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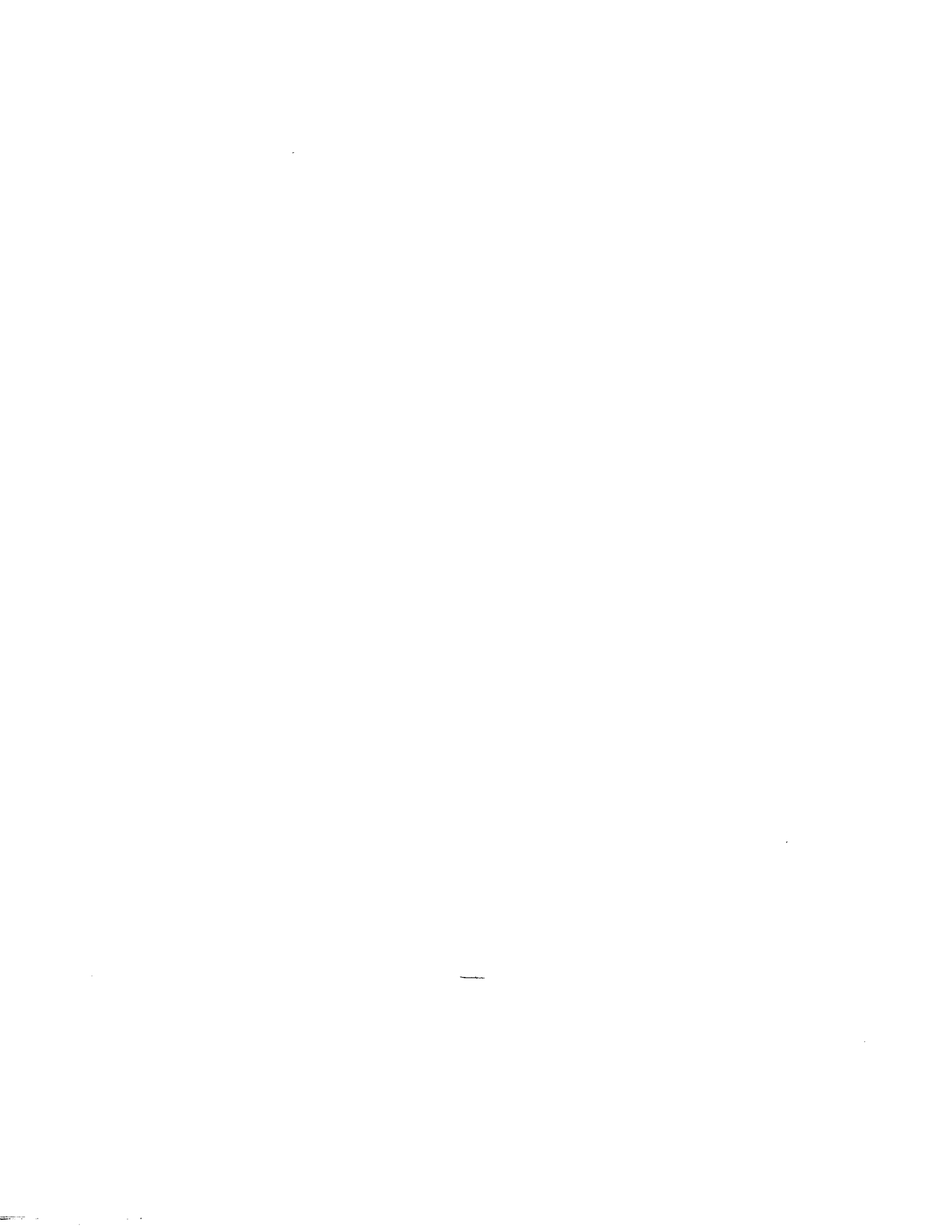
Leadership styles and career paths of selected women in higher education administration and corporate administration

Master, Nancy Briggs, Ed.D.

University of Nevada, Las Vegas, 1989

LEADERSHIP STYLES AND CAREER PATHS

OF SELECTED WOMEN IN HIGHER

EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION AND

CORPORATE ADMINISTRATION

By

Nancy Briggs Master

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
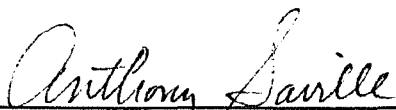of the requirements for the degree of

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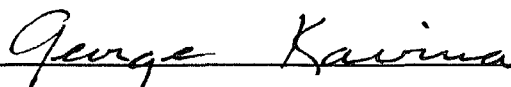
Educational Administration

Department of Educational Administration
and Higher Education
University of Nevada, Las Vegas
September, 1989

The dissertation of Nancy Briggs Master for the degree of
Doctor of Education in Educational Administration and
Higher Education is approved.

Chairperson, Anthony Saville, Ed.D.

Examining Committee Member, George Kavina, Ed.D.

Examining Committee Member, Carl Steinhoff, Ed.D.

Graduate Faculty Representative, Chris Hudgins, Ph.D.

Graduate Dean, Dr. Ron Smith, Ph.D.

University of Nevada, Las Vegas
September, 1989

ABSTRACT

This study was made to determine if there were
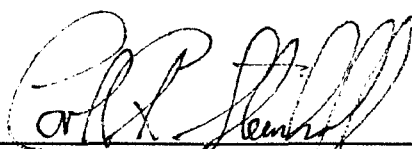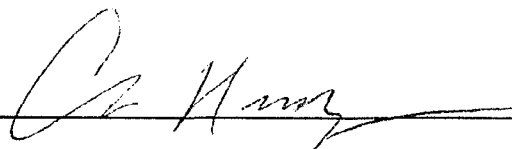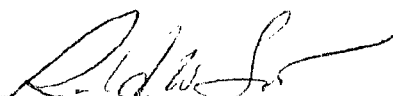similarities or differences in the leadership styles and
career paths of women in educational administration and
women in corporate management.

The populations of this study consisted of 50 women in
higher education administration selected from the 1988
edition of the Higher Education Directory and 50 women in
corporate administration from the 1988 Standard and Poor's
Register of Corporations, Directors and Executives. Women,
in both areas, listed as presidents, vice-presidents,
directors, deans, managers, chancellors, CEOs or other
corresponding titles, were selected.

The instruments used to gather data in this study were
the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire designed to give
scores on two leadership dimension--Consideration (human
relations) and Structure (task orientation; and a
Biographical/Career Path Questionnaire, developed by the
investigator, designed to gather information about personal
characteristics and career paths.

Executive women in business scored higher on both
dimensions--Consideration and Structure--than the women in

higher education. The educators reported more earned degrees, marriages of longer duration, fewer children and more parents with professional/managerial backgrounds than did the corporate executives who reported a higher percentage of parental influence on their career aspirations, more children per capita and marriages of shorter duration. Both groups agreed that experience, professional expertise and leadership ability had gained them their current managerial positions and that male chauvinism, male stereotyping of women and their early socialization were among the most important barriers that women faced in their attempts to obtain senior managerial posts.

The following recommendations were offered: (1) an assessment of leadership styles needs to be correlated with an assessment of effectiveness; (2) similar research needs to be done with younger women to determine if the differences that exist in this study are consistent; (3) research is needed to determine the number of women who were interested in becoming administrators, but who did not succeed; (4) further research is needed to compare women in four-year institutions with women in community college administration; and (5) in-depth studies of women executives in specific industries/businesses to determine if the results are consistent with those in this study.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS (Continued)

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF TABLES (Continued)

viii

Page

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

CHAPTER 1

Introduction and Background

Women have gone to work. Their entry has been
welcomed by most organizations and institutions. This
increase of women in the labor force has been called the
single most outstanding phenomenon of our century
(Ginzberg, 1976). The effect of this participation extends
beyond the work place, affecting every role that women play
in society, including those of spouse, mother, homemaker,
volunteer and community leader. With this tremendous
influx of women into the work place during the 1970s and
1980s came a dramatic change in the composition of
managerial ranks of American organizations.

Although still underutilized, since 1970 when 19.5%,
or 1 in every 6 of all managers and administrators were
women, the picture has become brighter; in 1982 this
percentage had risen to 28%, or greater that 1 in every 4
(Powell, Posner & Schmidt, 1983). Women have not risen
within the ranks of management as much as would have been
expected from their increase in sheer numbers, however. A
recent Fortune article concluded that, "Despite impressive

progress at the entry level and in middle management, women are having trouble breaking into senior management (Powell et al., 1983).

Similarly, in colleges and universities most top-level administrative positions were held by men. Of the women who became administrators, most tended to be in staff positions rather than senior (decision-making) ones. For example, a 1978 survey of 106 state and land-grant institutions revealed that of 13,638 administrative positions at these institutions, 2,905 (21.3%0) were held by women. About one-third of these women held line administrative appointments. In contrast, 51.5% of the male administrators were in line positions. Women accounted for only 14.6% of the total number of line positions (6,432) held by both men and women. Women were, however, moving into administrative positions in increasing numbers (NASULGC Report, 1978).

Although the percentage of college presidencies held by women has not increased appreciably over the last decade, the absolute number of women presidents has increased substantially from 132 in 1972 to 252 in 1983. The majority of female presidents were in private four-year colleges (58%), nearly half of which were women's colleges (Etaugh, 1984). The growth in the number of female presidents has slowed considerably, with the total rising

by only ten between 1984 and 1987 (Kaplan & Tinsley, 1989).
Women in senior administrative positions below that of
president or chancellor--that is women who served as
vice-presidents, deans or directors have increased. Recent
research indicated that approximately 1.1 women senior
officers may be found at the level of dean or above at each
college and university in the country (Kaplan & Tinsley,
1989). The only administrative positions with more than
50% women in white co-education institutions were those in
deanships in nursing, home economics and directorships of
affirmative action, bookstores, registration, health
services, financial aid, student counseling, information
office and public affairs (Etaugh, 1984) These positions
were primarily in the area of student services rather than
academic administration--line positions.

Women in both higher education and business wanting to
climb the management ladder faced many of the same
problems: discriminations, outdated male stereotyping of
women, lack of mentors and networks, ignorance about the
informal power structures and lack of social services such
as adequate daycare facilities. While they shared these
common problems, the corporate and academic worlds
presented different challenges, working conditions,
credentialing and career ladders. These varying conditions
and situations offered a research opportunity in the

comparison of the leadership styles of women, however few their number, already in management positions and aspiring to higher ones, and the career paths that had brought them to their present levels.

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to determine what similarities and differences existed in the leadership styles and career paths of selected women in higher education (four-year institutions) and in the leadership styles and career paths of women in corporate administration. This study investigated four aspects of the problem:

1. How did the leadership styles of women in higher education administration compare with and differ from those of women in corporate administration?

2. How did the leadership styles of these two groups of women compare to and differ from the existing norms for what are still male occupational roles?

3. What similarities and differences in career paths did the biographical data gathered from these two groups demonstrate?

4. Why were there still too few women in top leadership positions in both higher education and the corporate world?

Significance of the Study

While much has been written in the recent literature about women in management, both in higher education and business, and the problems they faced, there has been little that compared and contrasted their problems, leadership styles and background. Much of the previous research was fragmented, too narrow or dated. Moreover, most research compared women managers with men in the same or related field or positions; this study included women only. An examination of the career paths of these women would add to the understanding of the importance of family, education, networking, special training, role models and peer mentoring for women climbing the career ladders. Few studies have examined these various aspects in concert; most were discrete studies. A comparison of leadership styles of women in higher education and the corporate world would offer clues, if any, to which styles were the most effective for success and those utilized more by women in contrast to those used by men. The presentation of an organized, descriptive study of the leadership styles and career paths of women managers in higher education and business was the major task of this study.

Assumptions

1. It was assumed that female business managers and female educational managers utilized different leadership styles (Guido-DiBrito et al., 1985).

2. It was assumed that different personal, educational and professional factors have influenced the career histories of women in higher education and women in business (Tinsley, 1985; Barrax, 1985).

3. It was assumed that there are still significant barriers that prevent women, both in higher education and the business world, from obtaining senior-managerial posts (Kanter, 1977; Master, 1986).

4. It was assumed that the leadership styles of women differ from those of men in similar positions in education and corporate administration (Jago & Vroom, 1982: Powell, Butterfield & Maniero, 1981.

Delimitations of the Study

This study was intended to examine and compare the leadership styles and career paths of women in managerial positions in higher education and the business world. The

sample was limited to 50 women from higher education and 50 women from business. The study was also limited to an examination of the current status of women managers in higher education and business; therefore, the review of the literature concentrated on the past seven years. Older studies were used only when data were needed. This study was not intended to present a total picture of the women's rights movement. It was limited to women in higher education and business and did not include managers from public sector, government or the military or women managers in elementary and secondary education.

Conceptual Bases for the Study

The analysis of leader behavior, of what leaders actually do, has proved to be a rewarding research approach to the understanding of leadership. The conceptual bases for this study and the most famous and complete research directed toward the determination of dimensions of leader behavior have been that of the Ohio State Leadership studies (Stogdill & Coons, 1957) and subsequent studies stemming from these pioneering efforts. Nine _a priori_ dimensions of _Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire_ were shown by Halpin and Winer (1952) to reduce to four factor analytic dimensions. These were named Consideration, Structure, Production Emphasis and

Sensitivity. Consideration and Structure were by far the
most important, accounting for some 83% of the variance
between them.

The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ) developed
from these studies by Fleishman (1969) measured
Consideration and Structure. A number of subsequent
studies have confirmed that Consideration and Structure may
be regarded as two major dimensions of leader behavior
(Fleishman, 1951, 1953, 1957; Fleishman & Harris, 1962;
Fleishman & Ko, 1962; Fleishman & Peters, 1962; Fleishman &
Salter, 1963; Oaklander & Fleishman, 1964, Korman, 1966;
Gruenfeld & Weissenberg, 1966). An important research
finding was that these dimensions were independent; this
meant that managers might be high on both dimension, low on
both, or high on one and low on the other. In addition,
Bales (1954) offered a parallel in his task and
social-emotional leadership differentiation which was, in
itself, a confirmation. Fiedler's observation that his
differentiations in terms of interpersonal judgments were
meaningfully related to the concepts of Structure and
Consideration, also, from a widely different approach,
afforded support. Fiedler has shown that his high-LPC
leaders, i.e., those who described the least preferred
coworkers in favorable terms, were in fact leaders who were
described as more "considerate" as defined by the Ohio

Leadership studies.   On the other hand, Fiedler's low-LP⁻
leaders were shown to be "more task than relationship
oriented, more goal oriented, more punitive, and more
directive in their behavior."   In other words, these
leaders displayed much "structuring" behavior (Fiedler,
1967).

The definitions of Consideration and Structure have
been stated a little differently by the various authors of
the Ohio Leadership studies, but no better statements were
available than those offered by Fleishman (1969) in the
LOQ:

> Consideration (C). Reflects the extent to which an
> individual is likely to have job relationships with
> his subordinates characterized by mutual trust,
> respect for their ideas, consideration of their
> feelings, and a certain warmth between himself and
> them. A high score is indicative of a climate of good
> rapport and two-way communication. A low score
> indicated the individual is likely to be more
> impersonal in his relations with group members.
> Structure (S). Reflects the extent to which an
> individual is likely to define and structure his own
> role and those of his subordinates toward goal
> attainment. A high score on this dimensions
> characterized individuals who play a very active role

in directing group activities through planning,
communicating, scheduling, criticizing, trying out new
ideas, and so forth. A low score characterized
individuals who are likely to be relatively inactive
in giving direction in these ways. (p. 1)

Research Design

The population for this study consisted of women in
higher education administration and women in corporate
administration on a nationwide basis. To obtain a sample
of this population, the following procedures were employed:
Women in educational administration--names of women fitting
the definition were selected from a list in <u>Higher
Education Directory 1988</u>; any women listed with the title
of dean, vice-president, provost, president, chancellor, or
director were chosen. This source provided the total
sample of 50. Women in corporate administration--their
names were selected from <u>Standard and Poor's Register of
Corporations, Directors and Executives, 1988</u>; any women
listed with the title of manager, vice-president,
president, director, assistant vice-president, CEO,
secretary and assistant director were chosen. This source
provided the sample of 50.

All the women described in the sample were sent two questionnaires, the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ) developed by Fleishman (1969) and published by Science Research Associates, plus a Biographical/Career Path Questionnaire, developed by the investigator. The subjects were sent a letter explaining the study and enlisting their cooperation, as well as a self-addressed, stamped return envelope. Of the fifty sampled, thirty-one educators (62%) returned the two questionnaires. Twenty-six of the fifty corporate women (52%) responded to the questionnaires.

Date Tabulations

The results of the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ) were tabulated and analyzed for each individual and for each group. The results of the Biographical/Career Path Questionnaire were tabulated for each group and analyzed according to the variables of standard deviation and mean.

Definition of Terms

1. Leadership Style--When used as a general term, it means the consistent manner in which actions are performed in helping a group move toward goals, acceptable to its member, or a complex a quality and system of interpersonal

relationships which consist of certain theories, techniques, processes and activities of creating, planning, initiating, organizing, directing, influencing, motivating, guiding and controlling the attitudes, behavior patterns and activities of individuals and/or groups toward the attainment of some particular interest, goals or objective (Dictionary of Administration and Management, 1986).

2. Consideration--Reflects the extent to which an individual is likely to have job relationships with her subordinates characterized by mutual trust, respect for their ideas, consideration of their feelings, and a certain warmth between herself and them--a high score is indicative of a climate of good rapport and two-way communication. A low score indicates the individual is likely to be more important in her relations with group members.

3. Structure--Reflects the extent to which an individual is likely to define and structure her own role and those of her subordinates toward goal attainment. A high score on this dimension characterizes individuals who play a very active role in directing group activities through

planning, communicating information, scheduling, criticizing, trying out new ideas, etc. A low score characterizes individuals who are likely to be inactive in giving direction in these ways.

4. Higher Education Administration--Refers to women who hold the positions in higher education administration (four-year institutions) with the title of president, vice-president, provost, chancellor, dean or director.

5. Corporate Administration--Refers to women who hold positions in business organizations with the title of president, CEO, vice-president, manager, secretary or director.

6. Career Path--An individual's employment history, including education, family background and professional affiliations.

Organization of the Study

1. Chapter 1 contains the introduction and background, statement of the problem, significance of the study, assumptions, theoretical foundation and research methodology, delimitations of the study, definition of terms and the organization of the study.

2. Chapter 2 contains a review of the literature relevant to each aspect of the problem.

3. Chapter 3 presents the design of the study and the findings and analysis of the data.

4. Chapter 4 presents a summary of the study, conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER 2

Review of the Literature

This study focused on the leadership styles utilized by women in educational administration and women in corporate administration and the career paths of these two groups of women. A review of the literature was conducted in four interrelated areas: (1) Leadership theories, (2) women in educational administration, (3) women in corporate administration, and (4) characteristics of women administrators and the possible reasons for the lack of these women in the senior administrative posts.

Leadership Theories

Leadership was an elusive but intriguing topic of continuing interest to students and researchers of administration. Definitions were as numerous as researchers engaged in its study. The following are typical:

> Leadership is power based predominately on personal characteristics, usually normative in nature (Etzinoi, 1961, p. 116).

To lead is to engage in an act that initiates a
structure-in-interaction as part of the process of
solving a mutual problem (Hemphill, 1967, p. 98).
Leadership is the process of influencing the
activities of an organized group toward goal setting
and goal achievement (Stogdill, 1950, p. 4).

Katz and Kahn (1978) identified three major components
of the concept of leadership: (1) An attribute of an
office or position; (2) a characteristic of a person; and
(3) a category of actual behavior. The concept of
leadership remained elusive because it depended not only on
the position, behavior and personal characteristics of the
leader, but also on the character of the situation. Yukl
(1981) stated that research on leadership should be
designed to provide information concerning the entire range
of definitions, so that it would eventually be possible to
compare the utility of different conceptualizations and
arrive at some consensus. Still, there was an abundance of
useful conceptual and empirical capital available for
researchers of administration (Yukl, 1981).

The so-called great man theory of leadership or the
traits approach dominated the study of leadership until the
1950's. This approach tried to identify any distinctive
physical or psychological characteristics of the individual
that relate to or explain the behavior of leaders; this

approach was all but put to rest with publication of
literature reviews in the 1940s and 1950s. Stogdill (1948)
reviewed about 120 trait studies of leadership that were
completed between 1904 and 1947. He classified the
personal factors associated with leadership into the
following five general categories: (1) Capacity, (2)
Achievement, (3) Responsibility, (4) Participation; and (5)
Status. He concluded that the trait approach by itself had
yielded negligible and confusing results. Mann's (1959)
later review of 125 leadership studies that had generated
750 findings about the personality traits of leaders
produced similar conclusions. Despite the lack of success
in earlier studies, such research has persisted. More
recent trait studies, however, used a greater variety of
measurement procedures, including projective tests, and
they focused on managers and administrators rather than
other kinds of leaders. Yukl (1981) pointed out that the
newer research focused trait research on the relations of
leader traits to leader effectiveness rather that on the
comparison of leaders and nonleaders. Yukl's (1981)
distinction was a significant one. Predicting who would
become leaders and predicting who would be more effective
were quit different tasks. New trait studies looked at the

relationship between traits and leadership effectiveness of managers. Stogdill, after reviewing the new studies, wrote,

> ... a leader is characterized by a strong drive for
> responsibility and task completion, vigor and
> persistence pursuit of goals, venturesomeness and
> originality in problem solving, drive to exercise
> initiative in social ituation, self-confidence and a
> sense of personal identity (Bass, 1981, p.81).

Personality remained an important factor in leadership, but acknowledged that situations were equally important.

For a while, it seemed that sociologists had substituted a situational approach for the trait approach. They sought to identify distinctive characteristics of the setting to which the leader's success could be attributed. Campbell and his colleagues came to an interesting conclusion about this part of leadership research: "Everyone suggests [that] the need for research is great--but actual empirical activity is sparse" (Campbell, Dunnette, Lawlek & Weick, 1970, p.4). This phase of leadership research was shortlived.

Today, most models guiding leadership research involved a contingency approach. According to this approach, it was necessary to ask what traits under which situations were important to leader effectiveness. The

evidence indicated that under one set of circumstances, one type of leader was effective; under another set, a different type of leader was effective. Yet, the question of what kind of leaders for what kind of situation remained largely unanswered. Sociologist Robert Merton has written, "Leadership does not, indeed cannot, result merely from the individual traits of leaders; it must also involve attributes of the transaction between those who lead and those who follow... Leadership is, then, some sort of social transaction" (Merton, 1969, p. 2615).

Leadership research has been filled with various frameworks for examining the significant aspects of leadership behavior. Most conceptualizations were multidimensional, supporting at least two types. In his writings, Barnard (1938) distinguished between the effectiveness and efficiency of cooperative action. Similarly, Etzioni (1961) theorized that every group must meet two basic sets of needs: (1) Instrumental needs--the mobilization of resources to achieve the task; and (2) expressive needs--the social and normative integration of group members. Other researchers used different labels to refer to similar aspects of leadership behavior; for example, nomothetic and idiographic (Getzels & Guba, 1957), task and social leaders (Bales, 1954), employee and production orientations (Katz, Maccoby & Morse, 1950), and

initiating structure and consideration (Halpin, 1956).
Diverse as the literature was, it generally supported the
idea that there were two distinct categories of leader
behavior--one concerned with people and interpersonal
relations and the other with production and task
achievement.

The conceptual bases for this study were the research
projects, particularly those done at Ohio State University,
and subsequent studies which recognized the two leadership
styles, one emphasizing tasks and the other stressing
relationships.

The University of Michigan studies also attempted to
locate clusters of characteristics that seemed to be
related to each other and to tests of effectiveness. These
studies identified two concepts which they called employee
orientation and production orientation. A leader who
stressed the relationships aspects of the job was described
as employee-centered, while the production-centered leader
emphasized production and the technical aspects of the job.
(Likert, 1961). These two orientations could be viewed as
paralleling the authoritarian-democratic concepts of the
leader behavior continuum (Hersey & Blanchard, 1972).

At Ohio State, comprehensive studies were conducted by Halpin (1956) and his colleagues. These studies developed two basic dimensions of leader behavior--initiating structure and consideration. Halpin (1956) defined them as follows:

Consideration refers to behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship between the leader and members of the group.

Initiating structure refers to the leader's behavior in delineating the relationships between himself and the members of his group, and in endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and ways of getting the job done. (p. 65)

In order to gather data about the behavior of leaders, the Ohio State staff developed the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ), which was designed to describe how a leader carried out activities. The LBDQ contained 15 items and asked the subjects to describe the behavior of the leader on a five-point scale: Always, often, occasionally, seldom or never. The items were divided into two subscales, one for each of the dimensions of leader behavior the LBDQ measures. Separate scores for these two dimensions, initiating structure and

consideration, were determined by summing the item responses relating to each subscale. Subordinates, superiors or the leader himself can describe the leader's behavior.

Another instrument, the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ), developed by Fleishman (1969) grew out of the Ohio State Leadership studies. This instrument, in its present form (used by the participants in this study), was a product of more than 18 years of research; it has been used in a variety of industrial and organizational settings and provided a brief measure of leadership attitudes regarding the basic dimensions, Consideration and Structure.

In general, the pattern that emerged as most undesirable for many situations was the one in which supervisors were low in both Consideration and Structure. At least one study has shown that such managers were more likely to be bypassed by subordinates and were not even seen as functional managers (Fleishman et al.., 1955). The High Structure-Low Consideration supervisor was likely to show more turnover, grievances and stress among employees. There was also evidence (Fleishman & Harris, 1962) that managers high in Consideration could be higher in Structure without these adverse effects. For many criteria and situations, the above-average Structure and Consideration

pattern seemed most likely to optimize a variety of
different effectiveness criteria. Related studies done by
Rim (1965) and Oaklander and Fleishman (1964) showed that
male supervisors scoring high on both Consideration and
Structure and female head nurses scoring high on Structure
tended to take higher initial risks than their colleagues.
In addition, men and women scoring high on both
Consideration and Structure appeared to be the group
influencers leading to the shift in the risky direction.
Individuals low in both Consideration and Structure
appeared to be the most influenced in the group situation.

One important factor was that these two dimensions
were two separate and distinct dimensions. The behavior of
a leader was described as any mix of both dimensions. It
was during these studies that leader behavior was first
plotted on two separate axes rather than on a simple
continuum.

Four quadrants were developed to show various
combinations of consideration (relationships behavior) and
initiating structure (task behavior). Fleishman et al.
(1955) found that effective leadership behavior was
characterized by high scores on both dimensions, while
conversely, ineffective, undesirable leadership behavior
was marked by low scores on both dimensions. However, it

was noted that a leader could be high on one dimension, while low on the other, and still be an effective leader, depending on the situation.

A more descriptive attempt to conceptualize the task dimension and the people dimension of supervisory behavior has resulted in a formulation referred to as the managerial grid. The grid focused on five ideal-type theories of leadership behavior, each based on the two dimensions identified by previous research. Blake and Mouton (1964) showed the relationships between the two variables and presented five ideal-type combinations of style:

Impoverished (1-1)--Thoughtful of minimum effort to get required work done is appropriate to sustain organization membership.

Country Club (1-9)--Efficiency in operations results from arranging conditions of work in such a way that human elements interfere to a minimum degree.

Middle of the Road (5-5)--Adequate organization performance is possible through balancing the necessity to get out work while maintaining the morale of people at a satisfactory level.

Team (9-9)--Work accomplishment is from committed people; interdependence through a "common stake" in organization purposes leads to relationships of trust and respect. (p. 10)

The managerial grid was considered to be a normative theory of leadership in the sense that it prescribed the 9-9 image of leadership as the one best style. Reddin (1970) added a third dimension of effectiveness to this same basic model in the development of his 3-D Management Style Theory. This descriptive theory shared many of the features of the managerial grid but assumed that no one best style existed. He predicated an eight-style model of management (leadership behavior). These eight styles resulted from the eight possible combinations of Task Orientation, Relationships Orientation and Effectiveness.

Reddin (1970) proposed that the effectiveness of a given leadership style could be understood only within the context of the leadership situation. He assumed that related, integrated, separated and dedicated were four basic styles only, each with an effective and ineffective equivalent, depending upon the situation in which it was used.

A capsule description of each of these eight styles follows:

1. Executive--a manager who is using a high Task Orientation and a high Relationships Orientation in a situation where such behavior is appropriate and who is

therefore more effective. Seen as a good motivator who
sets high standards, who treats everyone somewhat
differently and who prefers team management.

2. Compromiser--a manager who is using a high Task
Orientation and a high Relationships Orientation in a
situation that requires a high orientation to only one or
neither and who is therefore less effective. Seen as being
a poor decision maker and as one who allows various
pressures in the situation to influence him too much. Seen
as minimizing immediate pressure and problems rather than
maximizing long-term production.

3. Benevolent Autocrat--a manager who is using a high
Task Orientation and a low Relationships Orientation in a
situation where such behavior is appropriate and who is
therefore more effective. Seen as knowing what he wants,
and knowing how to get it without creating resentment.

4. Autocrat--a manager who is using a high Task
Orientation and a low Relationships Orientation in a
situation where such behavior is inappropriate and who is
therefore less effective. Seen as having no confidence in
others, as unpleasant, and as being interested only in the
immediate job.

5. Developer--a manager who is using a high
Relationships Orientation and a low Task Orientation in a
situation where such behavior is appropriate and who is

therefore more effective. Seen as having implicit trust in people as being primarily concerned with developing them as individuals.

6. Missionary--a manager who is using a high Relationships Orientation and a low Task Orientation in a situation where such behavior is inappropriate and who is therefore less effective. Seen as being primarily interested in harmony.

7. Bureaucrat--a manager who is using a low Task Orientation and a low Relationships Orientation in a situation where such behavior is appropriate and who is therefore more effective. Seen as being primarily interested in rules and procedures for their own sake, and as wanting to maintain and control the situation by their use.

8. Deserter--a manager who is using a low Task Orientation and a low Relationships Orientation in a situation where such behavior is inappropriate and who is therefore less effective. Seen as uninvolved and passive.

Four More Effective Styles--the four more effective styles may be equally effective, depending on the situation in which they are used. Some managerial jobs require all four styles to be used at various times, other times tend to demand only one or two styles consistently.

A new theory of leadership effectiveness emerged from
some 15 years of research at the University of Illinois and
work done at the University of Washington; this theory,
developed by Fiedler and his colleagues, stemmed from a
research tradition associated with that of small-group
psychology. The theory suggested that both task-oriented
and relationship-oriented leaders were able to perform
effectively in a group, given conditions appropriate to and
supportive of their leadership style. Further, the theory
accepted the style of the leader as a given, and therefore,
recommended that the arrangement of tasks and situations
accommodate leader styles, rather than that styles change
to fit situations (Fiedler, 1967). Fiedler suggested, for
example, that the supervisor who was effective on a
one-to-one basis with teachers, because of the increased
status this arrangement provided, but was ineffective with
teachers as a group (group situations often decrease status
differences between designated leaders and followers)
should arrange for a pattern of supervision that favored
the first situation and avoided the second. The
task-oriented leader in Fiedler's (1967) research
corresponded to the dedicated leaders designation of
Reddin's (1970) theory, and the relationship-oriented
leader to the related designation.

Three major situational variables seemed to determine
whether a given situation was favorable or unfavorable to
the leader; in order of importance they were as follows:
(1) Leader-member relations, which referred to the extent
subordinates accepted, admired, liked and were willing to
follow individual supervisors because of the kind of people
they were and the relationship they had developed with the
subordinates; (2) task structure, which referred to the
extent the work of the unit or person being supervised was
structured, how clearly the objectives were defined and how
limited the processes available for achieving these
objectives were; and (3) position power, which referred to
the amount of formal authority and status the supervisor
had (Fiedler & Chemers, 1974).

Hersey and Blanchard's (1977) model of contingency was
a useful and well-known construct for understanding and
guiding supervisory leadership. They suggested that the
best leadership style was the one that matched the maturity
level of the followers. When the maturity level of the
followers was very low, they recommended that the
supervisor use a direct and structured style characterized
by high-task orientation and low-relationship orientation.
As the maturity level increased in a particular individual
as the situation changed, supervisors should use a more
integrated blend of task and relationship in their styles.

A more participatory approach to leadership characterized
by high-relationship orientation was recommended as
maturity in followers continued to increase. And finally,
for very mature followers who possessed a great deal of
self-responsibility, a less directive and unobtrusive style
was recommended. In the language of Hersey and Blanchard,
the emphasis in leadership shifted from telling to selling,
participating, and delegating as maturity in followers
increased. They defined maturity as "the capacity to set
high but attainable goals (achievement motivation),
willingness and ability to take responsibility, and
education and/or experience of the individual or the group"
(Hersey & Blanchard, 1977, P. 163).

One important characteristic of leadership style was
the emphasis, or lack of emphasis, given to the
participation of subordinates in decision making.
Dedicated and separated styles tended not to emphasize
participation. Related and integrated styles tended to
emphasize participation.

Vroom's (1973) theory of leadership focused on this
one important dimension of leader behavior, the degree to
which the supervisor encouraged participation of
subordinates in decision making. Vroom identified five
decision styles, or processes, that were available for use
by managers. This was a contingency approach in the sense

that no one decision-making process was best under all circumstances and that the effectiveness of one's choice was dependent upon properties of the situation. The decision styles were as follows:

1. The supervisor solved the problem or made the decision, using information available at the time. This was an approach consistent with the dedicated style.

2. The manager obtained the necessary information from subordinates, then decided on the solution to the problem. The manager might or might not have told staff much about the problem when obtaining information from them. The role of the staff in this case was in providing information, rather than generating or evaluating solutions. This approach combined aspects of the dedicated and separated leadership styles.

3. The supervisor shared the problems with relevant staff individually, obtaining their ideas and suggestions without bringing them together as a group. Then, the supervisor, at times influenced by their advice and at other times, not, made the decision. This style combined aspects of the dedicated and related leadership styles.

4. The manager shared the problem with the staff as a group, obtaining ideas and suggestions, and then made the decision, which might or might not have reflected the influence of the staff. The approach combines aspects of the dedicated and related leadership styles.

5. The leader shared the problem with the staff as a group. Together, they generated and evaluated alternatives and attempted to reach agreement on a solution. The supervisor did not try to pressure the group to adopt his solution and was willing to accept and implement any solution that had the support of the group. This approach combined aspects of the related and integrated leadership styles (Vroom, 1973).

Some recent studies on leadership activity and effectiveness suggested that beyond maintaining routine competence in their organizations, leaders did not make much of a difference (Mintzberg, 1973). One theorist, James March, argued that leaders were interchangeable (assuming equal basic managerial competence among them), with no one making a more significant impact on the organization than the others (March, 1980). This research indicated that while competent managers were necessary to ensure things would work in organizations, they appeared not to make a difference beyond a minimal level of satisfactory organizational performance.

Competent leadership was defined in these analyses as the mastery and articulation of basic management routines and leadership skills. Knowing how to arrange and prepare for a group session, mastering conflict management techniques were examples of such routines and skills. Though it was difficult to link these skills with excellence, incompetence or nonexistent skills led to less effective management and organizations. So leadership skills represented a critical foundation for excellence. To go beyond satisfactory conditions to excellence required that managers give attention to the substantive aspects of leadership. Mary Parker Follett wrote in 1913 about this subject:

> The leader is one who--can organize the experience of the group and thus get the full power of the group. The leader makes the team. This is preeminently the leadership quality--the ability to organize all the forces there are in an enterprise and make them serve a common purpose. Men [women] with this ability create a group power rather than express a personal power. They penetrate to the subtlest connections of the forces at their command, and make all these forces available and most effectively available for the accomplishments of their purpose (Merill, 1970, p. 328).

Women in Educational and Corporate Administration

Little research had been done comparing the leadership behaviors of managers in higher education and business (almost always male); that comparing the styles of women in these two areas was almost nonexistent. One recent study (Willis, 1983) compared the leadership behavior of training developers in higher education and industry. Although the sample cited was genderless, it provided some insight into the behaviors of leaders in these two diverse settings-- behaviors which might be applicable to both men and women. Results in this study by Willis indicated that developers in industry reported significantly more high task behaviors and significantly fewer low task behaviors than developers in higher education. The findings were in keeping with the literature suggesting that developers in educational settings emphasized relationship building as a major component of their dealings with clients, while those in industry settings emphasized the need for task accomplishment and increased productivity (Schwaller, 1980). This difference was summarized by Stolovitch (1981), who stated that although the basic process of instructional development was quite similar, there were major differences between the worlds of the educational and industrial developer. Whereas the developer in education was concerned with learning and with individual growth of

those involved in the development process, industry viewed development as a costly process and expected a significant return on investment either in terms of dollar savings or increased revenue.

In other, separate studies in both corporate and academic settings, one justification frequently offered for the low representation of women in senior administrative posts has been that women simply were not as interested or committed as men in the positions of leadership. A survey of 2,000 male executives 25 years ago (there were not many female executives in 1965) found that 51% considered women temperamentally unfit for management; a series of studies in the 1970s found that both female and male managers considered the profile of a successful manager as identical to that of an ideal man.

However, two recent studies showed a marked difference from the older research. Powell, Posner & Schmidt in 1983 and Bowker, Hinkle & Worner in 1983 showed that potential female administrators and managers not only aspired to the same administrative posts as men, but that once they obtained these posts, were more committed to their careers, as opposed to their family lives, than male managers with equivalent ages, salaries, educations and managerial levels. Women's work habits were more in line with

organizational preferences and their personal values were reported to be more compatible with organizational values than those of male managers ("Women Managers," 1985).

Steinberg and Shapiro (1982) tested the validity of the assumption that females did not have the personality traits commonly assumed to be characteristic of senior managers. They tested 71 MBA students, both male and female; women scored higher on some of the scales that depicted "masculine" traits and the female MBA students possessed the personality traits that were commonly used to define a competent manager. Similarly, Josefowitz (1982) found that the women she interviewed were significantly more accessible than the male managers in her study. The males saw time as one of their most valuable resources, and budgeted time for themselves to think and plan. Women, on the other hand, were more concerned with employees' satisfaction and feelings. By being accessible to troubled employees and treating them with concern, the female managers ensured loyalty in many cases, were more aware of the organizational climate and could often ward off conflicts before they caused problems. Individual employees' strengths and weaknesses became known to them and they could be helped to develop their potential, thus enhancing the unit's productivity.

The administrative hierarchies of universities throughout the United States have been particularly recalcitrant in moving women into top-level positions. One study of the administrative interests and aspirations on both men and women faculty members, the pool from which higher education administrators were typically drawn, has revealed that the low representation of women in line positions should no longer be justified on the basis that women were not as interested as men in obtaining these positions of leadership (Bowker et al., 1983).

The responses of the women faculty members refuted several myths held about women. Not only were women as interested in leadership positions as the male faculty, but they aspired to levels as high as those sought by the men. Women wanted line positions and indicated that while they were appointed to staff positions, they did not intend to remain, because they were not consistent with their administrative career goals.

Neither universities nor business organizations had had much experience in dealing with the kinds of change in the nature of their managerial ranks, and they had to construct strategies to minimize the costs. To develop their human resources fully, both education and business must develop women to their full potential. While every organization has its own peculiarities, the literature in

both areas pointed out three barriers that stood in the way of women's effective development: socialization, lack of political awareness and tokenism (Lyles, 1983; Kanter, 1977; Marshall, 1984; Howard, 1986).

Marshall (1984) suggested that women who aspired to administrative careers devised socialization and mobility structures which provided them with the following: (1) Role models for the explication of the model of following administrative functions; (2) ways to learn appropriate attitudes, behaviors and norms through opportunities for situational task learning; (3) support so that women maintained their confidence and aspirations during times of role ambiguity, role conflict and organizational testing; (4) information about and recommendations for administrative positions through informal networking; and (5) creating those replacements for sponsorship which became an additional task for women (Marshall, 1984).

Likewise, Kanter (1977) pointed out that even when the old barriers were knocked down, new ones appeared. Ironically, the spread of participative and entrepreneurial management practices that opened more opportunity and power to women created new problems for their advancement as long as they carried disproportionate family responsibilities. These new management practices took more time and absorbed more energy. People who left work on time and had family

affairs to worry about sometimes could not take advantage of the chance to create or invest in a new venture. Unless there was more social support for working parents and more equal division of labor at home, women would be left out of the new opportunities (Kanter, 1977).

Kanter (1977) also suggested that universities begin to alleviate the feelings of powerlessness and create more opportunities for women in the faculty ranks who aspired to administrative positions by: developing clearer career paths, providing developmental activities that deepen the sense of mastery of job-related skills, offer job sharing, job rotation (particularly for women in the childbearing years who want part-time work), involvement of more layers of the institution in goal-setting and planning and attention to building relationships, i.e., mentoring, between senior faculty and junior faculty and lateral transfers to build more job skills and experiences (Kanter, 1977).

Stress was another factor faced by aspiring women in both higher education and business. One article by Nykodym, Simonetti and Christen (1987) showed that today's working women contribute 40% to families' incomes and that they worked for self-esteem and self-actualization; these were no longer exclusively male desires. Dual career marriages caused stress and strain on both partners, but

women were especially confused by new roles. Sex-role stereotypes caused stress for women because they acted as constraints on a woman's life goals: (1) They provided little social validation of career goals because adult achievement for women was defined as successful marriage and motherhood; (2) women's traditional sources of power, such as marriage and motherhood, were not generally marketable in job settings; and (3) relatively few vocationally relevant matters were traditionally considered appropriate for women. Encouragingly, these stereotypes were being eliminated and women were moving themselves from these rigid definitions. Females possessing both feminine and masculine traits were less likely to experience stress in situations labeled masculine such as non-traditional business management or being dean of the engineering college. Women were also more people-oriented than men and because of this, were better equipped for the new management roles. But the strain of being the sole female role model was great. Women's empathy and caring, while allowing them to cope better, are also being assimilated by many male managers; on the other hand, male managers who already possessed these feminine traits were beginning to use them.

The literature on sex differences in leadership has yielded generally inconsistent results. Sex-role stereotypes appeared to affect perceptions and evaluations of leaders, but few differences have been noted in the actual leader's behavior of men and women (Powell et al., 1981). The concept of sex-role identity, defined as an individual's self-concept of being masculine and/or feminine, provided a possible explanation. Bem (1974) argued that sex-role identity, not sex, magnified the degree to which sex-role-related traits and behaviors were manifested. Thus, the behaviors exhibited in the role of leader were those which were congruent with the sex-role identity of the individual. If this were the case, sex-role identity accounted for results which examined only for sex differences seemed contradictory.

According to studies done by Rice (1978) and Inderlied and Powell (1979), which used Fiedler's LPQ and Bem's sex-role inventory, there was no more reason to believe that men and women differed in style of leadership than there was before this research. The relationship between sex-role identity and style of leadership was less clear. Leadership scores were negatively related to masculinity scores, indicating an association between task orientation and masculinity, but were unrelated to femininity scores. These also found a relationship between femininity and

leader's consideration behaviors. These differences in results reflected a higher value being placed on masculinity than on femininity in the workplace. Feminine characteristics were undervalued such that they were seen as having no legitimate bearing on style of leadership. Given the apparent relationship between masculinity and style of leadership, inclusion of sex-role identity as a potential predictor variable in future studies of leader behavior was recommended by these studies (Rice, Instone & Adams, 1984).

Similarly, a study done by Cimperman (1986) of 435 female and male administrators in Wisconsin's two-year colleges showed no significant difference among the self-perceptions of male and female administrators; she hypothesized from that data that there was not a significant difference in leader behavior among the male and female administrators studied. Knowledge of this similarity in self- perception contributed to breaking down myths about male and female leaders who saw their role as task-oriented or nurturing, respectively. Cimperman (1986) concluded that more research was needed to dispel negative stereotypes that had hindered the progress of women in leadership positions in education as well as business and government.

That administrative occupations in higher education were sex-typed was apparent in both women's lack of representation in institutional hierarchies and the negative sentiment (and treatment) they were accorded when they secured such positions (Colwill, 1982). First, the very large majority (80%) of these administrators were male (Pennsylvania State University, 1982). Furthermore, consistent with the regressive pattern associated with sex-typed occupations, while women constituted 20% of all academic administrators, they accounted for less than 7% of all college presidents (Astin, 1980). Second, there was within the academic world a normative expectation that this was as it should be (Schetlin, 1975; Swoboda & Vanderbosch, 1983). Women's sex role and status were by definition incongruent with those attributes commonly associated with this occupation. They simply were not seen to "fit the leadership image as it is presently drawn" (Nieboer, 1975, p. 100).

The consequences of sex-typing pervaded women's occupational experiences. For example, because social norms designated administrative positions in higher education as male, women occupants were always seen as women occupants never just as occupants (Kanter, 1980). "Myths surrounding gender soon become countervailing forces

against the fact of position. A woman president, dean or chancellor is seen first as a woman, and belatedly as an administrator" (Swoboda & Vanderbosch, 1983, p. 3).

The saliency of their ascribed versus their achieved role and status meant that women in these positions experienced "role entrapment" and "status leveling" (Kanter, 1980). As a result of the former, the range of behaviors available to the women administrator was often as circumscribed as those available to her secretarial foremothers (Swoboda & Vanderbosch, 1983). Consequently, women continuously defined, emphasized, exerted and defended their formal authority in interactions and situations where for men, it was accepted (Lafontaine & Mackenzie, 1985).

The dual role and status also meant the women were evaluated on the basis of how well they, as administrators, lived up to the sex-role expectations of being feminine as well as how well they, as women, lived up to the occupational expectations of being managerial (Kanter, 1977). However, due to the polarization between femininity and masculinity, living up to one set of norms and expectations inherently negated the possibility of satisfying the requisite conditions of the second (Nieva & Gutek, 1982). For example, when a women chose to emphasize the feminine, she risked additional losses in her

already-undermined formal authority. Likewise, when she emphasized the managerial, she expected social sanctions from both men and women in the organization. More concretely, this managerial behavior elicited confusion, discomfort, resentment and rejection on the part of those with whom she interacted.

Since the status ascribed to administrative positions was relatively high, and since the status ascribed to women was generally low, women administrators in higher education were likely to be treated inequitably as well. In fact, administration has been identified as the "hard core of sexism in academe" (Astin, 1980, p. 25). Differential placement within the organization, unequal access to rewards and lack of recognition for contributions were typical in this regard.

The recent increases in the employment of married women in administrative and managerial posts have drawn attention to the need for research that examined the interdependency of work and family roles in career paths. Most of the studies compared men and women managers in academe or business rather than women with similar positions. One study (Bird, 1984) showed: Women reported careers and professional activities significantly more time-demanding than those reported by men. Women reported more spousal sharing of planning menus, shopping for food,

food preparation an after-meal clean-up, but showed equal sharing of child care. The data also showed that women administrators married younger, have fewer children and earn less salary than male colleagues in similar positions, age range and educational attainment. Women mangers were much more likely to be part of a two-career family and to score significantly higher on career demand than males.

Their high level of employment responsibilities, coupled with the fact that a large proportion (77%) of women administrative leaders lived in two-career families, increased the potential for role overload. Past research illustrated that when both spouses were involved in high-intensive occupations, neither was likely to receive the career and family support that was typical of the one-career, and to some extent, the career-earner family (Scanzoni, 1980; Rapoport, 1976). Women in high-status positions have been observed to integrate family and employment roles in a manner similar to that of career men (Kanter, 1977). Career-oriented women worked long hours and often brought work-related materials home for evening and week-end study. Because women had traditionally held the major responsibility for family roles, they, more than men, felt under pressure to set time priorities so as to maximize their performance in both roles.

In role management, there were three notable differences between men and women administrators. Women were significantly more likely to delegate tasks and significantly less likely to reduce responsibilities on the job by changing their standards of performance, saying "no" to avoid an overload of employment activities or using home responsibilities to justify not accepting more job responsibilities. Women were also significantly less likely to compartmentalize-to leave work roles behind and concentrate solely on family roles at home. Though compartmentalization seemed to be the ideal solution to role conflict, employment roles frequently had a way of expanding into at-home time. And, research findings suggested that children fared better in a society that did not try to disguise and deny the interdependence of work and family responsibilities (Hays & Kamerman, 1983).

A study done by Barrax (1985) of the career paths of male and female administrators discussed factors that helped these people obtain their management posts. Six of the women and six of the men, primarily, but not exclusively deans, attained their current positions after competing in a search, and nine of the females and none of the males were nominated or invited to apply from within the institution. Both the male and female administrators in these two categories stressed different factors they

felt contributed to their being selected for the positions they held. The reasons given reflected not only their perceptions but also what they felt they projected or sought to project that was important for their position.

The factors most frequently mentioned by the men and women who went through the search process fell into six broad groupings. There was, however, some variance in the frequency in which the participants cited them.

A history of taking risks, achieving change successfully and being progressive was cited by 83% of the women and 17% of the men. Other major factors were possession of the right credentials (a terminal degree and publications) and a regional or national reputation from involvement in organizations (women, 33%; men, 33%); responses given to questions during interviews revealing communications skills or institutional match (women, 33%; men, 50%); strong recommendations from the "right" people (women, 33%; men 17%); and social and personal characteristics of the interviewees (women, 33%; men 17%).

In addition to personal characteristics, the administrators who did not go through a search stressed other key factors which they believe helped to get them their administrative appointments. Both the females (67%) and males (78%) credited their selection to the visibility gained through involvement in a variety of activites

(mainly committee work) on their campuses, which, in turn, allowed them to demonstrate their involvement in the affairs of the university and their breadth of interest. However, almost twice as many of these women (78%) as men (44%) felt that previous administrative experience in lower-level positions had been a critical factor in their appointment.

One common element in the responses of more that 75% of the women and men--both those who went through a search and those who did not--was the fact that they had mentors or role models in both their educational and professional experience. Most had male mentors; few female mentors were available to women in non-traditional fields.

Generally, the finding of the study showed that women--as well as men--who were already working at a university and who wished to move into administrative jobs attracted attention to their abilities by volunteering for and accepting assignments at all levels which gave them opportunities to demonstrate interpersonal and communications skills in particular, as well as other skills perceived by the participants in this study to be important for administrators.

In a similar study by Tinsley (1985), the author examined the upward mobility of women in higher education; he stated that even though the trend toward more female administrators in higher education was going in a positive direction, the structure of employment in higher education administration had proven over the past decade resistant to change. Tinsley felt that women had significantly underestimated the degree of organizational and cultural resistance to any kind of real change. For example, the search committee was a very good organizational instrument with mixed success. In spite of efforts to include women and minorities as search committee members, and in spite of conscientious attention to affirmative action requirements, search committees continued to need pressure from the CEO to come up with women and minority candidates. Most of the members of search committees, male and female, were free of overt sexism, so why was this the case? The author contended that this was the case because people who worked in an organization, faculty as well as administrators, were often very concerned about the ability of a women candidate to "fit in." Would she work as a member of the team? Could she relate to the male political structure in the community and the region? Would she be able to work with members of the Board of Regents? Although none of these questions or concerns related directly to the vision and

the managerial skills necessary to function effectively as a senior administrative officer, they did, however, reflect the desire of colleges and universities to be led by individuals who shared the organization's values and who related to the institution's political, economic and social realities.

Kaplan and Tinsley (1989) felt that women had learned three important things in the past ten years about moving themselves along into senior managerial posts:

1. First, there was absolutely no substitute for the commitment and active involvement of CEOs and governing boards. These people had to make affirmative action and the advancement of women and minorities a publicly stated personnel and institutional commitment. Committed presidents and boards had to make themselves aware of the different career paths of men and women administrators in higher education administration, and particularly the tracking of women administrators which was different from that of the men. They had to devise ways to remove the gender-linked barriers on their own campuses. They encouraged the mentoring of promising women and minorities and were prepared to mentor themselves, particularly someone quite different from themselves.

2. The second thing was that women had to make a commitment to advancement. They had to have appropriate credentials, had to understand the organizational structures and political processes of their institutions and had to be willing to take risks.

3. The third thing was that extra-institutional projects--those with a national or state-wide focus--were necessary but not sufficient to open up opportunities for women and minorities on an individual campus. Women and minority faculty and administrators, no matter how few in number, overworked or isolated, have to work to make the campus hospitable. They had to support: Continuous monitoring the "bread-and-butter issues for women--hiring practices, numbers hired, compensation, promotion and tenure; professional development and networking; an environment in which people could teach one another how the institution worked and how to seek policy changes; continuous pressure for curriculum and services responsive to the needs of women and minority students (Kaplan & Tinsley, 1989).

Ezrati (1983) found that inequities in employment and compensation of female faculty in institutions of higher education were shown to be related, in part, to personnel policies that adversely affected married women. Regulations concerning anti-nepotism, inbreeding, leaves of

absence, part-time employment and provision for childcare
tended to have the greatest negative impact on women
academicians. Although there was little research in this
area, what there was demonstrated the limited academic
success of women with families. In research reported by
Freeman (1977), married faculty women were shown to receive
fewer institutional rewards than men or single women.
Other personnel policies that hurt academic women were:
Institutional inbreeding--rules in regard to inbreeding
specify that graduates of an institution of higher
education may not be employed as faculty at the same
institution. Theoretically, such policy was designed to
force introduction of new ideas into the institution
through the employment of individuals trained elsewhere.
Freeman (1977) pointed out the fallacy of this argument; it
assumed that graduates were permanently fixed in their
thinking by their training. Part-time employment for women
who wished to combine family and career was another option.
Theoretically, this option allowed a women to keep current
and active in her profession, thereby reducing the problems
of decreased productivity, loss of salary relative to men,
and slow promotion. Traditionally, part-time employment
has existed as a marginal form of academic employment, with
no benefits and no time accrued toward promotion and
tenure. The major issue was childcare, or the lack of it,

for academic women. Rich (1977) described childcare as the one need that was primary if women were to assume any real equality in the academic world, the one challenge that the university today, like society around it, evaded with every trick in its possession. The success of this means of restriction was all too clear when one considered the small number of women faculty who had been able to combine careers and family life.

Evans (1986), using the Wortley and Amatea (1982) conceptual framework, conducted a study that examined the self-concept of women engaged in careers in educational and student affairs administration. Interviews were conducted with 48 women involved in administration in the state of Indiana. These women exhibited positive self-concepts incorporating both stereotypically masculine and feminine qualities. The main intent was to provide an overall picture of the self-concept of women in educational administration. The women administrators as a group showed generally positive self-concepts. A typical comment was made by one 44-year-old assistant dean: "I'm comfortable with who I am and the state I'm in. At the same time, I don't mean to say that I don't expect myself to change and continue to grow" (Evans, 1986, p. 16). Adjectives most commonly used as self-descriptors included caring, organized, sense of humor, dependable, intelligent, warm,

holding high standards, liking people and determined. Most of the women indicated that there were things about themselves they wanted to change. Desired changes included being more patient and less judgmental, being less of a procrastinator, being more organized, achieving better balance of the various aspects of life and developing more confidence.

All but two of the women identified accomplishments of which they were proud. Most of the references, 37 of 50, were to career-related accomplishments such as developing new programs, gaining recognition from colleagues, seeing former students achieve goals or winning awards.

Women administrators often mentioned that they were rather distant. This style of interaction might have developed to accommodate to a male environment in which they were so often seen as outsiders. The need for more patience might also have been related to high stress experienced in both their work and personal lives. The women who were most content with themselves were the youngest and the oldest. It might be that younger women had not yet confronted the dilemmas and disappointments that lead to self-criticism, while older women had fought the battles and were now at peace with themselves.

This study contradicted previous research indicating that middle age was the period of most conflict for adults; for this group of professional women, the choices and pressure associated with the thirties, exploration of options and the development of support systems assisted in the successful resolution of the challenges women faced at this time. More flexible work schedules, increased childcare options, support mobility within the state system or out of present positions into new ones were also needed to decrease the stress women felt as they considered whether to begin families or as they attempted to carry out both professional and family responsibilities when children were young and careers were being built (Moore & Sangaria, 1980).

At a recent conference, women administrators in public and private institutions articulated the meaning and role of mentoring in their careers. Because their experiences with the traditional pattern of mentoring, in which powerful men groom proteges, had frequently been negative, they advised that women engage in such relationships with caution. However, they enthusiastically endorsed a consistently beneficial networking model of mentoring that entailed flexible and mutually interdependent patterns of training, information sharing and support (Swoboda & Millar, 1986).

One risk factor women faced in grooming-mentoring relationships was their status as a "token." Promoted by her mentor as uniquely gifted and fortunate, a token was not perceived as just one in a continuously growing stream of women who was expected to be as capable as she. While seemingly good for the individual, tokenism actually harmed both the individual and women as a group. As a result of the psychological training common in our society, a women mentee may have experienced undue dependency on her mentor as a father figure. He, in turn, may have found it easy to become too intrusive, ascribing his own career goals to her. In such cases, rather than feeling as if her potential was being developed, a mentee may have felt used.

Compared to the "grooming" method of mentoring, this emerging "networking" model, discussed by women administrators from Wisconsin colleges at their 1986 conference, entailed more flexible and mutually interdependent patterns of training, information sharing and support. Networking-mentoring consisted of an ever-changing series of dyadic contacts in which each person played the role of mentor or mentee to differing degrees in each dyad (MCeer, 1983).

The old adage that returns were commensurate with risks appeared true for women engaged in grooming-mentoring relationships. For networking-mentoring, its seemed true

in one respect only: Networking-mentoring relationships were less likely than grooming relationships to move a women up a hierarchial ladder quickly. Aside from the fact that it was not a fast-track strategy, networking-mentoring allowed women to "have their cake and eat it, too." First, it was available to all women. Second, participation in networking-mentoring could not hurt a woman's career, and almost certainly eventually would help it. And third, it acted as a reliable back-up for those women selected for the more risky grooming-mentoring relationships.

The reliability of networking-mentoring was a function of its flexibility. Because networking-mentoring relationships were less intense and entailed less commitment, they were less subject to the principle of homogeneity: Because of little concern about long-term compatibility, networks easily included people from a wide range of social backgrounds. Networks included people from all levels of power hierarchies. The mentoring took place within networks; it was therefore more likely to provide mentees with a wide range of role models and leadership styles. In this regard, networking-mentoring was especially suited to the development of both traditional and non-traditional career paths (Fowler, 1982): Keele & DeLaMare-Schaefer, 1984).

One of the greatest virtues of networking-mentoring was the degree to which it fostered self-reliance. When groomed in a clearly hierarchial relationship, a women's mentor always took final responsibility. When learning the ropes from colleagues, however, a woman relied on herself. Having no one in particular, but many in general, upon whom she depended, she was never tempted to become overly dependent. Hence, her career would not suffer if her mentor's career or her grooming relationship failed. That women who were in mentoring networks were not perceived as being promoted out of favoritism was very important. Since networking-mentoring relationships did not selectively promote women, it was meaningless to accuse networkers of exchanging promotion for sexual favors. Networking-mentoring was not subject to colleague resentment; on the contrary, colleagues were included. No one doubted the ability of networkers; they were perceived as people who achieved their goals strictly on the strength of collegiality and proven merit (Hetherington & Barcelo, 1985).

Pancrazio and Gray (1982) and MacConkey (1980) argued for "collegial networking": The collegial model was based on affiliation rather than competitiveness or individualism. It incorporated those very positive

characteristics which society had designated as feminine such as nurturance, sharing and helping (Pancrazio & Gray, 1982).

Their advice to "collegial networkers" read like a synopsis of the Wisconsin conference on mentoring: To seek out other women colleagues; identify women who were at the hub of various networks; share personal expertise; learn to give and take criticism; recommend women for jobs, committees and task force assignments tolerate differences of opinion and style; develop empathy for women who have succeeded but do not want others to succeed; communicate directly, honestly and openly with professional women; and include men in the network. Green (1982) noted that networks comprising both supportive peer groups and established leaders or power holders can "create a vital support system among women who can help each other not only with information, but with advice, mentoring, sponsorship, and moral support." (p. 42).

Louise Allen, former Vice-President for Academic Affairs at the University of Southern Colorado, wrote a piece on tasks, the reward and the difficulties of being a female in the role of chief academic officer (Allen, 1984). In a section called hints for future vice-presidents, particularly women, she recommended first that they possess the requisite academic credentials. This includes the

doctorate, and teaching preferably at all levels, including graduate levels. It also meant reading and keeping up in the discipline and publishing as well as being cognizant of the general problems in higher education. But a career leading to major academic offices also involved progressive administrative responsibility, which was to some extent incompatible with a scholarly career. Therefore, choices, conscious or unconscious, have to be made between conventional scholarly research and administration. This was not to say, Allen pointed out, that the academic administrator should not be a constant learner, but only that what was learned would be subject to change. Budget analysis would replace literature searches; personnel decision would replace choice of scholarly hypotheses; and papers would reflect management problems more often than the cutting edge of knowledge in a discipline. If a women had made the choice to pursue a career in academic administration and aspired to a position like academic vice-president, Allen offered the following advice:

1. Get the very best secretary you can and keep him/her happy; they can make or break you.

2. Find your operating style and stick to it; don't feel you must be aggressive just because those around you are, but at the same time don't get pushed into positions that don't seem right to you.

3. Learn about finances if you haven't done so in your schooling, and take formal training if you need it.

4. Learn to delegate, even if you think you could do a better job.

5. Learn to run good meetings.

6. Don't postpone or shy away from unpleasant tasks, such as replacing or reprimanding when necessary.

7. Recognize that at least some of your decisions will be unpopular; learn to live with this.

8. If you make a error, take your lumps and learn from it.

9. Learn to play the game of campus politics well; practice finding out where the informal communications/decision network lies and learn to use it constructively.

10. Don't betray your values. If you have a strong opinion, state if frankly and then follow through on it straight-forwardly (Allen, 1984, pp. 13-14).

Most important, Allen stated, was to remember that as a woman you were different, but not to be made into a "token." And always keep foremost in your mind that the institution's main business was the education of the students and that students were the most important people on campus. Leadership was lonely and positions of leadership were always perplexing. Leadership in times of change was particularly difficult; Allen concluded that for the women who were willing and able to learn the lessons, do the work and take the risk, academic administration was rewarding.

Organizational structure has been found to limit women's career paths and women's perceptions of their own competence. The relatively small number of women in senior business management has been cited as a critical factor leading to dysfunctional behaviors such as increased stress, isolation and exclusion from informal meetings (Kanter, 1977).

Demographic characteristics of women at leadership levels in top companies included: Making late career decisions, remaining single into their thirties, experiencing an identity crisis, deciding to marry only half the time, having no children or having a single child in their late thirties and a tendency to be a first-born child. Personality characteristics of successful business

women have included emotional stability, aggressiveness, self-reliance, objectivity and directness. Their behavioral styles of leadership compared to men's were found to be more relaxed, less authoritarian and higher in consideration and initiating structure dimensions. They tended to work very hard and perceived discrimination on the job as their greatest obstacle (Hennig & Jardim, 1967; Mark, 1981).

Compared with non-executive women, executive women were found to value eminence, freedom of thought, challenge and interpersonal contact. They were also higher in self-esteem, need for power and mental ability. Also, these women valued the support systems that have been established by professional women like themselves in recent years, systems that fill social, professional and emotional needs. Support of a mentor, usually a male, had been found to be critical for a woman's advancement in the business community (McGee, 1979; Kanter, 1977; Mark, 1981).

Still, female representation in the highest executive positions remained very low. A survey by Fortune of the top officers and directors of 1,300 companies' populations found just 10 women among 6,400 as officers and directors (0.16%), and this number had not increased from 1973-1978 (Heidrick & Struggles, Inc., 1980). Also, in 1980, Heidrick and Struggles found only one women officer for

each 1.6 nonindustrial firms and each 3.3 industrial firms. A more recent Fortune article stated that no women were on the fast track to the chief executive jobs at any "Fortune 500" corporation. A decade has passed since U.S. corporations began hiring more than token numbers of women at their bottom rung of the management ladder. So how far have they come? The answer: Not as far as their male counterparts. Despite impressive progress at the entry level and in middle management, women were having trouble breaking into senior management. "There is an invisible ceiling for women at the level," said Janet Jones-Parker, executive director of the Association of Executive Search Consultants. After eight or ten years, they hit a barrier (Fraker, 1984). Similarly, Patricia Galagan, editor of the Training and Development Journal, pointed out in an editorial that women have not cracked the so-called "glass-ceiling beyond which they do not seem to be able to move in great numbers into high executive positions" (Galagan, 1986, p. 4). Galagan (1986) cited a Wall Street Journal supplement that showed that although women filled nearly one-third of all management positions, very few made it beyond the first or second level of management. Even in industries such as financial services and retailing, which were heavy employers of women, the percentages of female

top executive was even worse. At AT & T, where women made up 48% of the employees, fewer than 3% of the top 880 executives were women.

Women were still wrestling, Galagan contended, with stereotypes about drive and commitment, and with Neanderthal attitudes about their temperaments. A <u>Harvard Business Review</u> survey discovered the "one in five men believes that women are temperamentally unfit for management" (Galagan, 1986, p. 4). Galagan said that there are options being pursed by women with great success. Women now hold the majority of professional jobs in the United States. By "professional," she meant those who "develop, produce and apply knowledge" (Galagan, 1986, p. 4). Another area into which women had moved with alacrity was entrepreneurship. Self-employed women were increasing about five times faster than self-employed men. This was clearly one way to escape the low visibility and lack of profit center responsibility that was the lot of most women working in large companies (Hughey, 1986).

But for those women who remained with the corporation, the picture was bleak or confusing; women had only 4 of the 154 spots (1984) at the Harvard Business School's Advanced Management Program--a prestigious 13-week conclave to which companies send executives they were grooming for the power positions. The number was not much better at comparable

programs at Stanford and Dartmouth's Tuck School. But the most telling admission of trouble came from men at the top. "The women aren't making it," confessed the chief executive officer of a "Fortune 500" company to a consultant. "Can you help us find out why?" (Fraker, 1984, p. 40).

While many answers are given to why women were not in the top managerial jobs, most men and women of the corporation felt that "discrimination" was the major problem. This was not the discrimination of simple-minded sexism of dirty jokes and references to "girls." What these people called discrimination consisted simply of treating women differently from men. While many men would liked to have seen women in senior management, they did not recognize the subtle barriers that stood in the way. It was not a matter of the women being competent; that was assumed at the senior level. It was more a matter of comfort; men felt that women simply did not fit into their culture and the corporate culture at higher levels. Similarly, 117 of 300 women executives polled recently by UCLA's Graduate School of Management and Korn-Ferry International, an executive search firm, felt that being a women was the greatest obstacle to their success (Fraker, 1984).

Consultants and executives who thought discrimination was the problem tended to believe it persisted in part because the government had relaxed its commitment to affirmative action, which they defined more narrowly than some advocates did. "We're not talking about quotas or preferential treatment," stated Margaret Hennig, who, along with Anne Jardim heads the Simmons College Graduate School of Management. "That's stupid management. We just mean the chance to compete equally" (Fraker, 1984, p. 42). Again, a semantic chasm separated women and men. Women like Hennig and Jardim thought of affirmative action as a vigorous effort on the part of companies to ensure that women were treated equally and that sexist prejudices were not permitted to operate. Men thought the term meant reverse discrimination, giving women preferential treatment.

Legislation such as the Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972 prohibited companies from discriminating against women in hiring. The laws worked well-indeed, almost too well. After seven or eight years, the pressure was off and no one pushed hard to see that discrimination was eliminated in selecting people for senior management. The problems began in the latter days of the Carter administration, when the economy was sluggish and companies worried more about making money than how their female

employees were faring. The Reagan Administration did not make equal opportunity a priority, either (Naffziger, 1986).

What about the belief that women fell behind not because of discrimination, but because they were cautious, unaggressive and differently motivated than men--or less motivated? Even some female executives believed that women derailed their careers by choosing staff jobs over high-risk, high-reward line positions. One woman, formerly with a large consumer goods company and now president of a market research firm, urged women to worry less about sexism and more about whether the jobs they took were the right route to the top (Fraker, 1984).

Data on how women's expectations--and therefore, arguably, their performance--differed from men's were confusing. Stanford professor Myra Strober and her colleagues studied 150 men and 26 women who graduated from the Stanford Business School in 1974 (Gordon & Strober, 1980). When these authors polled the MBAs shortly before graduation, they discovered that women had much lower expectations for their peak earnings. The top salary the women expected during their careers was only 60% of the men's. Four years later, the ratio had fallen to 40% (Gordon & Strober, 1980).

Did this mean that women were less ambitious or were willing to take lower salaries to get management jobs? Strober did not think so. She said a major reason for the women's lower salary expectations was that they took jobs in industries that traditionally pay less, but which, the women thought, offered opportunities for advancement. Almost 20% of the women in her sample went into government, compared with 3% of the men. On the other hand, no women went into investment banking or real estate development, which each employed about 6% of the men. Gordon and Strober pointed out, however, that these were closed to women in the early 1970s, not the case since. "One way people decide what their aspirations are," Strober said, "is to look around and see what seems realistic. If you look at a field and see no women advancing, you may modify your goals" (Gordon & Strober, 1980, p. 43).

What women needed most, the experts said, were loud, clear, continuing statements of support from senior management. Women have come a long way at Merck, claimed B. Lawrence Branch, the company's director of equal employment affairs, because Chairman J.J. Horan insisted that their progress be watched. Merck had a program that identified 10% of its women and 10% of its minorities as "most promising." The company prepared a written agenda of what it would take for them to move up to the next level.

Progress upward often meant changing jobs or switching functions, so Merck circulated their credentials throughout the company. Since 1979, almost 40% of the net growth in Merck's managerial staff have been women. Similarly, at Penn Mutual Life Insurance in Philadelphia, where nearly one-half the mangers were women, executives conducted a series of off-site seminars on gender issues and sex-role stereotypes. Dayton-Hudson provided support (moral and financial) for a program whereby women in the company traded information on issues like personal financial planning and childcare (Naffziger, 1986; Johnson, Neelankavil & Jadhav, 1986).

Yet, many businesses and institutions were unprepared to deal with the great influx of women into the work force and eventually into management. Consequently, organizations often looked to the training and development function for assistance when planned change was needed. Smoothly incorporating greater numbers of women into management was certainly no different. Many questions arose. What was the proper content and format of that training effort? Who should be included and why? How long would it take and how much would it cost? Bottom-line issues about the training evaluation and effectiveness were also very important.

Before an organization was a candidate for any kind of intervention, a thorough needs analysis had to be conducted. Here, the analysis focused on the issues mentioned above, but had to also be flexible enough to include any others unique to the organization (Naffziger, 1986).

Given the nature of these issues, methods such as interviews, focus group questionnaires and informal discussions were recommended to yield the best results. Information had to be sought from both sexes; this was not a women-only issue. Both single-sex and mixed-sex group discussions allowed each sex to identify issues in isolation and later discuss them in an environment of mutual problem solving. The organization's program content had to be based on the results of the needs analysis; it had also to be tailored to the needs of the individual company and not include things because they were fashionable. Naffziger (1986) suggested that there were many methods for doing this. Attitude surveys, such as the Women as Managers Scale, could be administered either prior to or during the early phases of the program to get a feel for the employees' stand on the issue of women in management. These data could also be used for later program evaluation. Men and women role-played problem situations to give each other perspective. Several films,

such as the <u>Workplace Hustle,</u> discussed certain problems women faced in a non-offensive, professional manner. Case studies, discussion groups and mutual problem solving also proved effective (Monat, 1981).

Also important was program evaluation; did the training have its desired effects and did it achieve its objectives at a reasonable cost? Kelley, Orgel and Baer (1984) pointed out that before deciding how to evaluate, criteria for evaluation had to be determined. Only when criteria were clearly established could an organization decide how to measure them. There were several possibilities, the authors pointed out, for acceptable criteria. Morale among women employees could be an appropriate measure; so could morale among men about the status of women in the organization and the issue of bringing more women into management. The number of EEO/Affirmative Action complaints, if there were any prior to the training, could serve as a criterion; if complaints were fewer, it might be a result of the training. Turnover among women and its causes, determined through exit interviews, could shed some light on the impact of the training program. Measures of learning and attitude change were probably the most easily ascertained criteria and were obtained through the use of survey questionnaires.

Finally, measures of male mangers' behavior indicated whether they actually implemented the information acquired in the training program.

After the criteria had been established, then, methods for their measurement could be developed. For all the methods, pretraining and posttraining measures were taken and indicated a degree of change. Both statistical analysis and measuring the costs of developing the program were possible methods. Evaluation incorporated quasi-experimental research designs with control groups (Kelley et al., 1984).

One area where training seemed to be growing, expecially for women, was in finance and accounting. Because almost all managerial tasks were now scrutinized on cost and profit bases, managers were responsible for developing their own budgets and cash-flow requirements. Hence, managers dealing with marketing, personnel and engineering were required to understand the basic concepts of finance and accounting. Because of their specialization and narrower scope, computer proficiency and economics have been less frequently identified as important training needs (Johnson, Neelandavil & Jadhav, 1986).

Comparing the needs among three levels of managers, entry-level, middle and executive, Johnson et al. (1986) highlighted some basic differences among the three levels

of managers. For senior managers, the most important additional training needs were in the area of finance and accounting. Senior managers, after all, had to evaluate their subordinates' budgets and financial forecasts. For middle managers, the most important training need was the management of people. As the day-to-day decision makers, middle managers had to deal with more people than did entry-level managers or even senior executives, who more often dealt with people indirectly or in a different way. For the entry-level managers, the most important training needs were writing and oral skills. These managers were quite often the "report" and "project" writers in organizations. A substantial number of entry-level managers in this study indicated the need for additional training in managing people.

Based on the responses of the managers, the five most important performance factors were:

1. Ability to handle pressure, maintaining performance stability under stressful situations:

2. Problem solving;

3. Organization;

4. Planning (including following through); and

5. Integrity in dealing with others with complete honesty.

Executives in general agreed that ability to perform under pressure was the most important of all the performance factors. It was difficult to screen for this factor. When managers were recruited and developed, the emphasis was most often placed on problem solving, planning and other such managerial functions, not necessarily on their performance record under pressure. But women executives who could function under pressure seemed to be suited for higher-level jobs and considered for them more often (Herzberg, 1979).

Lyles (1983) pointed out that within an organizational context various methods could be utilized for developing helping behaviors. Two major assumptions had to be made about the ability of organizational members to help women, Lyles contended. First, the organizational members had to recognize the need as being a legitimate one. Many people did not feel that women needed or should have help. A second assumption was that women themselves were willing to accept help and recognize the need for it. Many studies supported the notion that women frequently have problems adjusting within organizations (Kanter, 1987; Nydodym et al., 1987). In fact, some studies showed that women might not identify critical helping behaviors when they were offered. For example, a suggestion from the boss to write an executive report might be viewed simply as more work

rather than a chance to shine within the organization. Along the same line, women accepted help only if they did not misinterpret it, belittle it or ignore it. Many people, both men and women, have difficulty accepting the help and concern of friends and colleagues.

Organizational helping mechanisms could be either formal or informal. Certainly, most organizations had rules, policies or goals that were aimed at helping all employees receive the training, development and feedback necessary for progress. Such formal helping mechanisms have primarily included training programs, the organization structure, reward systems and policies on professional and community involvement. In fact, there programs were developed long before women in management became an issue, and might have remained intact without being evaluated in terms of their appropriateness for the changing nature of the work force (Apfelroth, 1986).

It was difficult to imagine any organization without informal mechanisms for which there was no written documentation. Instead, there were understandings, agreements and norms that governed appropriate behaviors, goals and patterns of interaction. Informal mechanisms were frequently characterized by a degree of uncertainty that allowed them to change or to be defined differently by different people. In most organizations, however, there

was a shared understanding of what was appropriate. Thus, it might not be appropriate for a male manager to ask a women manager out to dinner, but it might be acceptable to ask her to lunch. Other informal mechanisms included networks, physical settings and social gatherings (Sutton & Moore, 1986; Boeker et al., 1985).

Organizational helping mechanisms were directed at internal activities or at interactions within the organization's external environment. Examples of internal activities were training programs and formal (hierarchial) reporting; examples of external or environment/organization interface activities were professional activities, community service and scanning.

A manager is a manager is a manager? A number of corporate managers have justified support of totally equal treatment with this idea. They meant that the qualities and skills necessary for management were so generic that they were transportable from one situation to another, from one job to another or from any man or woman to another. A good manager could be anybody, male or female, and virtually all managerial situations presented the same basic issues (Fitzgerald & Shullman, 1984). This notion applied to women managers, however, only if women engaged in generic leadership behaviors and if they were perceived as similar to other leaders or managers when they did.

Did women lead differently? Did they exhibit managerial behaviors different from male managers? Fitzgerald and Betz's (1983) review of the literature on women's leadership styles yielded unclear results, as did that of Guido-DiBrito (1985). Women's management styles did not appear to differ significantly from those of men. Thus, the argument that management was a generic activity and that women and men should have identical managerial career development experiences seemed justified.

But were women viewed as leading differently? Did identical behaviors lead to similar evaluations of effectiveness? In 1977, Terborg wrote:

> Some evidence suggests that behavior that is consistent with accepted sex-role behavior is evaluated more positively than where it is out of role; that is, women leaders are perceived better than men if they are high on consideration behavior rather than initiating structure behaviors (p. 653).

Hagen and Kahn's (1975) study also showed just that. Competent women who behaved competitively were evaluated negatively. When women changed to cooperative behavior, they received no such negative evaluations. Wiley and Eskilson (1982) found in their study that adoption of similar power strategies by men and women did not assure equivalent evaluations of their performance. The power

strategy resulting in more positive evaluations for men resulted in less positive for women, and vice-versa. Because different evaluations were evoked by the same power use depending on the user's sex, sex and similar status characteristics appeared to be important specifiers of the relation between power use and evaluations of managerial behavior. One disturbing aspect of this interaction was that the power strategy which resulted in more positive evaluations for women was considered by power theorists to be unreliable. Reward power was seen as less reliable because it required surveillance for compliance; expert power did not. What did this mean for the female manager? Although she might be evaluated positively when using reward power, she was dependent on a less reliable power in business. Regardless of the power strategy used, a man was more likely to be assumed superordinate than a woman, particularly when the target of influence was male. In another study of different supervisory styles, male and female supervisors were asked to display directive, rational or friendly supervisory behaviors. Non-management personnel evaluated women who used the directive style much more negatively than men who displayed the same style (Haccoun, Haccoun & Sallay, 1978). Even though there was not clear-cut evidence that men and women managers approached management differently, superiors and

subordinates seemed to believe that there should be a difference. Therefore, while "a manager is a manager is a manager" was true behaviorally, women managers contended with different ideas about how they should behave. Women had to behave differently to be evaluated positively (Fitzgerald & Shullman, 1984).

What could trainers, managers and organizations do to support the career development of women seeking managerial positions? Fitzgerald and Shullman (1984) offered several ideas for action: (1) Conduct realistic recruitment efforts. Pressures to achieve affirmative action goals should not lead recruiters to hire women for positions for which they were not suited or predisposed and for which they were blamed for failing. (2) Begin career development efforts immediately. Waiting several years to confirm employee career needs and aspirations often results in turnover and poor use of human resources. (3) When possible, use assessment centers for selection, promotion and development. Many women were not aware that skills used in other contexts may be relevant to effective management. Evaluative data about managerial skills can assist women in making realistic career plans. (4) Use project teams and project management assignments to develop women's managerial skills. Women often become enmeshed in the internal operations of their work units; because of

their lack of contact with other departments or key organization executives, they may be overlooked for promotion. Women on project teams have greater exposure. (5) Monitor efforts to develop women managers. The likelihood of overlooking women with solid potential is greatly reduced when all women are reviewed regularly for possible involvement in management development. (6) Include women employees in organizational career planning efforts. (7) Provide special career development programs for women. (8) Make sure that women are an integral part of the organization's image. If women are represented as functioning in a variety of settings within the organization, people will begin to see such occurrences as acceptable and normal. (9) Make sure that organizational information is available to all employees. When informal networks are the major source of information, many people are left out; this may mean that women managers do not get essential information at the right time or at all. (10) Be sure that openings are publicized throughout the organization. (11) Create multiple job paths. Multiple career paths, based on sound job analyses, can open up options for women who initially were directed to limiting positions or areas within the organization. The idea that there is only one way to prepare for each managerial or executive job is shortsighted.

During the 1980s, women had moved rapidly into management--working with, competing against and supervising men in a traditionally male-oriented work world. How did the female manager react to the stresses, demands and pressures of the business world? Did she respond to situations in the same way as her male counterpart? Did she manifest Type A behavior characteristics in order to succeed? Or was there perhaps a new type of behavior pattern evolving among women managers in the work force? Until recently, studies of the Type A Behavior Pattern in organizations have focused on male managers. This pattern was characterized by extremes of competitiveness, aggressiveness, pressures for productivity, impatience and restlessness. The Type A Behavior Pattern coincided with the stereotypical behavior pattern of the male in American culture. Studies have shown that the Type A Behavior Pattern was harmful to the organization and to the individual. Managers with this behavior pattern created a stressful work climate for themselves and others (Suojanen & Bessinger, 1983).

Type A behavior seldom appeared, however, in women before they entered the professional and business world. One study proposed that the Type A pattern was inherent among women managers and that it was the work environment that stimulated or triggered its emergence (Suojanen,

Working, Goldner, Ort & Cribes, 1987). Given the changing attitudes toward women today and the frequency with which they were entering previously male-dominated arenas, it was not surprising to see Type A behaviors appearing in women. Evidence has supported the theory that women developed Type A behaviors as a survival mechanism in order to keep up with the demands imposed and created by Type A male bosses and co-workers. Motivation that caused Type A behavior was influenced internally by a combination of psychological and physiological factors and by role conditioning, and externally by such influences as chemicals, prejudice in the work force and the expectations of others. One study pointed out that, "It is possible that women who participate in the labor force may have a genetic or physiological predisposition to derive biological benefit from the employment experience" (Ort, 1986, p. 21).

The new women--the working woman--placed unrealistic demands on her time and performance. She perceived her role as that of being everything to everyone. She concentrated on her career as well as trying to fulfill the roles of wife and mother.

The stereotypical expectations of behavior versus actual behavior presented a problem in self-perception for these working women. Two psychologists who have studied women's attitudes about their behavior and whether their

attitudes toward women's roles were traditional or modern concluded that these perceptions influenced whether the women were Type A or Type B personalities (Morell & Sulloway, 1983). Type A women with a feminine orientation were more prone toward maladjustment. This syndrome explained why the rate of Type A behavior for women in the work force was higher than for women who did not work outside the home. Type A behavior emerges as a "response style that leads to more or chronic performance at near maximum capacity with a hyperaggressiveness to actual or perceived challenges" (Goldner, 1986, p. 17). Today's working woman did not always have a role model stereotype that fitted the present environment; therefore, the perception of self against real or imagined challenges caused a sense of loss of control.

Additional studies indicated that men and women having the same job and status appeared to react similarly in terms of Type A behavior. A study in 1982 determined that in the same environments, female professionals and students scored comparably to men. The higher a woman's job status, the more likely she was to express Type A behavior (Goldner, 1986). The kind of job, the behavior necessary to sustain it and job status emerged as important criteria in eliciting Type A behavior. Type A traits cut across sex lines and relied mainly on an individual's need for

achievement, the expectations that they placed on themselves and the "high" they experienced from facing and beating crises.

The changing perception of women in today's work force, their emergence as viable, integral components of the work world and their own demonstrated ability to combine the worlds of home and work have evolved a new type of woman--the Type E woman (Braiker, 1984). This woman, who must be everything to everyone, created in her own way just as harmful an environment as did the Type A man. Having been trained since childhood to function in the various roles of caregiver, nurturer and so forth, yet finding needs within herself beyond these areas, she became, in effect, a superwoman. This new woman has learned to assimilate the needs and demands of her various environments into a multidimensional set of factors: "The Type E woman is characterized by a marked sense of insecurity and desperate striving to convince herself that she is worthwhile, important, and competent" (Braiker, 1984, p. 81). She had to continually prove to everyone, to herself most of all, that she could meet the needs she allowed to be imposed on her, to the point of neglecting her own needs while doing so. She most likely placed far more unrealistic expectations on herself to achieve than

did those around her. She was constantly proving her value, her worth, but never quite succeeded in proving it to herself.

In a recent article in <u>Administrative Management</u> ("Women in Management," 1986), a section called "Executive Briefing" reiterated quite succinctly that women in management were still in an uphill battle. They cited a study conducted by the Administrative Management Society (AMS) of a sample of more than 200 managers across North America, more than two-thirds (69%) said there had been an increase in the number of female managers in their companies over the past five years. Even more (71%) expected to see an increase in female managers during the next five years. One-third of the responding companies reported programs to promote the advancement of women in management. Most of these involved internal training and seminars, as well as outside seminars.

Nevertheless, the survey noted that attitudes in the male-managed world still went against women moving into senior management. More than two-thirds (69%) of the female respondents said that it was harder for women than men to advance largely because of males stereo- typing females. A substantial number of male managers (40%) agreed.

What were the rules of the game for women wanting to climb the management ladder? First, said the survey results, a woman had to look, sound, walk and act like she was important enough for her company to move her up. Second, she had to develop credibility by getting results. Third, she needed to develop connections with people who had power and knew how to play the corporate game. Finally, a woman needed a strong ego, so she was not devastated when she got criticized or loses.

Survey respondents also offered suggestions on how women could enhance their chances of moving up. One male suggested, "Don't try to act like a man," while another said, "Be prepared to work harder than a man." Comments from the females included, "Start early, build trust, develop contacts and keep your skills updated," and "Nothing will be handed to you--be as good or even better than the man you're competing with."

Summary

A variety of sources were examined to provide a comprehensive survey of leadership theories. This survey dealt with the leadership styles approach with particular emphasis on the research done at Ohio State University by

Halpin, Fleishman and others--the conceptual bases for this study--and the subsequent research influenced by this seminal work.

This was followed by an investigation of the literature pertinent to women in higher education administration and women in corporate administration. Few comparisons of the leadership traits of managers in business and education, of either sex, have been made. Chapter 2 examined the traits and qualifications needed by women to obtain senior posts in education or business. The importance of mentors, networking, credentialing and attitude was stressed. An examination of the pressures put on women by their early socialization, lack of good daycare and spousal support and male stereotyping revealed that stress and related health problems were attendant difficulties as women moved up the management ladder.

Another thrust of this literature search dealt with the characteristics of women administrators as compared with those of their male counterparts and the differences and similarities of their leadership styles.

Chapter 2 concluded with causes given for the present situation of too few women in administrative positions. These causes dealt with the societal influences, myths and male stereotyping that were placed on women.

CHAPTER 3

The Design of the Study and Analysis of the Data

Introduction

It was the purpose of this study to discover and report similarities and differences in personal characteristics and leadership styles between women in educational administration and women in corporate administration. Chapter 3 includes: (1) A description of the population sample; (2) The research questions of the study; (3) The measurements used to gather data; (4) The procedures used; (5) The methods utilized to analyze the data; (6) Composition of the study; (7) Statistical procedures used; (8) Presentation of the biographical data; (9) Presentation of the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ) data; and (10) A summary.

The population for this study consisted of women in higher education administration and women in business administration on a nation-wide basis. In order to obtain a representative sample of this population, the current editions of Higher Education Directory 1988 and Standard and Poor's Register of Corporations, Directors and

Executive, 1988 were used. Women in education listed as presidents, vice-presidents, provosts, deans, directors and chancellors were selected from the Higher Education Directory 1988. Women in business listed as president, CEOs, vice-presidents, managers, directors and secretaries were selected from Standard and Poor's. It was considered that these titles would provide for relative similarity in administrative situations in both occupational groups. A sample group numbering 50 from each category, women in higher education and women in business, was within the research delimitations of this study.

The Measurements

The data for this study were collected through questionnaires mailed to selected administrators. Two questionnaires were sent to each woman selected. The information was obtained by a leadership style questionnaire, the LOQ and a Biographical/Career Path Questionnaire.

The mail questionnaire method was chosen for two reasons. First, the financial and time limitations of this study would not have allowed for the personal interview of each of the selected administrators because of the large number of women in the sample and the fact that it was a nationwide sample. Second, the use of a written questionnaire allowed the respondent to understand and give deliberate thought before selecting appropriate responses to each question. Several questions, such as numbers 22, 23, 24, 25 and 26 on the Biographical/Career Path Questionnaire, required adequate time for the respondent to reflect on her career and life roles.

Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ)

The LOQ was used in an attempt to discover the style of leadership utilized by each administrator. This instrument measured two important dimensions of supervisory leadership--Consideration (C) and Structure (S), originally identified in the Ohio State University Leadership Studies. "The instrument in its present form is the product of more than eighteen years of research and use in a variety of industrial and other organizational settings" (Fleishman, 1969, p. 1).

This instrument was chosen for several reasons: (1) It is self- administering; (2) Responses are made by the administrator selected for study rather than a subordinate of that person; and (3) It has been successfully administered to other groups and consequently, has an established norms table that may be utilized to establish comparative data. Several validity studies showed that there was good evidence that consideration scores, for example, correlated with successful rating of supervisory performance in a variety of different activities (Bass, 1958; Parker, 1963; Ayers, 1964; Gruenwald & Weissenberg, 1966; Korman, 1966; Greenwood & McNamara, 1969). It appeared, therefore, that the questionnaire had some validity in determining leadership style or supervisory behavior.

Fleishman (1969) made the point that it was important to note that these dimensions were independent. This meant that an administrator could be high on both dimensions, low on both, or high on one dimension and low on the other. The respondent answered 40 items with alternatives scored 0, 1, 2, 3 or 4, 20 of which were scored for Consideration and 20 for Structure. Consequently, the maximum possible score was 80 for each dimension. It was noted, however, that scores generally ranged from 30 to 70.

Fleishman (1969) designated that construct validity was maximized by each dimension, Consideration and Structure, being developed by factor-analysis procedures, and item-analysis procedures. He argued that empirical validity studies to be carried out when relating these dimensions to independent criteria of effectiveness. Many significant validities had been established, but the pattern was not universal. However, since no conclusions were to be drawn as to the effectiveness of the administrators in this study, this feature was not viewed as a negative factor. Since the LOQ had been utilized in a variety of organizational settings (see Fleishman, 1969) where the results had been consistent and had supported the importance of these two dimensions as identifying leadership style, it was deemed an appropriate instrument for use in this study.

The Biographical/Career Path Questionnaire

The biographical questionnaire was developed specifically to be used in this study. It was designed to elicit information in three areas: (1) Personal characteristics and background of each administrator; (2) Professional characteristics of these women; and (3)

Opinions pertinent to women as administrators.
The rationale for the questions included in this
questionnaire is given below:

Group I: Personal Characteristics. Questions 3, 4,
5, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17 and 18 were designed to
establish a response pattern indicative of each group of
administrators.

Group II: Professional Characteristics. The
professional characteristics of these women were assessed
by questions 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 20 and 21. These questions
were expected to contribute to the professional description
indicative of each group of women administrators.

Group III: Opinions. Questions 22, 23, 24, 25, 26
and 27 were intended to give the administrators an
opportunity to express their opinions about their roles as
women in administration. A copy of the questionnaire is
found in Appendix A.

Research Questions

The information gathered from the responses to the LOQ
and the Biographical/Career Path Questionnaire were
appropriately compared as they related to the following
questions:

1. How did the leadership styles of women in higher education administration compare with and differ from those of women in corporate administration?

2. How did the leadership styles of these two groups of women compare to and differ from the existing norms for what were still male occupational roles?

3. What similarities and differences in career paths did the biographical data gathered from these two groups demonstrate?

4. Why were there still too few women in top leadership positions in both higher education and the corporate world?

Procedures

Confidentiality

Respondents were assured in the initial letter that all responses would remain confidential. In order to accomplish this, names were deleted from the questionnaires after the responses were recorded. Names were used only for follow-up purposes in reply to those administrators who requested an abstract of the study.

Procedures Used to Achieve a High Response Rate

A frequent criticism of mail questionnaires was the low response rate they usually generate. In addition, the characteristics of the non-respondents might be significantly different from those of the respondents, making it difficult to generalize from the returned questionnaires to the rest of the population (Kerlinger, 1973).

Consequently, a great effort was made to achieve a high return rate of questionnaires. The following procedures were used for the mailing and follow-up of the questionnaires.

Questionnaires and Cover Letter. The cover letter was prepared on letterhead paper provided by the James R. Dickinson Library of the University of Nevada, Las Vegas (Appendix B). It was anticipated that this would establish credibility to the investigation. The letter explained the study and its purpose, emphasized confidentiality and urged cooperation. Stamped, self-addressed envelopes were also included in the mailing.

Follow-up. Three weeks after the mailing of the first letter and questionnaires, a post-card reminder was sent to those who had not yet responded.

Methods of Analyzing the Data

The methods of analyzing data were chosen according to the research question that was to be answered.

Analysis of the LOQ

As has been previously stated, the LOQ yielded two scores, one for <u>Consideration</u> (C) and one for <u>Structure</u> (S). Each scale was tabulated for a composite score, hence, each woman had 2 individual scores, with a possibility of 80 for each.

The scores for each group of women were then compiled to determine if a pattern emerged. These scores were analyzed according to a means and standard deviation and were reported in Chapter 3.

Analysis of the Biographical/Career Path Questionnaire

Descriptive statistics were used to illustrate the data gathered by the biographical questionnaire. The data were compiled for each group to determine if a pattern was present. Each variable was analyzed to determine if differences existed between the two Administrative groups.

All the questions were comparatively analyzed except for those questions that elicited opinions. Of these questions, 22, 23, 24, 25 and 26 were summarized and frequencies of response were described. These were presented in Chapter 3.

Composition of the Study

Participants in this study were 50 women holding positions in higher education leadership selected from the Higher Education Directory 1988 and 50 women holding leadership positions in the corporate world who were selected from the Standard and Poor's Register of Corporations, Directors and Executives, 1988. These 100 women were asked to respond, by mail, to two questionnaires, a Biographical/Career Path Questionnaire and the LOQ. These two instruments were used to gather data for this study. Table 1 summarizes the response to the mail questionnaires.

Table 1

Response to Mail Questionnaires

	Education				Business			
	Biographical		LOQ		Biographical		LOQ	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Complete	31	62	31	62	26	52	26	52
Not returned	19	38	19	38	24	48	24	48
	50	100	50	100	50	100	50	100

Statistical Procedures Used

The statistical procedures used were mean and standard deviation, these were used for each dimension, Consideration and Structure, from the LOQ.

Mean and standard deviation were also applied to question 20 which elicited information about the publishing record of each individual and question 21 which asked about the number of professional, feminist and civic/church organizations to which these women belonged. Mean was used in a profile of selected variables for women

administrators. Descriptive techniques were also used to determine answers for question 24 which dealt with the respondents' perception of role conflict, question 25 which queried the respondents as to the advantages of a female in an administrative position, and question 26 which asked about their perceptions of the barriers keeping women out of senior posts in addition and business.

Presentation of Biographical Data

Table 2 presents a brief statistical description of each group of women in this study. The number of respondents was denoted by N on Table 2.

Table 2

Profile of Selected Variables for Women Administrators

	Education		Business	
	N	$\bar{X}$	N	$\bar{X}$
Age	31	46	26	44
Years married	19	Over 10	17	8
No. of children	28	2	26	2.1
Size of organization	31	Between 2,500 and 4,900	26	Under 999
Salary	31	$50,000 and over	26	Between $50,000 and $100,000

Personal Data

There were some marked differences in the ages of these two groups of female managers, as shown in Table 3. Almost twice as many women in higher education were in the 45-54 age category; however, more women administrators in corporate life fell into the over-54 category--about one and one-half times as many as the educators.   But of the women who did attain upper-level management posts relatively early (under age 44)--more of them were in the business world than in the academic world.

Table 3

Ages of Women Administrators

	Education		Business	
Age	F	%	F	%
Under 30	0	0	1	3.9
30-44	10	32.25	9	34.61
45-54	14	45.16	7	26.92
Over 54	7	22.58	9	34.61
	31	100	26	100

About one-half the women in education administration
were married for the first time or remarried; a little more
than one-half were single, separated/divorced or widowed.
The corporate administrators showed a slightly different
pattern: Almost twice as many were single (perhaps because
they were a slightly younger group); they had remarried at
a rate of two and one-half times that of their education
counterparts and one-third more of them were widowed
(perhaps because overall, theirs was an older group).

Table 4

Marital Status of Women Administrators

Marital Status	Education		Business	
	F	%	F	%
Single	9	29.03	4	15.38
Married first time	12	38.7	9	34.61
Remarried	3	9.67	6	23.07
Separated/Divorced	4	12.90	3	11.53
Widowed	3	9.67	4	15.38
	31	100	26	100

The tabulations in Table 5 report the length of time the women in each group have been married. In both groups, marriages of over 10 years were the most common, with women in education reporting 95% and women in business, 64%. Corporate women had the marriages of shortest duration by a margin of 2 to 1; in the 5-10 category, there was a noticeable difference between the two groups of respondents: women in business had 23% more than those in education who registered none in this category.

Table 5

Length of Time Married for Women Administrators

Length of time married	Education		Business	
	F	%	F	%
Less than 4 years	1	5	2	11.52
5-10 years	0	0	4	23.05
More than 10 years	18	95	11	64.04
	19	100	17	100

Table 6 summarizes the data in regard to the number of children each group had had. It was apparent that in both groups of women, that a large percentage have 2 or fewer children--nearly 90% for women in education and 70% for women in business. Of the educators, 25% had no children and 34.6 of the corporate had none. Nearly three times as many educators had 1 child as compared with the business women. On the other hand, corporate women with 3 or 4 children outnumbered educators with that number by 3 to 1. Only about 8% of all the women had 5 or more children.

Table 6

Number of Children of Women Administrators

No. of children	Education F	Education %	Business F	Business %
None	7	25	9	34.61
1 child	6	21.42	2	7.69
2	12	42.85	7	26.9
3 or 4	2	7.14	7	26.9
5 or more	1	3.57	1	3.86
	28*	100	26	100

Tables 7 and 8 contain a description of siblings for each group. The overall numbers indicated nearly the same make-up for the number of brothers in each category for both groups of women. However, for the number of sisters each respondent reported, the percentages varied significantly between the two groups, with the exception of the category reporting no sisters which was 19% among educators and 15% among business women. Twice as many corporate women had just 1 sister in comparison to the educators. On the other hand, educators with 2 sisters outnumbered business women with 2 sisters by 2 to 1; educators with 3 sisters outnumbered corporate women with 3 sisters 4 to 1.

Table 9 displays the response to the question, which rank did you hold in the sibling order? There were some striking differences in backgrounds. As only children, 12.9 of the women in education responded affirmatively, while 15% of the women in business did so. In the oldest and youngest categories, the two groups showed significant differences. Only 12.9% of the educators were the youngest child, while more than three times that number, 42% of the corporate administrators were the youngest. However, more than one-half of the higher education administrators were the oldest sibling--nearly two and one-half times as

Table 7

Number of Brothers of Women Administrators

No. of brothers	Education		Business	
	F	%	F	%
None	6	19.35	4	15.38
1 brother	10	32.25	9	34.61
2	9	29.03	7	26.92
3	5	16.13	5	19.23
4 or more	1	3.22	1	3.84
	31	100	26	100

Table 8

Number of Sisters of Women Administrators

No. of sisters	Education		Business	
	F	%	F	%
None	6	19.35	4	15.38
1 sister	8	25.8	15	57.69
2	9	29.03	4	15.38
3	4	12.90	1	3.84
4 or more	4	12.90	2	7.69
	31	100	26	100

frequently as corporate administrators were the oldest
child. Reported as middle children were 19% of the
educators and 19% of the business women.

Table 9

Sibling Order of Women Administrators

	Education		Business	
Sibling order	F	%	F	%
Only child	4	12.90	4	15.38
Youngest	4	12.90	11	42.30
Oldest	17	54.83	6	23.07
Middle	6	19.35	5	19.23
	31	100	26	100

Table 10 reports the level of education reached by the
mothers of each group of women. Very few mothers earned a
graduate or professional degree, about 6% for educators and
7% for business women. Those whose mothers had a college
degree was about the same in each category: 15% for
education and 16% for corporate women. Some college or
other postsecondary schooling was reported for nearly the

Table 10

Parents' Level of Education

Levels of education	Education: Mothers		Education: Fathers		Business: Mothers		Business: Fathers	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Grammar school	3	9.67	4	12.90	2	7.69	6	23.07
Some high school	5	16.13	3	9.67	2	7.69	4	15.38
High school grad	10	32.25	13	41.93	11	42.3	5	19.23
Some college/ other	6	19.35	3	9.67	5	19.23	1	3.84
College grad	5	16.13	4	12.90	4	15.38	3	11.53
Grad or pro- fessional degree	2	6.45	4	12.90	2	7.69	7	26.92
	31	199	31	100	26	100	26	100

same percentages, also. There was a difference in the number reported as high school graduates, 42% for business women and 32% for educators. Having some high school was reported as 16% for educators' mothers and nearly 8% for business administrators' mothers. A grammar-school level was reached by over 9% of the educators' mothers and over 7% of the business mothers.

The fathers' level of education is also displayed in Table 10. A large number of fathers had graduate or professional degrees in both groups, although the business fathers outnumbered the education fathers 2 to 1. The college graduates showed almost 13% for educators and 11% for the business group. Three times as many of the educators' fathers had some college or post-secondary educations as the business women's fathers. Of the educators, 41% reported that their fathers graduated from high school and about 20% of the business women reported that their fathers graduated from high school. A grammar-school level was reached by 12% of the educators' fathers and 23% of business fathers.

Moving to data on parental employment, Table 11 shows the number of mothers who were employed while these women were children. Over one-half of the educators' mothers did not work at all when their children were growing up; one-third of the corporate mothers stayed at home. Mothers working full-time accounted for 12.9% of the women in education and 26.9% for those in business. Mothers who worked part-time on and off were recorded at 12.9% for women in business. Those who did not work while their children were young, but then worked full-time later recorded 6.4% for education and 19.2 % for women in business. Those who did not work while their children were young but then worked part-time was 9.6% for education and 19.2% for business.

The level of employment of mothers of the respondents is displayed in Table 12. The majority of educators' mothers were homemakers; over 40% of the corporate managers' mothers were homemakers. Of these who had mothers working, the largest number were professional and business/managerial areas. Women in education had 12.19% in professional and 16% in business/managerial, while women in business had 15% in professional and over 19% in

Table 11

Women Administrators/Mothers' Employment

Mother' employment	Education		Business	
	F	%	F	%
Worked full-time	4	12.90	7	26.92
Worked part-time on & off	4	12.90	3	11.53
Did not work when child was young/later full-time	2	6.45	2	7.69
Did not work when child was young/later part-time	3	9.67	5	19.23
Did not work at all	18	58.06	9	34.61
Mother not in the home	0	0	0	0
	31	100	26	100

Table 12

Mothers' Level of Employment

Level of employment	Education		Business	
	F	%	F	%
Unskilled	1	3.22	3	11.53
Semi-skilled	1	3.22	2	7.69
Skilled	0	0	2	7.69
Professional	4	12.9	4	15.38
Business/managerial	5	16.13	5	19.23
Homemaker	21	67.74	11	42.30
	31	100	26	100

business/managerial. Skilled workers were reported for 7.6% of the mothers of women in business and zero for women in education. Unskilled and semi-skilled had small percentages with 3% unskilled and 3% semi-skilled for women in education and 7.6% for semi-skilled and 11.5% for unskilled women in business.

Table 13

Fathers' Level of Employment

Level of employment	Education		Business	
	F	%	F	%
Unskilled	0	0	2	8
Semi-skilled	5	17.85	1	4
Skilled	5	17.85	9	36
Farmer	1	3.85	3	12
Professional/ Service	4	14.28	2	8
Business/ Managerial	13	46.42	8	32
	28*	100	25**	100

The statistics for the employment level of the fathers of each group are presented in Table 13. Over 46% of the fathers of educators worked at the business/managerial level; only 32% of the fathers of the business women worked at this level. Professional/service jobs were held by 14.2% of the fathers of the women in education and 8% of the fathers of women in business. At the unskilled, semi-skilled or skilled levels were about 36% of those/fathers of women in education and 48% of those fathers of women in business. Of the business fathers, 12% were farmers and nearly 4% of the educators' fathers were farmers. Over 60% of the educators' fathers were in professional/managerial positions as compared to only 40% of the business fathers, a significant difference.

Table 14 reports the responses of each group of women as to which parent had the greater influence on the career aspirations of the respondents. Influences from neither parent were reported by 12.9% of the women in education and 11.5% of those in business. Mothers influenced 25.8% of the women in education and 19.2% of the women in business. Fathers influenced 22.5% of the women in education and 42.3% of the women in business. Over one-third of the women

in education were influenced equally by both parents, but only 26.9% of the women in business were influenced by both parents equally.

Table 14

Parental Influence on Women Administrators

	Education		Business	
Parental influence	F	%	F	%
Neither	4	12.9	3	11.53
Mother	8	25.8	5	19.23
Father	7	22.58	11	42.30
Both equally	12	38.70	7	26.92
	31	100	26	100

Question 21 from the survey which asked the respondents to indicate the number of organizations to which they belonged was used to gather the data in Table 15. It reports the mean number of feminist organizations to which women in

Table 15

Number of Feminist Organizations Belonged to by Women Administrators

	N	$\bar{X}$
Education	31	1.5
Business	26	2

Table 16

Size of Institutions and Organizations

Size of organization/ institution	Education		Business	
	F	%	F	%
Under 250	1	3.22	11	42.30
250-999	11	35.48	8	30.76
1,000-2,499	3	9.67	0	0
2,500-4,999	3	9.67	2	7.69
5,000 and over	13	41.93	5	19.23
	31	100	26	100

each group belonged. Women in education held an average

1.5 memberships in such organizations an women in business

an average of 2.

Three-quarters of the women in business worked in

organizations employing under 999 people, while about 38%

in education were employed institutions employing 999

people or under. Women in education who worked in

institutions employing 1,000 to 5,000 represented about 20%

of this sample, while women in business at the same size

accounted for nearly 8%. The large organizations of 5,000

and over employed nearly 42% of the women in education and

only 19% of those in business.

The salary distribution for each group of women is

displayed in Table 17. The majority of women in education

earned over $50,000, with 19.3% in the category of

$40,000-$49,000 and 6.45% in the over $100,000 category.

Nearly one-half of the women in business earned over

$100,000, while 32% earned between $50,000 and $100,000.

In this sample, 16% earned between $30,000 and $39,999 and

4% between $40,000 and $49,999. One women in business

chose not to answer this question.

Table 17

Salary Distribution of Women Administrators

	Education		Business	
Salary range	F	%	F	%
$25,000-$29,999	0	0	0	0
$30,000-$39,999	1	3.22	4	16
$40,000-$49,999	6	19.35	1	4
$50,000 and over	22	70.96	8	32
Over $50,00	2	6.45	12	48
	31	100	25	100*

Note: One respondent chose not to answer.

Table 18

Highest Level of Education of Women Administrators

	Education		Business	
Level of education	F	%	F	%
No college	0	0	6	23.07
Some college	0	0	1	3.84
Baccalaureate	0	0	3	11.53
Master's	7	22.58	16	61.53
Doctorate	24	77.41	0	0
	31	100	26	100

The highest levels of education reached by members of both groups is shown in Table 18. It was apparent that women in education held a higher level of education with over 77% having the doctoral degree, and the remaining respondents having at least a master's degree. The largest group of women in business reported holding a master's degree--61.53%, while 11.53% held a bachelor's degree, 3.84% had some college and a significant percentage, 23.07%, had no college training at all.

Table 19 depicts the number of women in both groups pursuing an advance degree. The no response was reported by 100% of those in education which might be expected from a group which held such a large percentage (77%) of doctoral degrees. Only 7.69% of those in business were pursing advance degrees.

Table 20, 21, 22 and 23 present the responses for the number of women who have had leadership training. In response to this question, respondents could check more than one choice. It was apparent very few women in education had had a formal degree program of leadership, with only 9.67% reported. Women in business reported that over 30% had received leadership training by formal degree.

Of the women in education, nearly 42% indicated they had had leadership training on the job; 50% in business also had had on-the-job training. The majority in both had had leadership training in seminars and workshops; 51.6% in education and 76.9% in business. Over 70% of the educators have received some leadership training, and 89% of the business women had received similar training.

Table 19

Number of Women Administrators Pursuing Advanced Degrees

Pursuing degrees	Education		Business	
	F	%	F	%
Yes	0	0	2	7.69
No	31	100	24	92.31
	31	100	26	100

Table 20

Leadership Training on the Job

Leadership on the job	Education		Business	
	F	%	F	%.
Yes	13	41.93	13	50
No	18	58.07	13	50
	31	100	26	100

Table 21

Leadership Training in Seminars and Workshops

Leadership in seminars/workshops	Education		Business	
	F	%	F	%
Yes	16	51.61	20	76.92
No	15	48.39	6	23.08
	31	100	26	100

Table 22

Leadership Training by Formal Degree

Leadership by degree	Education		Business	
	F	%	F	%
Yes	3	9.67	8	30.76
No	28	90.33	18	69.24
	31	100	26	100

Table 23

Women Administrators with No Leadership Training

	Education		Business	
	F	%	F	%
No training	9	29.03	3	11.53

The publishing records of the women administrators were determined by comparing the average number of publications for each group. This information is presented in Table 24.

Women in education had published an average of 15 articles within their field, while women in business had published an average of 11. On the average, women in education had presented 17 papers at professional meetings and the women in business an average of 11.3. Neither group had published many books, educators reporting and average 1.1 and women in business, 1. Women in education claimed an average of 2.2 publications not in their field, while women in business claimed an average of 5.7 publications outside their field.

Tables 25 and 26 display the average number of organizations to which the respondents belonged.

The average number of memberships in professional organizations held by women in education was 3.9; the average was 1.9 for women in the business world, only about one-half the number claimed by the educators. The average number of civic organizations was the same for both groups, 1.6.

Table 24

Publications

Number of articles published in respective fields

	N	X̄
Education	31	15
Business	26	11

Number of papers presented at professional meetings

	N	X̄
Education	31	17
Business	26	11.2

Number of books published

	N	X̄
Education	31	1.1
Business	2	1

Number of publications not related to the profession

	N	X̄
Education	31	2.2
Business	26	5.7

Table 25

Number of Professional Organizational Memberships

Number of organizations	N	$\bar{X}$
Education	31	3.9
Business	26	1.9

Table 26

Number of Civic Organizational Memberships

Number of organizations	N	$\bar{X}$
Education	31	1.6
Business	26	1.6

Job Opinions

Question 22 of the Biographical/Career Path
Questionnaire asked respondents to check what they
perceived as their top four problems experienced as a
female manager. Tables 27 and 28 present the results of
this question. The highest ranked item for women in
education was the problem of being the only women at their
level; for business women, equal pay for equal work was the
item ranked number-one. Maintaining a private life was the
second most difficult task for educators, while being the
only women at their level was second for women in business.
Both groups agreed on the third problem--having sufficient
energy for family and job. Being accepted as an equal by
male co-workers was listed as the fourth most significant
problem for educators. Women in education ranked equal pay
for equal work fifth, while women in business ranked
maintaining a private life as the fifth most important
concern. Women in education ranked advancement
opportunities sixth, but business women ranked it only
eighth. Being perceived as a women first and an
administrator second was ranked number seven by corporate

Table 27

Most Significant Problems of Women in Education

Rank		Item number	F
1.	Being the only woman at this level	7	17
2.	Maintaining a private life	3	13
3.	Sufficient energy for family and job	8	12
4.	Accepted as an equal by male co-workers	4	8
5.	Equal pay for equal work	6	8
6.	Advancement opportunities	2	7
7.	Acceptance into informal groups	11	7
8.	Perceived as a woman first/administrator second	12	5
9.	Tasks assigned have restricted scope of responsibility	5	4
10.	Your sex	1	4
11.	Lacked essential strengths/experiences	9	4
12.	Setting priorities as mother/wife	10	3

Table 28

Most Significant Problems of Women in Business

Rank		Item number	F
1.	Equal pay for equal work .	6	11
2.	Being the only woman at their level	7	10
3.	Sufficient energy for family and job	8	9
4.	Accepted as an equal by male co-workers	4	9
5.	Maintaining a private life	3	9
6.	Acceptance into informal groups	11	8
7.	Perceived as a woman first/administrator second	12	8
8.	Advancement opportunities	2	6
9.	Your sex	1	5
10.	Tasks assigned have limited scope of responsibility	5	4
11.	Lacked essential strengths/experience	9	2
12.	Setting priorities as a mother/wife	10	0

women, and eighth by women in education. Tasks assigned
that had limited scope of responsibility was ranked ninth
by educators and tenth by business women. Both groups
agreed on those problems ranked eleventh and twelfth,
respectively, lack of essential strengths and experience
for the job and setting priorities as a wife and mother.

Tables 29 and 30 ranked the most influential factors
that caused the respondents to be in their current
positions of leadership.

There was more agreement between the two groups of
women about the factors that influenced the occupation of
their current positions of leadership. The three top
factors were the same for each group. Although women in
education gave a little heavier emphasis to demonstrated
leadership ability over the professional expertise, the
women in business rated them equally, both ranked
experience an important third after leadership and
professional expertise. The rest of the factors were
closely ranked by both groups; being in the right place at
the right time was fifth for educators and fourth for
business women. Having the appropriate degree was fourth
for educators for whom a doctorate was almost always
necessary; this factor was ranked fifth by the women in

Table 29

Influential Factors for Placement in Current Position of Leadership--
Women in Education

Rank		Item number	F
1.	Demonstrated leadership ability	6	26
2.	Demonstrated professional expertise	5	21
3.	Experience	2	13
4.	Degree	1	11
5.	Being in the right place at the right time	7	11
6.	Worked way up through the organization	4	8
7.	Knowing someone of influence in the organization	8	3
8.	Being a woman	3	2
9.	Other	9	2

Table 30

Influential Factors for Placement in Current Position of Leadership--
Women in Business

Rank	Item number	F
1. Demonstrated leadership ability	6	17
2. Demonstrated professional expertise	5	17
3. Experience	2	14
4. Being in the right place at the right time	7	14
5. Degree	1	9
6. Worked way up through the organization	4	2
7. Knowing someone of influence in the organization	8	2
8. Being a woman	9	2
9. Other	3	0

corporate life. The MBA has become increasingly important

for advancement in the business world. Both groups ranked

working your way up in the organization sixth and knowing

someone of importance in the organization seventh. Being a

women (your sex) was ranked number eight by the educators

and last by women in business. The "other" responses

included the importance of dedication and loyalty to the

institution for educators; for business women, the "other"

included "creating" her own position and inheriting an

executive position in a family-owned business for another.

Respondents were also asked their opinions about their

perception of role conflicts they had experienced. Over

one-half of both groups indicated no role conflict. Those

who elaborated gave responses around three general trends:

one, not now that my children are grown; those with small

children had problems with babysitters and guilt; two,

conflict with time demands (never enough of it and setting

priorities); three, energy and motivation to fulfill the

demands of being a superwoman.

In response to question 25 on what they believed to be

the greatest advantage of being woman in a management

position, a few women answered that there were none, but

those who elaborated, made remarks around several themes. Several of these themes are reported here: empathy and understanding; more sensitivity for people's concerns than men have; being role models for other women who aspire to management positions; getting the job done with less need for credit—less ego involvement than men possess. Some women felt the advantage was not being female, but in being an administrator expressed in such views as: a feeling of satisfaction; being efficient; helping people; and changing the climate of the university or company.

In response to question 26 about the barriers keeping women out of senior management positions, responses evolved around several trends: males; male egos; male chauvinism; and the attendant old boys' networks were the most prevalent answers, followed by male stereotyping of women, sexism, male-centered views of leadership. In third place was a lack of mentors, sponsorship and the failure of women themselves to make a serious commitment to the demands of management. Because of this perceived lack of commitment, these women were not taken seriously by male managers and supervisors. A few cited a lack of training and positive role models of both sexes.

Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ) Data

The results of responses to the LOQ are presented in
Table 31. The women in business scored higher in both
Consideration and Structure than the women in education.
This result was partially inconsistent with earlier
research (Fleishman, 1969; Willis, 1983) which reported
that people in education, both male and female, have
significantly more low task/high consideration relationship
behaviors than comparable individuals in industry.
However, the same research (Willis, 1983) reported more
high task/high relationship behavior in industry than in
higher education--a finding that supports the results of
this study. Fleishman's (1969) work indicated that
educational supervisors of both sexes scored higher on both
dimensions than supervisors in the corporate world.

Table 31

Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ) Results

Dimension	Education			Business		
	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	N	$\bar{X}$	SD
Consideration	31	56.76	5.28	26	60.65	9.15
Structure	26	43.19	5.77	26	46.76	7.81

Summary

Data were gathered for this study using a standardized instrument, the <u>Leadership Opinion Questionnaire</u> (LOQ) and a Biographical/Career Path Questionnaire designed by the investigator. The following summarizations were made from the data produced by these two questionnaires:

1. Women in business scored slightly higher than educators on the LOQ in both the Structure and Consideration categories. Statistically the standard deviation was not significant.

2. Women in business had more leadership training--on the job, through inservices and by formal training.

3. Corporate women were more influenced in their career aspirations by their fathers (42%).

4. A higher percentage of corporate mothers worked full-time when their children were young.

5. Women in education gave more papers at professional meetings than their corporate counterparts and belonged to twice as many professional organizations.

6. Twice as many educators were single, but those educators who were married had marriages of longer duration with fewer children than corporate women who had marriages of shorter duration and more children on the average.

7. Corporate managers received higher average salaries than the educators.

8. More women in education had fathers employed at the professional/managerial level (over 60%).

9. Sibling order of the two groups showed some interesting differences. Over 42% of the corporate executives were the youngest child, while over 54% of the educators were the oldest children--the traditional group from which leaders are assumed to come.

10. The corporate women in this study were employed by smaller organizations than those of the educators.

11. Both groups of women agreed for the most part on the significant problems faced by female managers: oftentimes being the only woman at that level, maintaining a private life and having sufficient energy for both family and job.

12. Both groups agreed on the influential factors that contributed to tenure in their current managerial positions: demonstrated leadership ability, demonstrated professional expertise and solid experience.

13. In response to question 26 about the barriers keeping women out of senior management posts, most of the respondents agreed that male chauvinism, male ego, male stereotyping of women and their early socialization often prevented male managers from accepting females in comparable positions.

14. The lack of female role models, training, mentors and a serious commitment to their careers also kept women out of these positions, the respondents agreed.

15. The women in this study felt they brought some important attributes to management: intuition, understanding, the ability to listen, less ego that, in turn, promoted more efficiency and a willingness to work harder and longer than their male counterparts.

CHAPTER 4

Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations

for Further Study

It is the purpose of Chapter 4 to summarize the study, draw conclusions and make recommendations for further study.

Summary

It was the purpose of this study to discover and report similarities and differences in personal characteristics and leadership styles of women in higher education administration and women in corporate administration. Four steps were taken to accomplish this task. First, a sample of 50 women in higher education administration were selected from the <u>Higher Education Directory 1988</u> and a sample of 50 women in corporate management were selected from the <u>Standard and Poor's Register of Corporations, Directors and Executives, 1988</u>. Second, pertinent biographical/career path data and leadership style data were gathered from this sample through mail questionnaires. Thirty-one educators (62%)

and twenty-six business women (52%) returned the two questionnaires. Third, a literature search was made in the areas of leadership behaviors, problems faced by women in higher education and business and the major trends in these areas. Fourth, the data gathered were analyzed to determine if there were similarities and what the differences were between these two groups of women.

Many sources were examined to produce a comprehensive summary of leadership behavior studies. These sources indicated that leadership theories had evolved from simple explanations of observable behaviors to complicated, detailed analyses of complex relationships. The so-called great man theory of leadership or the traits approach dominated the study of leadership until the 1950s. When the effectiveness of leaders was not consistent and research could not adequately support the traits theory, sociologists introduced the situational approach. They sought to identify distinctive characteristics of the setting to which the leaders' success could be attributed. This phase of leadership study was short-lived because actual empirical activity was sparse.

Today, most models guiding leadership research involved the contingency approach. According to this theory, it was necessary to ask what traits, under which

situations, were important to leader effectiveness. Yet,
the question of what kind of leaders, for what kind of
situations, remained largely unanswered. Leadership
research has been filled with various frameworks for
examining the significant aspects of leadership behavior.
Most conceptualizations were multi-dimensional, supporting
at least two types. Diverse as the literature was, it
generally supported the ideal that there were two distinct
categories of leader behavior--one concerned with people
and interpersonal relations and the other with production
and task achievement. The conceptual bases for this study
were the research projects, particularly those done at Ohio
State University and subsequent studies which recognized
the two leadership styles, one emphasizing tasks
(Structure) and the other stressing relationships
(Consideration).

The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ) developed
by Fleishman (1969) grew out of the Ohio State University
leadership studies. This instrument in its present form
(used by participants in this study) was a product of more
than 18 years of research; it provided a brief measure of
leadership attitudes regarding the basic dimensions,
Consideration and Structure.

In general, the pattern that emerged as most undesirable for many situations was the one in which supervisors were low in both Consideration and Structure. The High Structure/Low Consideration supervisor was likely to show more turnover, grievances and stress among employees. For many situations and criteria, the above-average Structure and Consideration pattern seemed most likely to optimize a variety of different effectiveness criteria. One important factor was that those dimensions were two separate and distinct dimensions. The behavior of a leader could be described as any mix of both dimensions. Leaders were those who could organize the experiences of the group and thus, get the full power of the group--the ability to organize all the forces there were in an enterprise and make them serve a common purpose.

Statement of the Problem

The main problem of this study was to determine what similarities and differences existed in the leadership styles and career paths of selected women in higher education and in the leadership styles and career paths of women in corporate administration. The study investigated

four aspects of the problem: How did the leadership styles of women in higher education administration compare with and differ from those of women in corporate administration? How did the leadership styles of these two groups of women compare to and differ from the existing norms for what are still male occupational roles? What similarities and differences in career paths did the biographical data gathered from these two groups demonstrate? Why were there still too few women in top leadership positions in both higher education and the corporate world?

Purpose

The major purpose of this study was to determine if female corporate managers and female managers in academe utilized different leadership styles; if different personal, educational and professional factors have influenced the career histories of women in higher education and women in the business world; if there were still significant barriers that prevent women, both in higher education and the business world, from obtaining senior managerial posts; and if the leadership styles of women differed from those of men in similar positions in education and business.

Findings

Data were gathered for this study using a standardized instrument, the LOQ, developed by Fleishman (1969) in conjunction with the Ohio State Leadership studies, and a Biographical/Career Path Questionnaire designed by the investigator. These two instruments were used to gather data to answer the four research questions. Discussion of the comparative findings has been organized around these four questions. These questions were only answered in terms of the women who participated in this study. The results, however, provided information about leadership styles and personal characteristics of women in the general population of those two areas.

1. How did the leadership styles of women in higher education administration compare with and differ from those of women in corporate administration?

   a. In tabulating the LOQ, how did each group score on the dimension of Structure?

   b. In tabulating the LOQ, how did each group score on the dimension of Consideration?

The LOQ data indicated there were some small differences in leadership styles. On the dimension of Consideration which emphasized the human relations aspect, women in education scored lower than women in business. The mean scores of 56.67 for women in education and 60.65 for women in business indicated that women in corporate life placed a little more emphasis on the human relations aspect of their jobs than did women in education--an unexpected result because earlier research (Fleishman, 1969; Willis, 1983) showed that educators scored higher in the human relations (Consideration) aspect of their jobs than in the task aspect (Structure).

Again, on the dimension of Structure, corporate women outscored women in education. The mean scores of 46.76 for women in business and 43.19 for women in education indicated that women in business were not only slightly more human relations-oriented, but were also slightly more task-oriented.

Schlack (1974), in a study comparing upper-management and middle-management student personnel administrators, reported the LOQ mean scores of 54.70 and 59.93, respectively, on the dimension of Consideration. The women educators in this study scored slightly lower, 56.67. On the dimension of Structure, Schlack (1974) found scores of 43.17 for upper-management and 44.50 for middle-management

personnel directors. The women in this study scored about the same, 43.19, as both groups in the student personnel study.

Hennig (1967) found in her study that executive women reported a change in their leadership styles at about age 40. They reported a change from a closed, task-oriented style to one that was more open, friendly and human resources-oriented. The corporate women in this study appeared to have made this transition. This was not conclusive, however, since there were no data to indicate what their styles were at an earlier stage of career development.

2. How did the leadership styles of these two groups of women compare to and differ from the existing norms for what were still male occupational roles?

Fleishman (1969, p. 13) presented a category of Educational Supervisors in the Norms Table. A score of 60.13 for Consideration is in a low-average range, while a score of 42.85 is a middle-average range (Structure). From these data, it can be concluded that women in educational administration were consistent with similar groups of males.

With regard to corporate women, Fleishman (1969) presented scores, as well as norms, for executives. The mean of 55.3 for Consideration indicated that business

women in this study scored higher with a mean of 60.65.
For the dimension of Structure, the business women in this
study scored 46.76, while the mean given by Fleishman was
50.6, indicating that women scored lower than the males on
Structure. In reference to the Norms Table, the women in
business for this study fell in the range of high for
Consideration and low-average for Structure. It can be
concluded that the corporate women in this study were
consistently higher than similar groups of males on the
dimension of Consideration.

Chapman (1975) distributed leadership and biographical
questionnaires to a randomly selected sample of practicing
male and female leaders (managers) in one military and one
civilian organization. Leadership styles were determined
from the respondent's score on Fiedler's (1967) Least
Preferred Co-worker (LPC) Questionnaire. A high LPC leader
denoted a relationship-oriented leadership style; the low
LPC leader denoted a task-oriented leadership style.
Chapman (1975) noted that there was no significant
difference between male and female leadership styles, as
measured by the LPC instrument. A noteworthy finding of
this study indicated that as the number of males supervised
by female leaders increased, the LPC score decreased. In

other words, as females managed an increasing number of males, their leadership style tended toward the task-oriented dimension.

Since women and men have been conditioned by societal expectations, certain sex-role stereotypes emerged which influenced personality development and behavioral patterns for both sexes. Consequently, women, when placed in leadership positions, exhibited leadership behaviors which were significantly more relationship-oriented (Consideration) than were those of their male counterparts, behaviors, therefore, which were more congruent with society's expectations. Although there might be a difference, Chapman (1975) concluded, in leadership behaviors between male and female leaders, there were no differences in terms of style. Practicing female managers did not have a significantly higher need for fostering good interpersonal relationships than did their male colleagues. Also, the females studied were not significantly more task-oriented than the males, even though females might be expected to be task-oriented if they were to succeed in a traditional male environment.

A manager is a manager is a manager? Fitzgerald and Shullman (1984) found that some corporate managers felt that the qualities and skills necessary for management were so generic that they were transportable from one situation

to another. A good manager could be anybody, male or female, and virtually all managerial situations presented the same basic issues. This notion could be applied to women, however, only if they engaged in generic leadership behaviors and if they were perceived as similar to other leaders or managers when they did.

Did women lead differently? Did they exhibit managerial behaviors different from male managers? Fitzgerald and Betz's (1983) review of literature on women's leadership styles yielded unclear results, as did that of Guido-DiBrito et al. (1985). Thus, the argument that management was a generic activity and that women and men should have identical managerial career development experiences seemed justified.

Terborg (1977) pointed out that women leaders were perceived better than men if they were high on consideration behavior rather than initiating structure behavior; Hagen and Kahn (1975) also showed just that. Competent women who behaved competitively were evaluated negatively. When women changed to cooperative behavior, they received no such negative evaluations. Even though there was no clear-cut evidence that male and female managers approached management differently, supervisors and subordinates seemed to believe that there should be a difference. Therefore, while a manager is a manager is a

manager might be true behaviorally, women managers have contended with different ideas about how they should behave. Women have behaved differently to be evaluated positively (Fitzgerald & Shullman, 1984).

Recently, there has been some research which concluded that effective leadership was androgynous. The androgynous individual was less attuned to those culturally established definitions and tended not to regulate his or her behavior in accordance with them. The androgynous person selected behaviors without regard to categories and thus, might be both assertive and compassionate, masculine and feminine, instrumental and expressive, depending upon the circumstances and situation (Uhlir, 1989; Garen, 1982; Blanchard & Sargent, 1984).

Reddin's (1970) 3-D theory of leadership and management effectiveness provided some assumptions that served as the basis for adding a third pair of variables to the model. Reddin's (1970) theory assumed the three dimensions of management behavior to be: (1) Concern for completion of tasks--Structure; (2) concern for the establishment of satisfactory human relationships--Consideration; and (3) concern for the establishment of managerial effectiveness. Returning to the grid concept, there was a neat fit between self and task on the vertical axis and other and relationships on the horizontal axis.

Managers with a high degree of concern for self and achievement were expected to focus on the task, while managers with a high degree of caring for others and belonging were presumed to be concerned with relationships (Uhlir, 1989).

Masculinity and femininity represented the summation of clusters of mutually exclusive attitudes which became the basis for the formation of clearly differentiated sex roles. An interesting hypothesis was that these clusters of masculinity and femininity matched the self and other positions on the grid. Plotting masculinity on the vertical axis and femininity on the horizontal, masculinity aligned with self, achievement and task, while femininity aligned with other, belonging and relationships.

The androgynous person was not sex-typed and might possess varying combinations of attributes. Androgny, then, appeared in the upper-right corner of the grid. The lower-left position with low self and low other was classified as undifferentiated; from this, we concluded that leadership was androgynous (Blanchard & Sargent, 1984; Uhlir, 1989).

3. What similarities and differences in career paths and backgrounds did the biographical data gathered from these two groups demonstrate?

The data indicated a significant difference in the level of education between the two groups of women. Of the women in education, 77.41% held the doctorate, with none of the corporate women holding it. The largest number, 61.53%, of women in business held a master's degree, while 11.53% held a baccalaureate degree and 3.84% had some college training. A significant 23.07% had no college training at all. None of the women in education were pursuing an advanced degree; and only 7.69% of the corporate women were pursuing an advanced degree.

There were some differences shown by the data with regard to leadership training. In response to whether or not they had leadership training on the job, 41.93% of the educators and 50% of the business women responded affirmatively. Of the corporate executives, 25% more had had leadership training in seminars and workshops than those executives in academe. Only 9.67 of the women in education had formal degree training in leadership--degrees in educational administration, while 30.76 of the corporate women had similar training. While several women indicated more than one type of training, almost 90% of the corporate women had some kind of leadership training, while only about 70% of the women in education has had similar

training. Such training, or the lack of it, explained in part why the corporate respondents scored higher on both Consideration and Structure.

Responses from both groups showed a varying pattern on the number of mothers who did not work at all, while these future managers were children--60% for women in education in contrast to 34.61% for corporate women. About the same number of mothers--6.45% for educators and 7.6% for business women--did not work when the children were young, but worked full-time later. Twice as many corporate mothers, 26.92%, as education mothers, 12.90%, worked full-time when the children were young--a significant difference. The corporate women possibly were exposed earlier and more consistently to the difficulties and dilemmas of working women.

The levels at which the mothers worked did not show many significant differences. The largest percentage in either group were the mothers of the business women who indicated that 19.23% of them worked at the business/managerial level; 16.13% of the educators' mothers worked at this level. Women in business had a slightly higher number of mothers, 15.38%, at the professional level than educators, who reported 12.9%. At the skilled level, 0% was reported by women in education and 7.69% by women in business. Three times as many mothers of corporate

executives worked in semi-skilled or unskilled jobs as mothers of educators. About 25% more of the mothers of business executives were employed at all levels than those of women in education.

The data for fathers' levels of employment indicated there were some differences between the two groups. Over 60% of the educators' fathers worked in business/managerial or service/professional jobs; 40% of the business women's fathers worked in these two fields. Twice as many corporate fathers, 36%, worked in skilled jobs as the education fathers, 17.85%, while more education fathers, 17.85%, as opposed to 4% of the business fathers, worked in semi-skilled jobs. It may be assumed that the educators were influenced by fathers who held professional and managerial positions--jobs that traditionally require more education and training than skilled jobs--to value education and in turn, to obtain higher degrees in education. Schlack (1974) also found that most of the fathers of the student personnel women were employed at the professional or business/managerial levels.

The data for the mothers' levels of education demonstrated no significant differences between the two groups of women. Both groups indicated a small number of their mothers had graduate or professional degrees, 6.45% of the mothers of educators and 7.69% of those in business.

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As college graduates, women in education reported 16.13% and women in business, 15.38%. Some college or other school was reported by 19.35% of those in education and 19.23% of those in business. As high school graduates, women in education reported 32.25% for their mothers, while 42.3% of those in business were high school graduates. A grammar school education was reported by about 15% of the women in business and about 27% of the women in education. On the whole, the mothers of the corporate women attained slightly higher levels of education.

Neither group of siblings, brothers or sisters, showed any significant differences. Both groups appeared to have nearly the same family size. Only 12.9% of educators and 7.69% of business women reported they had more than 4 sisters, and only about 3% of each group had 4 or more brothers. The largest numbers, between 30% and 60%, appeared for 1 brother and 1 sister for corporate women.

Several studies that focused on leaders ascertained that the only, or oldest, child developed into leaders. In this study, however, it was found that about 77% of the women in education were only, or oldest, children, while about 38% of those in business were only, or oldest, children. Over 42% of the corporate leaders were youngest children. Hennig (1970) found that all of the 25 executives she interviewed were only, or eldest, children.

Similarly, Schlack (1974) found that among the women student personnel administrators in her study, 75% were the oldest female child. This study's findings were inconsistent with the older studies done in the 1970s.

About 42% of the business women in this study indicated that their fathers had the greatest influence on their career aspirations, while only 22.58% of the educators indicated paternal interest. Educators were influenced by both parents and one and one-half times more frequently than corporate executives--38.70 for educators and 26.92 for business women. Both groups showed similar maternal influence, 25.8 and 19.23, respectively, for educators and business women. Hennig (1970) found that women executives had greater father influence, while Schlack (1974) found the reverse; student personnel women had been generally influenced by mothers. From these data, it may be concluded that the business women in this study were consistent with Hennig's work, while the educators in this study were not as highly influenced by their mothers as those in Schlack's study.

These two groups of women exhibited basic differences in terms of marital status and size of their families. About twice as many educators were single (29.3%) compared to 15.38% of the corporate women. Of these educators who were married, most of them were in their first marriage.

Of the women in business, one-third were in their first marriage, about 23% in a second marriage and 15% had been widowed. The number of separated or divorced women was about the same for each group--12.9% for educators and 11.5% for business women.

In both groups, those who were married had been married for a relatively long period of time. Women in education, however, had been married longer; 95% of these women had been married 10 years or more compared to 64% of those in business.

There were some differences in the number of children each group had. Many reported no children, 25% for educators and 34.9% for the business women. Over 60% of the educators had 1 or 2 children, as compared to about 35% of the women in business. While only 10% of the educators had 3 or more children, about 30% of the corporate women had 3 or more children. The educators reported marriages of longer duration and fewer children on the whole than did the business women who had larger families and marriages of shorter duration.

The ages of the women in both groups were fairly evenly distributed. Approximately 67% of the educators and 61% of the corporate women were over 45. In both groups,

about one-third of the respondents were under 45. Schlack
(1974) found the average age of the student personnel women
to be 40.

Salary distribution for the two groups indicated that
while over 70% of the educators earned between $50,000 and
$100,000 in salary, only 32% of the business executives
fell into this category. On the other hand, 48% of the
respondents from the corporate world earned over $100,000.
One-fifth of the educators earned in the modest $40,000 to
$49,999 range, while only 4%of the corporate women were in
this category.

There was a significant difference in the size of the
institution or organization employing the two groups of
women. About three-quarters of the women in business
worked for firms with under 1,000 employees. Educators, on
the other hand, were employed by larger institutions--
41.93% of them worked for institutions with more than 5,000
employees.

The only type of publication that showed a difference
were papers presented at professional meetings--and average
of 17 for those in education and 11 for those in business.
Both groups had published books--an average of 1.1 for
educators and 1 for business women. Corporate women
published twice as many papers not related to their field
as did educators--5.7 and 2.2, respectively.

Educators appeared to be more active in organizations. The academic managers belonged to twice as many professional organizations as did corporate managers. On the other hand, both groups averaged 1.6 civic organizations per member. Educators on the average belonged to one feminist organization, as did their colleagues in the business world.

4. Why were there still too few women in top leadership positions in both higher education an the corporate world?

Questions 22, 23, 24, 25 and 26 on the Biographical/ Career Path Questionnaire provided direct and indirect responses to this question. Question 22 asked for the top four problems experienced by the respondents as female managers. While the answers varied in rank, the two elements that stood out in the responses of both groups were being the only woman at this level, being accepted as an equal by the male co-workers--tokenism, isolation and non-acceptance by their male counterparts--problems for the respondents in this study which reflected many of the studies cited in the literature including the classics by Kanter (1977) and Hennig and Jardim (1967).

Question 23 asked the respondents to rank the most influential factors that caused them to be in their current positions of leadership. Despite obvious problems, how had

they attained a position in management? For both groups, the top three answers were the same: Demonstrated leadership ability, demonstrated professional expertise and experience. In other words, these women knew their respective fields, demonstrated leadership ability in committee work, on projects and in their willingness to assume challenging assignments. These experiences plus the day-to-day work and the "paying of dues" propelled them into their current managerial positions--which for many were stepping-stones to senior positions.

Question 24, which asked the respondents about role conflicts, i.e., roles as an administrator, parent or wife, provided some insight into possible reasons why women were deterred from seeking or retaining senior posts. About one-half of the respondents had no perceived conflicts, but the other one-half had experienced time conflicts--never enough time for both family and efficient job performance or for setting priorities. Also, they mentioned having energy and motivation for fulfilling both job and home commitments was difficult. Guilt and reliable care-givers were mentioned most often as problems for those with young children. Being both Super Mom and Super Manager was impossible. Something was always sacrificed.

Question 25 examined a positive aspect of women in management: the greatest advantage of being a woman in management. A few women answered none, but many believed that women brought to the job more empathy, understanding and sensitivity for employees' concerns than male managers. Also, they felt they were role models for younger women who had managerial ambitions. In addition, many said female managers, for the most part, had fewer ego problems and consequently, were more efficient and created a pleasant, humane work climate for workers.

While the previous four questions tangentially examined why women were not in senior positions, Question 26 directly addressed the question of what specific barriers the respondents thought had kept women out of these posts. The most frequent response mirrored much of the current literature: (1) Male egos, chauvinism, the exclusive nature of the "old boys' networks" which subtly excluded women managers while promoting their male counterparts; (2) male stereotyping of women, socialization practices that prevented males from accepting women in responsible, demanding executive jobs; (3) lack of mentors and sponsors for aspiring female managers and the failure of women themselves to make a serious, consistent commitment to the demands that executive positions and the career ladder to these positions required.

Summary

The focus of this study was to determine if there were similarities or differences in two groups of female administrators, those in higher education and those in the corporate world.

It appeared that several basic differences stood out. First, in contrast to earlier studies, which found that business executives were generally higher in Structure, but not Consideration than managers in education or other service-oriented professions, the findings of this study produced some contrasting results. The corporate executives scored slightly higher not only on Structure (probably to be expected), but also on Consideration, which was not expected.

A partial explanation for this finding in the study was that the corporate executives as a group had had more leadership training, not only on the job, but with in-house seminars and workshops. Also, their academic training in MBA work may have exposed them to the importance of developing the human resources in their companies. While educators generally are people-oriented, the lack of training in the latest techniques of human resources

development and no knowledge of management theory could have reduced their efficiency and understanding in dealing with human relations.

The personal backgrounds of these two groups of women also revealed some differences. Traditionally, it has been assumed that adult leaders of both sexes generally have been eldest, or only, children. Of the educators, 77% fell into this category, but over 42% of the corporate executives were the youngest children in the family--a marked contrast to earlier studies.

This finding may be partially explained by the fact that 26.9% of the corporate mothers worked full-time when their daughters were young in contrast to the educators' mothers of whom only 12.9% worked full-time while the children were young. Also, 42% of the corporate women indicated that their fathers influenced their career aspirations. Presumably, this influence may have included an exposure to the male work ethic, the value of assertiveness and some understanding of how males operate in the workplace--a decided advantage for these future executives.

Educators, as might be expected, had earned more degrees than their counterparts, although an impressive 60+% of the corporate women had earned master's degrees. It may be assumed that the advanced training received by

the majority of the business women contributed to the scores they received in both the Consideration and Structure categories of the LOQ.

As a result of analysis of data from the questionnaires, ten differences stood out:

1. More single women were found in the group of educators.

2. Of those women who were married, women in education had marriages of longer duration with fewer children, while the corporate women had shorter marriages and more children on the average.

3. More women in education had fathers employed at the professional/managerial level (over 60%).

4. Women in business were employed by smaller organizations than the educators.

5. Women in business were receiving a higher average salary.

6. Women in education had received higher academic degrees.

7. Women in business had received more leadership training on the job, through in-service and in formal training.

8. Women in business scored slightly higher on the LOQ in both Structure and Consideration.

9. Women in business were more influenced in their career aspirations by their fathers (42%) and had a higher percentage of mothers who worked in their formative years.

10. Women in education published more papers for professional meetings and belonged to more professional organizations than corporate women.

Recommendations for Further Study

The procedures used and the results obtained in this study were felt to be adequate for a preliminary study. However, a number of improvements would be advisable for any subsequent study. The use of the LOQ was questionable. Some respondents expressed frustration with the questions--that the author manipulated their responses by selection of choices; others complained that the language was sexist and because it had been developed by a male for use by and for predominantly male managers, it was biased and non-reflective of female managers' problems and priorities. The Biographical/Career Path Questionnaire could have elicited more specific information related to career orientation.

Therefore, several suggestions for further study can be recommended:

1. An assessment of leadership styles needs to be correlated with an assessment of effectiveness. Further study is needed to determine if people, male and female, who hold administrative positions are successful and why. This study could be done by a survey of supervisors either with personal interviews or with an appropriate assessment tool.

2. Similar research needs to be done with younger women to determine if the differences that exist in this study, both personal and professional, are consistent. The sample could be drawn from another source.

3. Research is needed to determine the number of women who were interested in becoming administrators, but who did not succeed. The reasons why they did not succeed need to be explored. This research could be facilitated by surveying women graduates in several areas to determine if their expectations have been met or thwarted.

4. Further research is needed to compare women in higher education leadership (four-year institutions) with women in community college administration and with women in other leadership positions (e.g., government) to determine if the results are consistent with those in this study.

5. In-depth studies of women executives in specific industries/ businesses (e.g., women executives in the hospitality industry) could be undertaken to determine if the results are consistent with those in this study.

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APPENDIX A

Instrumentation

BIOGRAPHICAL/CAREER PATH QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Name_____

2. Title_____

3. What is your age?
   ( ) 30 or under ( ) 30-44 ( ) 45-54 ( ) over 54

4. What is your marital status?
   ( ) Single ( ) Married, first time ( ) Remarried
   ( ) Separated, Divorced ( ) Widowed

If married, how long? ( ) Less than four years
( ) For 5-10 years ( ) More than 10 year˜

5. How many children do you have?
   ( ) None ( ) One ( ) Two ( ) Three or four
   ( ) Five or more

6. What level of education have you completed?
   Degrees Earned:

   Doctorate. No ( ) Yes ( )
   If yes, type of degree: PhD ( ) EdD ( ) DFA ( ) DBA ( )
                            JD ( ) MD ( ) Other (specify)_____

   Name of institution granting degree:_____

   Master's: No ( ) Yes ( )
   If yes, type of degree: MA ( ) MBA ( ) MEd ( ) MFA ( )
                            Other (specify)_____

   Name of institution granting degree:_____

   Baccalaureate: No ( ) Yes ( )
   If yes, type of degree: (BS ( ) BFA ( ) BA ( ) Other (specify)_____

   Name of institution granting degree:_____ _____

7. Are you now working on an advanced degree? Yes ( ) No ( )

8. Have you had any type of leadership or management training? ( ) Yes,
   on the job ( ) Yes, Seminar, workshop, inservice, etc. ( ) Yes, formal
   degree program ( ) No

9. What is your salary range? ( ) Under 25,000 ( ) $25,000-29,999
   ( ) $30,000-39,999 ( ) $40,000-49,999 () Over $50,000 ( ) $100,000 and
   over

10. What is the size of the institution or organization in which you are employed, in terms of employees?
( ) Under 250   ( ) 250 to 999   ( ) 1,000 to 2,499
( ) 2,5000 to 4,999   ( ) 5,000 or over

11. Did your father work while you were growing up?
( ) Worked full time throughout my childhood
( ) Worked part time, or full time on and off throughout my childhood
( ) Did not work at all
( ) Father not at home, deceased, separated

12. Your father's principal occupation while you were growing up.
( ) Unskilled   ( ) Semi-skilled ( ) Skilled
( ) Farmer   ( ) Service occupations: police, teacher, fire, etc.
( ) Business or managerial

13. Did your mother work when you were growing up?
( ) Worked full time throughout my childhood
( ) Worked part time, full time on and off, throughout my childhood
( ) Did not work when her children were very young, then worked full time
( ) Did not work while her children were very young, then worked part time
( ) Did not work at all
( ) ᵗ ᵗ ⁻ⁿt at home, deceased, separated

14. Your mother's principal occupation while you were growing up.
( ) Unskilled   ( ) Semi-skilled   ( ) Skilled   ( ) Professional
( ) Business or managerial   ( ) Homemaker

15. What is the highest level of education obtained by your parents or guardians?   (Circle one for each parent or guardian)

	Father	Mother
Grammar school	1	1
Some high school	2	2
High school graduate	3	3
College or other school	4	4
College degree	5	5
Graduate degree or professional	6	6

16. Which parent do you believe had the greatest influence on your career aspirations?
( ) Neither   ( ) Mother   ( ) Father   ( ) Both, equally

17. Which child are you?
( ) Only ( ) Youngest ( ) Oldest ( ) Middle child

18. How many brothers and sisters did you have while growing up?
(Circle one for each group)

Brothers	Sisters
1	1
2	2
3	3
4 or more	4 or more

19. List, in chronological order, beginning with the present, the last three professional, full time positions you have held:

Title   Type of organization   Dates held

_____

_____

_____

20. Have you published?[1]
    Number of articles within your field____
    Number of papers presented in professional meetings, other than above____
    Number of books_____
    Number of publications not related to your profession_____

21. Indicate the number of any of the following organizations in which you currently hold membership or are active?
    __ Professional organizations
    __ Feminist organizations
    __ Civic, church or other organizations

22. What have you experienced to be your most significant problems as a female administrator/manager? (Check the top four)
    ( ) Your sex
    ( ) Advancement opportunities
    ( ) Maintaining a private life
    ( ) Accepted as an equal by male co-workers
    ( ) Tasks assigned have restricted scope of responsibility
    ( ) Equal pay for equal work
    ( ) Being the only woman at this level
    ( ) Sufficient energy for family and professional roles
    ( ) Lacked essential experience and background for position
    ( ) Setting priorities as administrator vs. wife and mother
    ( ) Acceptance into informal clubs, meetings, luncheons, "male domains", etc.
    ( ) Perceived as a woman first and an administrato. second
    ( ) Other, please specify_____

23. In your judgment, what do you consider to be the most influential factors that caused you to be in your current psoition of leadership? (Check the top three)
    ( ) Degree   ( ) Demonstrated professional expertise
    ( ) Experience   ( ) Demonstrated leadership ability
    ( ) Being a woman   ( ) Being in the right place at the right time
    ( ) Worked up through the organization ( ) Knowing someone of influence in the organization ( ) Other, explain:_____

24. Do you perceive any conflict concerning your family role, your role as a woman and your role as an administrator?

_____
_____
_____
_____

25. What do you perceive to be the greatest advantage of being female in a management position? _____
_____
_____
_____

26. What do you perceive to be the greatest barriers keeping women out of senior management positions in education/business?

_____
_____
_____
_____

27. Any additional comments: _____
_____   _____
_____   _____
_____

APPENDIX B

Communications

UNIVERSITY OF NEVADA, LAS VEGAS
4505 MARYLAND PARKWAY • LAS VEGAS, NEVADA 89154 • (702) 739-3286

March 1, 1989

Dear Dr.

Your name has been selected as an educational administrator from
the 1988 Higher Education Directory. As part of a research
project under the supervision of the Department of Higher Edu-
cation and Educational Administration at the University of
Nevada, Las Vegas, I am completing a study on the leadership
styles and career paths of women in higher education management
and women in corporate management.

There are very few women in top level positions in either education
or business and there are few in-depth studies that deal with the
leadership styles or career paths of these present leaders. I am
attempting to add to these studies with this research. With your
cooperation I believe this is possible.

There are two questionnaires to be completed. The Leadership
Opinion Questionnaire elicits your opinion. With this in-
strument, I hope to establish a pattern of responses of
successful women administrators. The second instrument is a
basic biographical/career path questionnaire. It will be used
to gather basic data and provide information to substantiate or
refute many of the myths of "woman's place." Both instruments
take about forty-five minutes to complete. Please make responses
to all the questions on both questionnaires.

Enclosed is a return, stamped, self-addressed envelope for your
convenience. All information will remain confidential and
unidentifiable. Please return this information as soon as possible.
Thank you for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Nancy Master

LIBRARY

UNIVERSITY OF NEVADA, LAS VEGAS
4505 MARYLAND PARKWAY • LAS VEGAS, NEVADA 89154 • (702) 739-3286

March 4, 1989.

Dear Ms.

Your name has been selected as a corporate executive from the 1988 Standard and Poor's Register of Corporations, Directors and Executives. As part of a research project under the supervision of the Department of Higher Education and Educational Administration at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas, I am completing a study on the leadership styles and career paths of women in higher education management and women in corporate management.

There are very few women in top level positions in either education or business and there are few in-depth studies that deal with the leadership styles or career paths of these present leaders. I am attempting to add to these studies with this research. With your cooperation I believe this is possible.

There are two questionnaires to be completed. The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire, which elicits your opinion. With this instrument I hope to establish a pattern of responses of successful women administrators. The second instrument is a basic biographical/career path questionnaire. It will be used to gather data and provide information to substantiate or refute many of the myths of "woman's place". Both instruments take about forty-five minutes to complete. Please make responses to all the questions on both questionnaires.

Enclosed is a return, stamped, self-addressed envelope for your convenience. All information will remain confidential and unidentifiable. Please return this information as soon as possible. Thank you for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Nancy Master

ABSTRACT

This study was made to determine if there were similarities or differences in the leadership styles and career paths of women in educational administration and women in corporate management.

The populations of this study consisted of 50 women in higher education administration selected from the 1988 edition of the Higher Education Directory and 50 women in corporate administration from the 1988 Standard and Poor's Register of Corporations, Directors and Executives. Women, in both areas, listed as presidents, vice-presidents, directors, deans, managers, chancellors, CEOs or other corresponding titles, were selected.

The instruments used to gather data in this study were the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire designed to give scores on two leadership dimension--Consideration (human relations) and Structure (task orientation; and a Biographical/Career Path Questionnaire, developed by the investigator, designed to gather information about personal characteristics and career paths.

Executive women in business scored higher on both dimensions--Consideration and Structure--than the women in

higher education. The educators reported more earned degrees, marriages of longer duration, fewer children and more parents with professional/managerial backgrounds than did the corporate executives who reported a higher percentage of parental influence on their career aspirations, more children per capita and marriages of shorter duration. Both groups agreed that experience, professional expertise and leadership ability had gained them their current managerial positions and that male chauvinism, male stereotyping of women and their early socialization were among the most important barriers that women faced in their attempts to obtain senior managerial posts.

The following recommendations were offered: (1) an assessment of leadership styles needs to be correlated with an assessment of effectiveness; (2) similar research needs to be done with younger women to determine if the differences that exist in this study are consistent; (3) research is needed to determine the number of women who were interested in becoming administrators, but who did not succeed; (4) further research is needed to compare women in four-year institutions with women in community college administration; and (5) in-depth studies of women executives in specific industries/businesses to determine if the results are consistent with those in this study.