study showed that work experiences were significantly related to measures of career success. Those who were successful felt they were very involved in their jobs, were satisfied with their careers, that they had achieved quite a bit, and had challenging work assignments. In the current study, there were no significant differences between the two groups of women on the scales of advancement (the opportunity to advance job level, $p = .541$) , authority (the opportunity to direct others, $p = .623$), independence (the chance to work by oneself, $p = .093$), and compensation (fair pay for the amount of work done, $p = .560$) and general career satisfaction. Both groups of women found satisfaction at about the same level in these areas. Even when significant differences were found, they were small (ranging from .32 to 1.0 on a possible range of 5 to 25).

Comments by the women in the current study emphasize the importance of and need for feeling valued, having a sense of accomplishment and feeling that what they do

matters. Line and staff women generally found these characteristics the most satisfying. They valued challenge, problem solving, independence, variety, and treasured the sense of accomplishment upon completing a project. An information services employee commented:

> The most satisfying part of my work is being in a position where I can pull teams together, watch them grow, and accomplish a great deal. I am a firm believer in true empowerment, and I get a great deal of satisfaction out of being in a position to empower others.

A business unit manager commented that some of the things she finds most satisfying about her job are "an ability to drive sales and profits, constant problem-solving to achieve goals, a sense of personal ownership of the business (even though I work for a large company), and a good sense of self." An executive director of marketing for a large company, found satisfaction in the opportunity to impact the direction of business:

> I enjoy creating new opportunities for growth and have been given a great deal of freedom to create these opportunities. I enjoy thinking of new ideas and then working hard with others to make it happen. The positive bottom line impact is exciting to see.

Not everyone found value in their work. When they did not, they seemed to encounter an emptiness in "making others wealthy." One woman commented, "I can't

see how this betters society." A number stated that they felt trapped by their salaries. Some made a change when the emptiness became overwhelming. A line manager working for a non-profit philanthropic organization shared her feelings, "I left corporate business a while ago. My frustration was working in an environment that had a mission for which I had no passion and did not value. Philanthropy is a field I value and care about."

A vice-president of a non-profit organization said, "I recently left the corporate world and went to a non-profit. I make $60,000 compared to the $100,000 I was making, but the aspect of working for a cause is so much more fulfilling than corporate life was!"

Others described the frustration they felt in their work, perhaps akin to the sense of betrayal described by some authors (e.g., Hardesty & Jacobs, 1986; McKenna, 1997). One woman lamented, "At the senior executive level, style seems to be more important than substance." Another was frustrated by "people working for money and personal power." A senior vice-president alleviated the emptiness through volunteer work, a similar solution of others.

An interesting part of this study, which was not part of the original hypotheses, was the level of career satisfaction found on each scale of the MSQ scale and their rank order. According to the authors of the MSQ, without a suitable norm group, subjects can act as their own norm group (Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967). The MSQ authors suggest that scales with scores over 75% (18.75 points) represent a high degree of satisfaction, while scores below 25% (6.25 points) represent a low level of

satisfaction. Table 9 shows a list of means for each MSQ scale (excluding overall career satisfaction as it is scored differently) in order of most satisfied to least satisfied for each group of women in this study:

Table 9.

Rank Order of MSQ Scores

	Line	Staff
Achievement	21.20	20.41 (2)
Responsibility	21.17	20.45 (1)
Ability Utilization	21.10	20.08
Autonomy	20.36	19.66
Authority	19.35	19.16
Compensation	18.54	18.23
Advancement	17.09	16.70

Note: Scores at or above 18.75 = high degree of satisfaction.

Scores at or below 6.25 = low degree of satisfaction.

Except for the top two scales, where the order was slightly reversed for line and staff women, the means reveal an identical order in how the women ranked satisfaction for the various scales. The lowest scales, compensation and advancement, are below

18.75, suggesting satisfaction, but not a high degree of satisfaction, indicating that both groups, perhaps, might be satisfied with greater compensation and more advancement opportunities However, in the written comments, when the occasional negative comment was made about compensation, it was related to receiving pay equity rather than low pay. For instance, a line operations manager who earns between $100,001 and $150,000 yearly and works sixty hours per week said, "I do not feel I am at pay equity with male peers." A project manager said there was lack of compensatory pay for women caused by ageism and sexism.

Many comments made by the women dealt with dissatisfaction in the area of advancement. The women referred often to a glass ceiling. A line retail account executive complained that "many men are still biased against women. There is a glass ceiling. I have received performance appraisals from men that I strongly disagree with." A marketing manager declared that "There is a plexiglass ceiling and men are uncomfortable with women in power." A business operations manager expressed the following view:

> As a woman, I feel misunderstood. Often my questions are viewed as negative, when the same question posed by a man, is taken in stride. I think I work for a pretty progressive company, but still feel my ideas, results, and accomplishments are not valued as highly as men with less results. I believe there is a very pervasive, but subtle, gender discrimination. I do not feel I've gotten fair treatment on promotions.

A commercial banker remarked:

> Males still dominate the scene and their attitudes are still pervasive. In 1983 I felt that there was much room for females and minorities to be developed in the higher rungs of financial services. That really hasn't happened. I am appalled that we are no further along than the workplace described in the Feminine Mystique written in 1964.

A consulting manager summed up the general attitude of many of the women by stating:

> Advancement is not based on ability, but on rapport with the boss. I am female and a mom and my bosses assumed I didn't want travel or advancement. They never consulted with me. It is very frustrating not being treated the same as a male.

Others lamented their lack of opportunity, without giving reasons for it. A staff business analyst simply observed that "I can't advance." A staff systems analyst said, "It seems the only way to get ahead is to move or threaten to move to another company." A payroll manager concurred with those feelings and stated "You usually have to leave a company to get ahead."

The three highest MSQ scales showed the women to be very satisfied with the feeling of accomplishment they receive from the job (achievement), the freedom to use their own judgment (responsibility), and the chance to utilize their abilities. It is

interesting to note that these were also the three scales where significant differences were found between the line and staff women. Line women found more satisfaction in these areas than staff women.

There were many positive comments regarding ability and finding value and a sense of accomplishment in work. An information technology director described "getting the satisfaction of adding value to the company" as a positive motivator. A staff energy unit manager in government listed her satisfactions as "the feeling that the work is useful and makes a difference and the feeling that I am knowledgeable in my areas and having others look to me for guidance and suggestions." Many of the women in both groups mentioned being challenged on the job as one of it's most satisfying elements, along with a strong sense of accomplishment, being respected and growing personally. In general, the women's comments coincided with the findings on the MSQ scales.

Overall career satisfaction did not differ significantly between the line and staff groups of women. The scores suggest that female MBA graduates are very satisfied with their work, whether they are in line or staff positions.

Almost all previous studies cited that examined job satisfaction did not focus on specific attributes of the job, but rather, the composite of those attributes, to yield an overall job satisfaction score. For instance, Strober (1982) examined the early career satisfaction of men and women and found women to be more satisfied with their jobs compared to men. Two other studies (Cox & Harquail, 1991; Cox & Nkomo, 1991) found no differences on career satisfaction between men and women. A study (Zanna

et al., 1987) that examined high status career women found that those who used a male reference group were less career satisfied than those who used a female reference group. Schneer and Reitman (1995) found that female managers in early career were more satisfied than they were at mid-career Another study (Etzion, 1987) found successful women satisfied with their jobs, but dissatisfied in their private lives. The current study found that the women in both groups were very satisfied with their jobs, although, there were components that brought more satisfaction than others, as described above.

Life satisfaction was measured by the SWLS and no difference was found on this measure between the line and staff women in this study. The lack of a significant difference suggests that both groups of women have made decisions with which they feel comfortable, and are very satisfied with their lives overall. Many of the women in this study appear to have reached a reasonable life balance. There may be areas that they would like to change if they had the control, but overall, they appear to find their lives to be fulfilling and satisfying, and challenging.

Other studies have found similar results. An examination of professional single women (Lewis & Borders, 1995) showed them to have slightly lower means on the SWLS than the women in the current study. One difference between the two studies was that approximately two thirds of the women in the current study were married, while none in the Lewis and Borders (1995) study were married. Beatty (1996) found that women in high level positions did not differ on the symptoms of anxiety,

depression or hostility compared to women at lower levels in the management hierarchy.

The finding that career satisfaction is a predictor of life satisfaction in this group of women is similar to a finding in a study (Lewis & Borders, 1997) of single, professional women. In that study, career satisfaction was found to be the best predictor of life satisfaction. The average score for the single, professional women was 24.09, indicating satisfaction on the SWLS. The women in the present study scored an average of 26.9 (line) and 26.1 (staff), also indicating satisfaction on the SWLS. Another study (Pietromonaco et al., 1987) found that career-oriented women employed full time experienced higher self-esteem and well-being compared to women who worked part time or were not career oriented.

The women in the current study had many comments about their lives in general, relating them to their careers. The following statements suggest support of the fact that career satisfaction impacts life satisfaction, as indicated in the fifth hypothesis. For instance, a health care administrator said, "I work hard and enjoy my life. My husband works out of the home and is able to do many of the things I can't do because of my long hours." A corporate accountant said the MBA provided her "the possibility of jobs that are challenging and financially beneficial and a secure future for myself and my family." An air export operations manager remarked, "The MBA gave me a chance to better develop my decision-making process. In general, I am very happy about life and I want to continue to learn and grow throughout my life."

Limitations of Study

Inclusion criteria for this study were quite restrictive. A person had to be female, an MBA graduate from a specific mid-western university between 1979 and 1990, and employed steadily, but not self-employed. There was no restriction put on the number of hours per week the women worked, but the ranges for the two groups of women were similar, 9 to 70 hours weekly for line women and 12 to 66 hours weekly for staff women, with both groups averaging over 40 hours per week. It was decided to include everyone who was steadily employed so as to have as large a sample as possible. The two groups of women differed significantly on hours worked per week and not controlling for full-time work may have contributed to this result.

It was decided to include professors in the study. If a woman made the distinction of occupying a staff or line position and she made it clear that she was teaching business courses at the college level, she was included. It is this author's contention that the women completing the survey were knowledgeable of the meaning of line and staff (having received MBAs and now teaching within the business area) and answered appropriately, taking into consideration other duties besides the actual teaching. Of the 17 respondents who worked as professors, 14 (10.6% of line respondents) considered teaching to be a line position, while 3 (2.5% of the staff respondents) considered it to be a staff position.

Generalizability of the results is a limitation. The sample consisted of 96% Caucasian/White women. In addition, all of the graduates were from the same mid-western university, so the results may not generalize to graduates from other

institutions. However, the educational degree of the respondents can be considered a strength of the study, as MBA graduation from the same business school implies similar ability levels and educational experiences.

The data in this study are based on self-reports, which possess the inherent problem of possible bias. Effort was made to limit bias by making the questionnaires anonymous. The use of behavioral observations from personal acquaintances and superiors and detailed job descriptions may have produced different observations from the self-report data of the questionnaire respondents. Also, an attempt was made to reduce stereotypic thinking by not using terms such as the "glass ceiling" or "work/family balance" in the questionnaire or accompanying correspondence.

There is the question of the MSQ being the best instrument to assess career satisfaction for this group of women. The only available norm group for managers on the MSQ was published in 1965 and included one female out of 135 managers (Weiss et al., 1965). Finding a career satisfaction scale with an appropriate and updated norm group would add to the interpretation of the results. Without one, the MSQ authors suggested that the scales on the MSQ be ranked, indicating areas of relatively greater or less satisfaction, as was done for the current study.

The SWLS gives no norm groups and comparison was made to professional women in only one study (Lewis & Borders, 1995). More than one satisfaction measure for life and career could have been administered to aid in reliability and validity, but this would have added to the length of an already lengthy questionnaire and may negatively have impacted the return rate.

As this was not an experimental study, causation cannot be inferred. It cannot be inferred that the significant differences found between line and staff women are caused by the nature of the women's position. Many other factors, both professional and personal, could have impacted the difference.

The sample size was not exceptionally large (N=253) and its size may have limited the power of the statistics. Combining the graduate lists from a number of universities around the country would not only add to the generalizability of the results, but to the power of the statistics, possibly uncovering more differences than found in this study.

Another limitation of the study was that the women were not compared across different variables on the MSQ and SWLS. For example, married versus unmarried women, childless versus women with children, low salary versus high salary women, high management level versus low to middle management level women are some of the other comparisons that could be analyzed. While these comparisons are possible with the available data, they were beyond the scope of this study.

An assessment of how women came to occupy their current line or staff position would aid in the understanding of the path the women took. However, this study examines where they are now. An attempt was made to assess the women's career path (Question 14), but the answers proved too inconsistent to include in the analysis. Clearer wording of the question would have provided clearer responses.

There were a number of ways to identify the nature of position, but the simplest and clearest seemed to be to ask the respondents themselves. This was done even

though the same position may be line or staff, depending upon the company. Researcher determination of line or staff position would have been difficult and less reliable. Asking the participants to make their own determination seemed the most accurate and cost effective way to determine the position's function (line or staff). The question was carefully worded to inquire as to the primary nature of the position, as some positions may be a combination. However, backing the respondent's categorization by a superior corroborating the respondent's choice would have improved accuracy. Only two respondents said their job was a fifty-fifty split between line and staff and a decision was made to exclude them from the final study sample.

More questions could have been asked to delve deeper into the careers of the women. For instance, asking the gender of the people the women supervise, attempting to get information on leadership and influence versus power and control (e.g., independence and responsibility scales on the MSQ) are some questions that were not included, but would have provided a more complete picture of the women's careers. Also, more emphasis should have been put on urging everyone to complete and return the questionnaire, regardless of their work status. There are probably non-respondents who were not working or working in a non-business related job who decided not to return the questionnaire. The business school does not keep records on its MBA graduates and therefore, it is not possible to draw a profile of non-respondents and compare them to women who did respond.

Suggestions for Future Research

One area for future research is to replicate this study, but compare staff and line groups composed of men and women.

Also, following a group of MBA women longitudinally would be informative to assess their career progress and changes in their satisfaction levels. The graduates in this study are part of the first wave of women to occupy line positions in significant numbers. Following their progress beyond mid-career would be an indication of how thick the glass ceiling really is. Popular perceptions of why women are under-represented at the top levels are that they have not been in the pipeline long enough and they do not have line job experience. If the line women remain in their line jobs, they should be found in more significant numbers at the top of organizations in the years to come. If not, the popular perceptions are inaccurate.

Other independent variables within the group of female MBA graduates should be studied. For example, comparing women at different management levels, ages, year of graduation, and number of years in position would lead to greater understanding of women's career development. Many other areas can be explored. For instance, what impact does politics have on a women's career development? How do work gaps impact their careers? What about opportunities for important overseas assignments? Exploring the processes by which women attain and work in their positions would provide more information about obstacles to women's career development and to their success.

Also, learning more about the organizations would be helpful in understanding women's career development. For instance, is she more likely to move up in a large organization or in a small one? Is there more opportunity for her in a business that is flatter in it's hierarchy or one that is not? What is the history of line and staff employees within a given company? Studying MBA graduate women through many different lenses offers insight into their possibilities which benefits the women and the organizations in which they work.

Implications

What does this all mean? First, it is a study that controls for position, line or staff, and examines women exclusively. Most existing research controls for gender, with only the implication that results may be due to the nature of the position rather than gender. This study helps to clarify the differences of line and staff positions by eliminating the confound of gender. This study has shown mostly similarities and a few differences between women when the function of the job (line versus staff) is controlled. It also suggests that some of the differences between male and female managers found in previous studies may be more due to function of the job rather than gender (e.g., men supervise more people than women).

It is important for women to be aware of the differences between job functions when making career decisions. Women on the brink of choosing a career need to be aware of the direction they want to go and the implications of their choice. Catalyst (1992) found that many men and women do not bother to weigh factors

conscientiously when accepting a job within an organization. They take what is available, or, more likely, what they are offered. It has been suggested that men are offered jobs that are more challenging, revenue generating, risky and visible, thus getting them in line for promotions and higher compensation. Women, on the other hand, are offered or encouraged to accept staff positions (e.g., Catalyst, 1992; Cox & Harquail, 1991; Gutek, 1993; Hardesty & Jacobs, 1986).

Women need to understand their goals and make appropriate, informed choices in order to attain them. If a goal is to move up the corporate ladder, they are more likely to do so within a line position, as the line women in this study were at higher management levels than women in staff positions. However, they need to be aware that this does not necessarily guarantee them more money than their staff counterparts, as the line and staff women in this study did not significantly differ in yearly income. They also need to be mindful that they are likely to work a few more hours weekly and indirectly supervise more employees. The line women's' reward is a higher management level.

It has been suggested (e.g., Catalyst, 1992) that women choose to pursue staff positions because they have more control over the hours worked. This implies a lower career commitment pattern (Burke & McKeen, 1993), which assumes that women work shorter hours so as to be available to family. Although the line women worked statistically more weekly hours than staff women, the actual practical significance was small (2.8 hours per week), with the upper end of the range 70 hours for line women and 66 hours for staff. Considering that the two groups of women did not differ on

several personal characteristics, a woman should consider the fact that a line position may not require many more hours per week compared to a staff position. Conversely, if a woman is gravitating toward a staff position because she thinks she will be working less hours, this may not be the case and she should consider other aspects of the job before making her decision.

Many of the women commented that a course should be taught (and required) for women in MBA programs. One woman suggested that "A course covering the topics of setting boundaries, delegating work, balancing work and personal life, and balancing development and results of daily work should be taught. We need to know how to deal with the real life work environment." Many mirrored her comments, saying that the MBA program, although quite good, did not prepare them for the realities of the work place such as the old boy's network, glass ceiling, or the importance of taking risks. A course such as this could be developed for a university business program, utilizing faculty and speakers from the business world. The course could include results of pertinent studies, individual needs assessment tools, and group discussion in order to better prepare women for the business world.

Businesses in the United States need to be aware of the dissatisfactions of the female manager with an MBA. These women make up a significant portion of the pool of top level university graduates and will continue to do so. It is important for organizations to attract and retain the brightest students, no matter the gender or race. Although female managers quit or intend to quit at higher rates than their male counterparts, it is likely not because they want to stay home with their children, but

because they want to work in a friendlier environment, be it on their own or in another company (Miller & Wheeler, 1991; Morris, 1995; Morrison & Von Glinow, 1990). Companies can act to eliminate or lessen the impact of their frustrations by being more attentive to a number of issues, such as equity in compensation and equal access to promotions (as noted on the MSQ), and continuous access to challenging responsibilities and autonomy in decision-making (as noted in the women's written comments).

There are several implications for those who work with advising and counseling women who are considering a career in business or currently in a business situation. Human resource personnel and counseling psychologists are employed in myriad job settings, be it a university counseling center, human resources department, or as a consultant to businesses. Those in the helping professions need to understand the changing world of work and a woman's perspective on her own career development in order to help her make decisions about her life. Results from this study will aid in that understanding. The results offer a reality check on what is occurring in businesses today and the lives of women who work in them. A woman seeking the help of a knowledgeable psychologist can make more informed decisions about her future.

Many companies are flattening their organizations, making less room for top executives. At the same time, as globalization becomes more important, organizations are struggling to adapt to a changing market. Thus, job functions are changing. The path upward may not be as direct as it once was. Different skills are needed at different times. Job functions may be combined and a position may not be pure line or staff, but

a combination of the two. Those with an understanding of how the business world works and is changing are better able to help a female employee make use of her skills to her advantage and to the company's.

Overall, the women seemed to be satisfied with their careers and their lives. They lead stimulating and busy lives. The women of this study appear to have made choices that were right for them. As businesses open higher positions to female managers, and acknowledge their success in both line and staff positions, the glass ceiling may diminish. In the meantime, the women in this study have shown that they have the talent and ambition to succeed and are finding satisfaction in doing so.

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Appendix A

Letters of Permission

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

Twin Cities Campus

Research Subjects' Protection Programs
Institutional Review Board: Human Subjects Committee (IRB)
Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC)

Box 820
D528 Mayo Memorial Building
420 Delaware Street S.E.
Minneapolis, MN 55455-0392

612-626-5654
Fax 612-626-6061
E-mail: [illegible]

June 30, 1997

Janice L. Kalin
3551 Fairway Ct
Minnetonka, MN 55305

RE. "The Mid-Career Female MBA Graduate: An Analysis of Difference Between Staff and Line Managers"

Human Subjects Code Number: 9706E00140

Dear Dr. Kalin:

The IRB: Human Subjects Committee determined that the referenced study is exempt from review under federal guidelines 45 CFR Part 46.101(b) category #2 SURVEYS/INTERVIEWS; STANDARDIZED EDUCATIONAL TESTS; OBSERVATION OF PUBLIC BEHAVIOR

This approval is limited to recruitment of adult subjects

The code number above is assigned to your research. That number and the title of your study must be used in all communication with the IRB office.

Upon receipt of this letter, you may begin your research. If you have questions, please call the IRB office at (612) 626-5654

The IRB wishes you success with this research.

Sincerely,

Carol Siegel

Carol Siegel
Assistant Director

CS
CC: John Romano

University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

Department of Psychology
603 East Daniel Street
Champaign, IL 61820

217 244-5876 Fax

College of Liberal Arts and Sciences

Dear Requester:

Thank you for requesting the Satisfaction with Life Scale. As you may know, there is an article in the 1985, Volume 45, issue of *Journal of Personality Assessment*, which reports on the validity and reliability of the scale. In addition, we have a more recent article titled, "Review of the Satisfaction with Life Scale" in *Psychological Assessment**. The results reported in this second article are extremely encouraging. The SWLS correlates substantially with reports by family and friends of the target person's life satisfaction, with number of memories of satisfying experiences, and with other life satisfaction scales. The SWLS was examined in both a college student and elderly population. In both populations the scale was valid and reliable (internally consistent and stable).

The SWLS is in public domain (not copyrighted) and therefore you are free to use it without permission or charge. You will, however, have to type or reproduce your own copies.

Best wishes,

Ed Diener, Ph.D.
Professor

ED/mg

*Pavot, W., & Diener, E. (1993). Review of the Satisfaction with Life Scale. *Psychological Assessment*, 5, 164-172.

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

Twin Cities Campus

Department of Psychology
College of Liberal Arts

Elliott Hall
75 East River Road
Minneapolis, MN 55455-0344
612-625-4042
Fax 612-626-2079

May 16, 1997

Janice Kalin
3551 Fairway Court
Minnetonka, MN 55305

Dear Janice Kalin:

We are pleased to grant you permission to use the requested 7 scales of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire 1977 long form that you requested for your research. Enclosed please find an invoice for royalty fees of $.16 per copy.

Please note that each copy that you make must include the following copyright statement:

Copyright 1977, Vocational Psychology Research
University of Minnesota. Reproduced by permission.

Vocational Psychology Research is currently in the process of revising the MSQ manual and it is very important that we receive copies of your research study results in order to construct new norm tables. Therefore, we would appreciate receiving a copy of your results including 1) Demographic data of respondents, including age, education level, occupation and job tenure; and 2) response statistics including, scale means, standard deviations, reliability coefficients, and standard errors of measurement.

Your providing this information will be an important and valuable contribution to the new MSQ manual. If you have any questions concerning this request, please feel free to call us at 612-625-1367.

Sincerely,

Dr. David J. Weiss, Director
Vocational Psychology Research

Appendix B

Letters to Participants and Questionnaire

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

Carlson School of Management *The Carlson MBA Programs* 271-19th Avenue South
Minneapolis, MN 55455
612-624-[illegible]

July 28, 1997

Dear MBA Graduate

My name is Janice Kalin and I am a doctoral student at the University of Minnesota, conducting research in the area of women and their experiences in the business world. I am specifically interested in MBA graduates and the experiences you have had since graduation, such as positions you have held, what you are doing now and your level of satisfaction in your career and personal lives. Although the popular media has bestowed much attention on women in business, not many academic studies have been carried out on this topic.

Dr. Donald Bell, Assistant Dean of the MBA Programs at the Carlson School of Management, has endorsed this study and given me access to the alumni list of graduates. I am sending questionnaires to randomly selected female MBA graduates who graduated from 1979 to 1990. Dr. John Romano, my graduate advisor in the Educational Psychology Department, is overseeing the study. The questionnaire should take approximately 20 minutes of your time. Your decision to participate is completely voluntary. So that results will truly represent the thinking of the female graduate population, it is important that each questionnaire be completed and returned in the enclosed stamped envelope.

You may be assured of complete confidentiality. The questionnaire includes an identification number for follow-up purposes so your name can be checked off the mailing list when you return it. The list will be destroyed after the questionnaires are returned. Your name will never be placed on the questionnaire itself and all data will be reported aggregately, not individually.

The aggregated results of this research will be made available to the MBA program at the University. You may receive a summary of the results by writing "summary requested" on the back of the return envelope and printing your name and address below it. Please do not put this information on the questionnaire itself.

I would be happy to answer any questions you might have. Please write or call. My telephone number is (612) 933-3141 and e-mail is janicelk@aol.com. You can reach John Romano at (612) 624-0827.

Thank you for your assistance and your time. It is much appreciated.

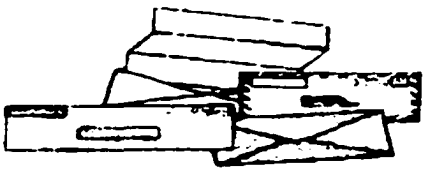
Sincerely,

Donald M. Bell John L. Romano Janice Kalin

Dr. Donald Bell
Assistant Dean of
MBA Programs
Carlson School of
Management

Dr. John L. Romano
Associate Professor
Educational Psychology
University of Minnesota

Janice Linden Kalin, M. A.
Licensed Psychologist



Last week a questionnaire seeking information about your career experiences since receiving your MBA was mailed to you. Your name was on the list of MBA graduates from the University of Minnesota. If you have already completed and returned it, please accept my sincere thanks. If not, please do so today. Because it has been sent to such a select group of women, it is extremely important that yours be included in the study if the results are to accurately represent the female MBA graduates.

If by some chance you did not receive the questionnaire, or it was misplaced, please call me right now, collect (612-933-3141) and I will send you another one. Thanks for your time.

Janice Kelin, L. P.
c/o Minnesota Center for Survey Research
Suite 141
2331 University Ave. S. E.
Minneapolis, MN 55414-3067

Janice Linden Kalin, L.P.
c/o Minnesota Center for Survey Research
University of Minnesota
2331 University Avenue, Suite 141
Minneapolis, Minnesota 55414

August 25, 1997

Dear MBA Graduate:

A number of weeks ago I wrote to you seeking information on your career experiences since receiving your MBA. As of today, I have not yet received your completed questionnaire.

I have undertaken this study as my dissertation topic because of the belief that women involved in the business world are experiencing different outcomes depending on the path they have taken. I want to find out more about women's level of satisfaction with those experiences and how they might differ among women.

I am writing to you again because of the significance each questionnaire has to the usefulness of this study. In order for the results of this study to truly reflect the experiences of female University of Minnesota MBA graduates it is essential that each person return her questionnaire. So far, I have received almost 50% of the questionnaires sent out. My goal is a 75% response rate.

In the event that your questionnaire has been misplaced, a replacement is enclosed. I truly appreciate your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Janice Kalin

Janice Kalin, M.A.
Licensed Psychologist

A SURVEY OF WOMEN MBA GRADUATES ABOUT WORK EXPERIENCE

Janice Kalin
c/o Minnesota Center for Survey Research
University of Minnesota
2331 University Avenue, Suite 141
Minneapolis, Minnesota 55414

A SURVEY OF WOMEN MBA GRADUATES ABOUT WORK EXPERIENCE

Directions:
This survey examines the work experiences of female MBA graduates. Fill in the blanks where appropriate, otherwise circle the appropriate answer.

Q1. What year did you receive your MBA? ____ ____ ____ ____

Q2. What is your current position? _____

Q3. Are you employed by a profit-making organization?

1. Yes
2. No

Q4. Are you self-employed?

1. Yes
2. No

Q5. What is the primary nature of you current position?

1. Line position (involving direct contact with customer and/or with revenue producing responsibility)
2. Staff position (primarily advisory functions providing technical and professional support such as human resources)

Q6. What level management are you now? *(Circle one)*

1. Top
2. Upper middle
3. Middle
4. Lower middle
5. First level-supervisory
6. Non-management

Q7. How many positions overall have you held, including your present one, since receiving your MBA?

_____ positions

Q8. How many companies have you worked for, including the present one, since receiving your MBA?

_____ companies

Q9. Have you ever had a gap in your employment for more than one month? A gap can be either voluntary or involuntary. Examples are: maternity leave, job-hunting, lay-off, extended leave, etc.

1. Yes ——> Q9a. IF YES: About how many different times has this happened?

   _____ times

2. No

Q10. How many people are employed in your organization (the entire organization)? *(Circle one)*

1. 1 - 15
2. 16 - 50
3. 51 - 100
4. 101 - 200
5. 201 - 500
6. 501 - 1000
7. 1001 - 2500
8. 2501 - 5000
9. 5001 - 10,000
10. Over 10,000

Q11. How many years have you been in your current position in your present organization?

_____ years

Q12. How many people do you **directly** supervise?

_____ people

Q13. How many people do you **indirectly** supervise (i.e. if you supervise other managers, note the number of people they supervise)?

_____ people

Q14. What other positions have you held in your current company? Start by listing your first position on line #1.

	Title	Number of years in position	Line or staff	Total number of people supervised directly and indirectly
1.				
2.				
3.				
4.				
5.				

Q15. What was your personal 1996 employment income, including bonuses, before taxes? *(Circle one)*

1. $0-15,000
2. $15,001-30,000
3. $30,001-50,000
4. $50,001-75,000
5. $75,001-100,000
6. $100,001-150,000
7. More than $150,000

Q16. How many hours per week do you work in your paid position?

_____ hours

Q17. What is your age?

_____

Q18. Please identify your racial background. *(Circle one)*

1. American Indian/Native American
2. African American
3. Latino/Chicano/Mexican
4. Asian
5. Caucasian/White
6. Other *(Specify* _____*)*

Q19. What is your current marital status? *(Circle one)*

1. Married
2. Committed long-term partner
3. Single, never married
4. Divorced
5. Separated
6. Widowed

Q20. Do you have any children?

1. Yes
2. No **(PLEASE SKIP TO Q23)**

Q21. If yes, how many children do you have?

_____ children

Q22. Please list the ages of your children:

_____

Q23. What is your spouse's/partner's occupation? *(If this part is not applicable, please skip to the next section on page 6.)*

_____

Q24. What was your spouse's/partner's personal 1996 employment income before taxes? *(Circle one)*

1. $0-15,000
2. $15,001-30,000
3. $30,001-50,000
4. $50,001-75,000
5. $75,001-100,000
6. $100,001-150,000
7. More than $150,000

Q25. How many hours per week does your spouse/partner work in a paid position?

_____ hours

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire

The following questions pertain to how you feel about your present job, what things you are satisfied with and what things you are not satisfied with. Read each statement carefully. Ask yourself how satisfied am I with this aspect of my job?

VS = Very Satisfied means I am very satisfied with this aspect of my job.
S = Satisfied means I am satisfied with this aspect of my job.
N = Means I can't decide whether I am satisfied or not with this aspect of my job.
D = Dissatisfied means I am dissatisfied with this aspect of my job.
VD = Very dissatisfied means I am very dissatisfied with this aspect of my job.

1.	The chance to work by myself.	VS	S	N	D	VD
2.	The chance to have other workers look to me for direction.	VS	S	N	D	VD
3.	The chance to do the kind of work that I do best.	VS	S	N	D	VD
4.	The amount of pay for the work I do.	VS	S	N	D	VD
5.	The opportunities for advancement on this job.	VS	S	N	D	VD
6.	The chance to be responsible for planning my work.	VS	S	N	D	VD
7.	Being able to see the results of the work I do.	VS	S	N	D	VD
8.	The chance to work alone on the job.	VS	S	N	D	VD
9.	The chance to do different things from time to time.	VS	S	N	D	VD
10.	The chance to tell other workers how to do things.	VS	S	N	D	VD
11.	The chance to do work that is well suited to my abilities.	VS	S	N	D	VD
12.	The chance to be "somebody" in the community.	VS	S	N	D	VD
13.	The way my boss handles his/her employees.	VS	S	N	D	VD
14.	The chance to make as much money as my friends.	VS	S	N	D	VD
15.	The chances of getting ahead on this job.	VS	S	N	D	VD
16.	The competence of my supervisor in making decisions.	VS	S	N	D	VD
17.	The chance to make decisions on my own.	VS	S	N	D	VD

18.	Being able to take pride in a job well done.	VS	S	N	D	VD
19.	Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience.	VS	S	N	D	VD
20.	The chance to be alone on the job.	VS	S	N	D	VD
21.	The chance to supervise other people.	VS	S	N	D	VD
22.	The chance to make use of my best abilities.	VS	S	N	D	VD
23.	The way my job provides for steady employment.	VS	S	N	D	VD
24.	How my pay compares with that for similar jobs in other companies.	VS	S	N	D	VD
25.	The way promotions are given out on this job.	VS	S	N	D	VD
26.	The chance to be responsible for the work of others.	VS	S	N	D	VD
27.	Being able to do something worthwhile.	VS	S	N	D	VD
28.	The chance to do things for other people.	VS	S	N	D	VD
29.	The chance to work independently of others.	VS	S	N	D	VD
30.	The chance to tell people what to do.	VS	S	N	D	VD
31.	The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities.	VS	S	N	D	VD
32.	The way company policies are put into practice.	VS	S	N	D	VD
33.	My pay and the amount of work I do.	VS	S	N	D	VD
34.	The chances for advancement on this job.	VS	S	N	D	VD
35.	The freedom to use my own judgement.	VS	S	N	D	VD
36.	The chance to do my best at all times.	VS	S	N	D	VD
37.	The chance to try my own methods of doing the job.	VS	S	N	D	VD
38.	The chance to work away from others.	VS	S	N	D	VD
39.	The chance to tell others what to do.	VS	S	N	D	VD
40.	The chance to make use of my abilities and skills.	VS	S	N	D	VD
41.	How my pay compares with that of other workers.	VS	S	N	D	VD
42.	The working conditions.	VS	S	N	D	VD
43.	The chances for advancement.	VS	S	N	D	VD

44. The way my co-workers get along with each other.	VS	S	N	D	VD
45. The responsibility of my job.	VS	S	N	D	VD
46. The praise I get for doing a good job.	VS	S	N	D	VD
47. The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job.	VS	S	N	D	VD
48. Being able to keep busy all the time.	VS	S	N	D	VD

Satisfaction with Life Scale

Below are five statements that you may agree or disagree with. Using the 1-7 scale, indicate your agreement with each item by placing the appropriate number on the line preceding that item. Please be open and honest in your responding.

7 - Strongly agree
6 - Agree
5 - Slightly agree
4 - Neither agree or disagree
3 - Slightly disagree
2 - Disagree
1 - Strongly disagree

____ In most ways my life is close to my ideal.
____ The conditions of my life are excellent.
____ I am satisfied with my life.
____ So far I have gotten the important things I want in life.
____ If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.

The following are open ended questions about your career and life. Please answer them candidly. If you need more room, please feel free to use additional paper.

E1. What do you find the most satisfying about working in the field of business?

E2. What do you find the most frustrating about working in the field of business?

E3. **What other comments would you like to make about your personal and professional life since completing your MBA?**

Thank you very much for your help with the survey!
Please return your survey in the enclosed postage-paid envelope.

10

Appendix C

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire Scales and Satisfaction with Life Scale

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire Scale
Items

Scale	Items
Ability Utilization	
	The chance to do the kind of work I do best.
	The chance to do work that is well suited to my abilities.
	The chance to make use of my best abilities.
	The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities.
	The chance to make use of my abilities and skills.
Achievement	
	Being able to see the results of the work I do.
	Being able to take pride in a job well done.
	Being able to do something worthwhile.
	The chance to do my best at all times.
	The feeling of accomplishment I get from a job.
Advancement	
	The opportunities for advancement on the job.
	The chances of getting ahead on this job.
	The way promotions are given out on this job.
	The chances for advancement on this job.
	My chances for advancement.

Authority

The chance to have others look to me for direction.

The chance to tell other workers how to do things.

The chance to supervise other people.

The chance to tell people what to do.

The chance to tell others what to do.

Compensation

The amount of pay for the work I do.

The chance to make as much money as my friends.

How my pay compares with that for similar jobs in other companies.

My pay and the amount of work I do.

How my pay compares with that of other workers.

Independence

The chance to work by myself.

The chance to work alone on the job.

The chance to be alone on the job.

The chance to work independently of others.

The chance to work away from others.

Responsibility

The chance to be responsible for planning my work.

Being able to make decisions on my own.

The chance to be responsible for the work of others.

The freedom to use my own judgment.

The responsibility of my job.

General Career Satisfaction

The chance to work alone on the job.

The chance to do different things from time to time.

The chance to be "somebody" in the community.

The way my boss handles his/her employees.

The competence of my supervisory in making decisions.

Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience.

The way my job provides for steady employment.

The chance to do things for other people.

The chance to tell people what to do.

The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities.

The way company policies are put into practice.

My pay and the amount of work I do.

The chances for advancement on this job.

The freedom to use my own judgment.

The chance to try my own methods of doing the job.

The working conditions.

The way my co-workers get along with each other.

The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job.

Being able to keep busy all the time.

Satisfaction with Life Scale

In most ways my life is close to my ideal.

The conditions of my life are excellent.

I am satisfied with my life.

So far I have gotten the important things I want in life.

If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.

Appendix D

Tables

Table D1

Frequency Data for Total Respondents[1]

	n	%
Year of MBA		
1979 - 81	51	13.92
1982 - 84	99	27.03
1985 - 87	99	27.03
1988 - 90	116	31.67
Mean Age (N=359)	41.84 years	
Current Position		
Manager	85	23.3
Director	46	12.6
Homemaker	37	10.1
Vice-President	35	9.6
Business Owner	27	7.4
Consultant	23	6.3
Professor	19	5.2
Other/Business Related	18	4.9
Analyst	17	4.7
Accountant	8	2.2
CEO/Executive Director	6	1.6
Other/Non-business Related	6	1.6
Supervisor	5	1.4
Engineer/Chemist	4	1.1
Buyer/Retail	4	1.1

(table continued)

	n	%
Controller	4	1.1
Unemployed	4	1.1
Leader	3	1.0
Coordinator	3	1.0
No Response	3	1.0
Administrator	2	.8
Sales	2	.8
Liason/Specialist	2	.8
Attorney	1	.0
Student	1	.0
Self Employed		
Yes	60	16.44
No	295	80.82
No Response	10	2.74
Work in For-profit Organizations		
Yes	235	64.38
No	121	33.15
No Response	9	2.47

(table continued)

	n	%
Gap in Employment (at least 1 month)		
Yes	222	60.82
No	131	35.89
No Response	12	3.29
Mean Number of Gaps (N = 219)	1.89 gaps	
Personal 1966 Income		
$00,000 - $30,000	56	15.34
$30,001 - $50,000	53	14.52
$50,001 - $75,000	94	25.75
$75,001 - $100,000	69	18.90
$100,001- $150,000	41	11.23
+ $150,000	25	6.85
No Response	27	7.40
Number of Employees in Organization		
1 - 15	62	16.99
16 - 50	11	3.01
151 - 100	10	2.74
101 - 200	17	4.66
201 - 500	21	5.75
501 - 1000	26	7.12
1001 - 2500	20	5.48

(table continued)

	n	%
2501 - 5000	26	7.12
5001 - 10,000	29	7.95
+ 10,000	111	30.41
No Response	32	8.77
Mean Years in Current Job (N = 334)	3.46 years	
Mean Number of People Supervised		
Directly (N = 321)	3.22 people	
Indirectly (N = 296)	18.13 people	
Mean Hours Worked Weekly (N=335)	43.53 hours	
Race		
African American	4	1.10
Asian	9	2.47
Caucasian White	343	93.97
Other	2	.55
No Response	7	1.92

(table continued)

	n	%
Marital Status		
Married	264	72.33
Long Term Partner	14	3.84
Single, Never Married	48	13.15
Divorced	24	6.58
Widowed	5	1.37
No Response	7	1.92
Have Children		
Yes	238	65.21
No	120	32.88
No Response	7	1.92
Mean Number of Children (N=236)	2.17 children	

Note. [1]N = 365 unless otherwise noted.

Table D2

Chi-squares for Dichotomous Personal Variables

Variable	χ^2	df	p
Marital Status	4.172	4	.383
Race	2.670	3	.445
Having Children	2.300	1	.129
Age of Youngest Child	.315	2	.854

Table D3

Chi-squares for Dichotomous Career Variables

Variable	χ^2	df	p
Management Level	17.980	5	.003*
Income Level	8.448	6	.207

*Indicates statistical significance

Table D4

Summary of Multiple Regression for Independent Variables (MSQ Scales) Predicting Life Satisfaction (N = 229)

Variable	MultR	R^2	F	p	β
Step 1					
Responsibility	.386	.149	39.800	.000*	.3862
Step 2					
Compensation	.452	.205	29.065	.000*	.2528
Step 3					
Ability Utilization	.479	.230	22.393	.000*	.2047

*Indicates statistical significance.

Table D5

Intercorrelations among MSQ Scales (N = 229)

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.
1. Life Sat.	1.00	.379**	.308**	.299**	.272**	.360**	.159*	.386**
2. Abil. Utililization	1.00		.750**	.428**	.535**	.283**	.422**	.626**
3. Achievment		1.00		.415**	.455**	.218**	.455**	.677**
4. Advancement			1.00		.347**	.559**	.145	.476**
5. Authority				1.00		.290**	.298**	.634**
6. Compensation					1.00		.144	.365**
7. Independence						1.00		.429**
8. Responsibility							1.00	

*p < .01 ** p < .001

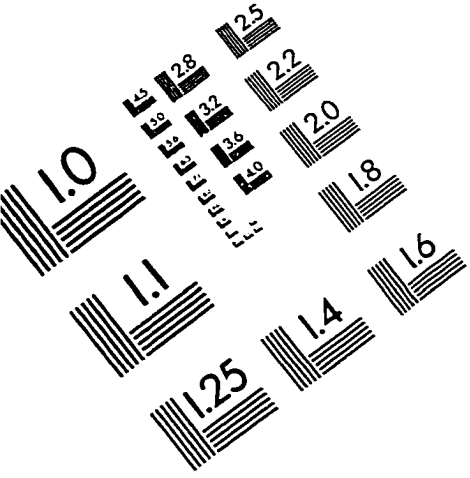
Table D6

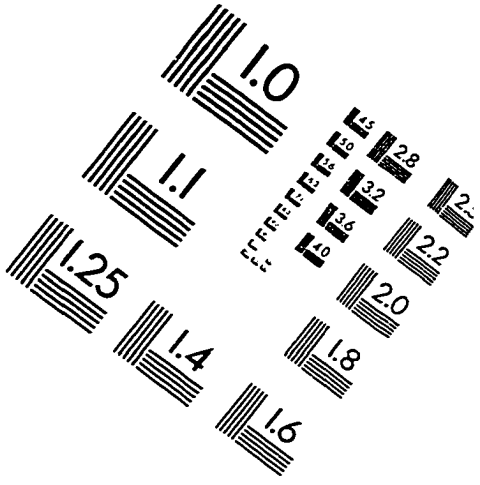
Open-ended Question Themes

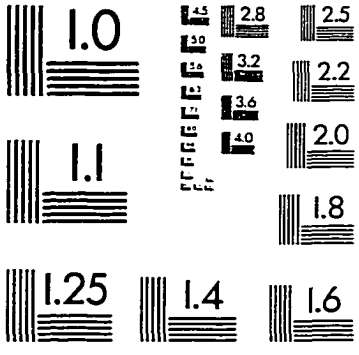
Work Satisfactions	
Line and Staff	Challenge of the job
	Taking charge/seeing results
	Ability Utilization
	Influence on others
Line Only	Compensation/benefits
	Independence
	Decision-making ability/authority
Staff Only	Working for non-profit organization
	Latest technology available
Work Frustrations	
Staff and Line	
	Politics
	Differential treatment of women
	Maintaining balance in lives
	Incompetent management
	Slow business decisions
	Resource constraints

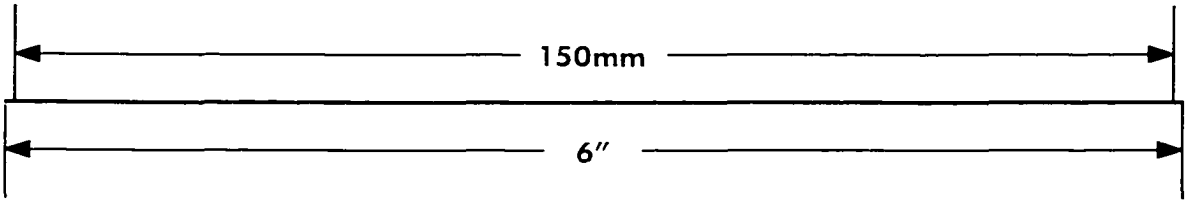
Note. Separate themes for staff and line did not emerge under Work Frustrations.

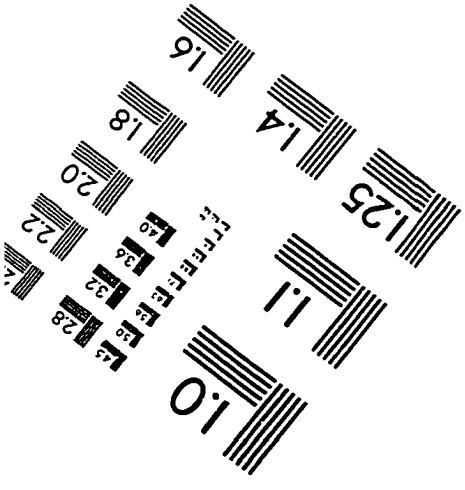
IMAGE EVALUATION
TEST TARGET (QA-3)

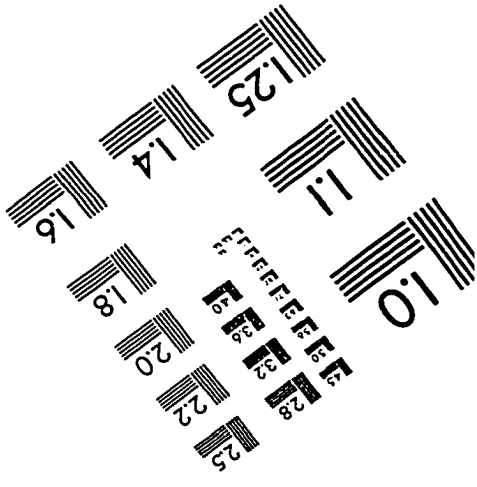












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