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THE GLASS CEILING: AN ANALYSIS OF WOMEN IN ADMINISTRATIVE CAPACITIES IN PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES IN THE DEEP SOUTH

By

Judy Alsobrooks Meredith

A Dissertation
Submitted to the Faculty of
Mississippi State University
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy
in Public Policy and Administration
in the Department of Political Science

Mississippi State, Mississippi

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Judy Alsobrooks Meredith

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THE GLASS CEILING: AN ANALYSIS OF WOMEN IN ADMINISTRATIVE CAPACITIES IN HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE DEEP SOUTH

By

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This research explores the barriers that have hindered women's ability to acquire top administrative positions in higher education in the Deep South. Previous studies document the fact that while more women are attending college nationally, far fewer women attain upper level administrative positions at their universities than do men. Sexism and family/work conflicts are known hindrances in women's ability to assume key leadership roles in higher education. This research examines women's perceptions of such obstacles in achieving top administrative positions at public universities in Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, and South Carolina. Women administrators and women who are full and associate professors at both traditionally white and historically black colleges and universities (HBCU) were surveyed on their attitudes and perceptions of barriers affecting the representation of women in administrative and upper administrative positions.

This research indicates that women largely believe that men are the key decision makers at their universities. However, contrary to my hypotheses, for those women faculty and administrators surveyed who believe that there are no barriers for women in achieving administrative or upper administrative posts, many of them state they have no intention in seeking higher positions.

My research findings also reveal that finances is the primary motivator for many women faculty and administrators in moving up the administrative ladder. Women faculty and administrators with financially dependent families and those who simply desire to make more money state that they would seek administrative and upper administrative positions. Further, those women faculty members and administrators who perceive their institution as having family-friendly policies and practices indicated that they are not inspired to achieve an administrative or upper administrative position based on that factor.

DEDICATION

In loving memory of my parents, A.J. and Ina Alsobrooks.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background

In what is considered the "melting pot of the world," there are constant reminders that America is still divided along racial, gender and class lines. In 1999 there were two events that focused on the glass ceiling in achieving top-level administrative positions for women (Cotter *et al*, 2001). The positive occurrence was the appointment of Carleton Fiorina as Chief Executive Officer of Hewlett-Packard, the first female Chief Executive Officer (CEO) of a Fortune 500 company. Fiorina asserted that a glass ceiling no longer existed for women in business.

In direct contrast to Fiorina's assessment, there was a second notable event in 1999 regarding the glass ceiling for women executives. Catalyst, an independent research group, issued a report on corporate women that suggested barriers still exist, especially for women of color. The report indicated that women of color perceive a "concrete ceiling" and not simply a glass ceiling (Cotter et al, 2001). Morrison and Von Glinow define the glass ceiling as "a barrier so subtle that it is transparent, yet so strong that it prevents women and minorities from moving up in the management hierarchy" (Powell

and Butterfield, 2002, p. 397-398). A glass ceiling exists in an organization when promotion decisions for top management positions favor white and or male applicants because of their race and or gender.

What had been the positive breakthrough for women executives in Corporate America with the hiring of Carelton Fiorina at Hewlett Packard in 2005, Fiorina was reversed as CEO by the corporation's board. (CBS News, 2006). Upon her firing, Fiorina asserted that "men understand other men's need for respect differently than they understand it for a woman" (p.3).

According to a study of college presidents by the American Council on Education, white males still dominate the CEO positions with diminutive gains for women, particularly since the late 1990s (June, 2007). The research indicates that in 2006, eighty-six percent of presidents were white and 77 percent of them were men.

Slow but steady gains have been made in Ivy League universities, such as Brown University, for women seeking administrative positions over the last decade (Lively, 2000). These institutions have increased the numbers of women in provost positions, developing a pool of women for presidential appointments. What may prove to be a major crack in the concrete ceiling happened when Dr. Ruth Simmons was appointed president of Brown University as the first African-American woman at the top post of an Ivy League institution. Dr. Simmons was president of Smith College when she was selected to become president of Brown University in 2001 (Adams, 2001). She became Brown's 18th president, its first female president, and the college's first African American

president (Crayton, 2001). When Simmons learned she had been selected, she responded, "My ancestors are smiling" (p. 104). According to Lou Anna K. Simon, Provost at Michigan State University, selecting more women at top levels of administration means that "the leadership in higher education will become increasingly diversified and more closely reflect the composition of student pools" (Lively, 2000, p.2).

Acquiring tenure and full professor ranks for faculty are vital elements in gaining entry into the administrative pipeline. However studies indicate that there is a lack of parity for women faculty in achieving full professor status. According to the American Association of University Professors (AAUP) (Curtis, 2005), in the 1970s there was "strong evidence" of discrimination in the form of appointing women faculty to the lower ranks while promoting a disproportionate number of women to that of men to the rank of full professor. More recently, the AAUP, in comparing the proportion of full-time faculty women who hold the rank of professor with the ratio of men, found indications of some progress, but equity is far from being achieved. Women are still less than half as likely as men to be full professors.

Research indicates there are other challenges for women in achieving administrative positions in higher education such as work/home conflict. Juggling work and home responsibilities has traditionally created challenges for some women faculty and administrators. To compensate for those conflicts, Drago, et al (2005) indicate that some employees will engage in "bias avoidance" by strategically minimizing or hiding family commitments to others in the workplace. Such cases are especially found at

universities that are not considered family-friendly. Further, the study indicates a crucial finding consistent with the negative association between bias avoidance of the worker and the levels of supervisor support for the work and family needs of subordinates. Previous studies indicate that the supervisor's behavior is vital in the employee's ability to simultaneously meet work and family obligations.

While previous research indicates some success of women achieving administrative and upper administrative positions nationally, it is important to assess whether the Deep South is making similar progress in that area. Historically, the region is known for its past Jim Crow practices of strict segregation. However, while there is sufficient historic documentation of racial discrimination and exclusionary practices in the Deep South through the 1960s, there is minimal research on barriers which inhibit women's quest for upper level administrative positions in higher education in the Deep South today.

It is vital for this research to understand the evolution of the Deep South's social practices and women's role in society beginning in the "New South" to the Civil Rights period and Affirmative Action of the 1960s. Historical sociological analysis demonstrates how in the early 1900s, New South leaders used the "dividing practices of sin, sex and segregation" to orchestrate the disenfranchisement of African-American males, to gain support for segregated public schools, to segregate public higher education by race and gender, and to put into practice a race, class and gender distinctive curriculum (Rushing, 2002, p. 167).

Education reformers of the New South convinced legislators and taxpayers that perceived racial injustice against white women should be corrected. Conversely, women would not be allowed to attend the State University or have equal economic opportunity as men. As an alternative, agricultural and mechanical colleges were established for white men, normal and industrial institutes were created for white women, and racially segregated schools were established for African-Americans (Edwards, 1998). Under this system, about one-third of Southerners could not read, black illiteracy rates were higher than those of whites and illiteracy among women exceeded that of men. In this new hierarchy, educated white women could attain a superior status to lower class whites and to blacks, but had to remain subordinate to white men within their families and in schools (Roediger, 1991).

After the New South era, those disenfranchised groups, especially African-Americans and women, continued to lobby for a more balanced society of equal opportunities in the work force, in education and living conditions. Weiss (1997) argues that affirmative action policies of the 1960s were actually a continuum of seeds planted in establishing a number of quota systems and anti-discrimination laws in the 1930s. These quota systems and laws were established to correct discriminatory practices and to provide new opportunities for blacks and women and social changes for the country. These strategies of inclusion for African-Americans led to President Roosevelt's establishing the Fair Employment Practices Committee in 1941 which triggered an increasing number of African-Americans to enter the defense industry.

Dussere (2001) asserts that the term "affirmative action" was not popularized until the 1960s and the Civil Rights Movement. That movement and President Lyndon B. Johnson's War on Poverty in the mid-1960s began a movement for the United States to offer equal access to education, housing and other resources (Garrison-Wade *et al*, 2004). Affirmative action, an outgrowth of Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act, was instituted after the United States routinely failed to provide protection for the basic, inalienable rights of all its' people. Denied to people of color and women, these rights included equal access to education, adequate housing, affordable medical care and equal economic opportunity.

The African-American community, in particular, was a victim of overt racism. Blacks lived as second-class citizens, especially in the South, existing without hope for positive social change. Some argue that racism still segregates and disenfranchises blacks from society. According to White (2002, p.1933), "the maltreatment of African-Americans has been distinctive in its duration, its intensity, its legalization, and its ideology, and that honesty requires us to admit that this is so." Cunningham, *et al* (2002, p. 840) argues, "one of the most profound lingering effects of past illegal discrimination is continuing educational and residential segregation."

Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act forbids hiring discrimination based on race, color, creed, sex, and national origin. Title VI of the Act mandates that federally funded institutions include people of color (Tryman, 1986). The U.S. House Subcommittee on Employment Opportunities in 1982 defined affirmative action as:

> …a process by which public employers take aggressive steps to correct and undo discriminatory practices that have kept ethnic people of color and women out of the mainstream of American life. The goal of affirmative action is not to force employers to hire incompetent or unqualified people. The goal is to motivate them to seek out, train, educate, and hire persons who are qualified and qualified in areas that they have been denied access to because of past discriminatory practices (Lee, 1999, 393).

Some argue that affirmative action policies have evolved full circle since the 1964 legislation that prohibited discriminatory practices based on race, color, creed, gender, and national origin. In 1964, Senator Hubert H. Humphrey, Democrat-Minnesota purported:

> Contrary to the allegations of some opponents of this title, there is nothing in it that will give any power to the (Equal Employment Opportunity) Commission or to any court to require hiring, firing, or promotion of employees in order to meet a racial 'quota' or to achieve a certain racial balance. In fact, the very opposite is true. Title VII prohibits discrimination. In effect, it says that race, religion, and national origin are not to be used as the basis for hiring and firing. Title VII is designed to encourage hiring on the basis of ability and qualifications, not race or religion (Lee, 1999, 393).

In 1996, Representative Sheila Jackson Lee, Democrat –Texas gave a much different interpretation of affirmative action than that of Senator Humphrey. Her quote illustrates the evolution of a public policy over the period of 32 years.

> …I am disheartened by the introduction of legislation [H.R. 2128] which would roll back the clock on civil rights in this country. Under the guise of returning to the 'original intent' of civil rights laws, this legislation would forbid the use of race and gender in governmental decision making and curtail proven and widely accepted remedies for present and past discrimination (Lee, 1999, 393).

Since the introduction of affirmative action programs, public and political debates have centered on the concept of "merit" and "preferential treatment." In the 1990s, the

debates resulted in the passage of Proposition 209 by California voters. Political platforms transformed discussion into assertions of hiring or awarding contracts to the unqualified, usually people of color (Jabbra, 2001). The outcome of the vote meant the dismantling of affirmative action programs in the California higher education system. This suggests that the majority of the polity believed that affirmative action policy was, in fact, promoting racial preference.

The debate on antidiscrimination policy is continuous. Legal battles have ensued in a number of states including California, Washington, Florida and Michigan. The U.S. Supreme Court was requested to review a lawsuit in October 2002 by two white women who were former student applicants at the University of Michigan at Ann Arbor (Schmidt & Arnone, 2002). Their legal suit Gratz v. Bollinger et al challenges the use of a race-conscious admissions policy for undergraduates at the university, describing the university's admission policies as reverse discrimination. In June, 2003 the U.S. Supreme Court ruled on the Gratz v. Bollinger lawsuit against the undergraduate program and another one, Grutter v. Bollinger, against the law school (University of Michigan News Service, 2007). Both legal suits challenged the University of Michigan's admissions policies. However, the high court ruled in favor of the Law School and the undergraduate admissions process with some changes in the policy. Consideration of race in admissions is still allowed.

In suggesting that sociology models be used to update antidiscrimination policies, Cunningham, *et al* (2002) contends that the "map" used to design affirmative action

programs was created decades ago and is currently outdated. Tsang and Dietz (2001) argue that the resulting legislation from the Civil Rights and Women's Rights Movements were designed to level the playing field in employment opportunities for people of color and women. These movements correspond with changes in the workforce that increased the employment rates of people of color and especially women. However, according to Tsang and Dietz (2001), it remains unclear if these increases are the result of policy changes or rather of changes in the economy that have yielded benefits to the disenfranchised.

Statistics indicate that women have been the largest beneficiaries of affirmative action programs. In all, women earned the largest share of professional jobs between 1970 and 1990 (Walters, 1996). The number of female physicians more than quadrupled from 7.6 percent to 33 percent, and the number of law degrees earned by women increased from 23 percent to 41 percent. During the period between 1972 and 1993, the percentage of women lawyers and judges rose from 4 percent to 23 percent; the number of women accountants increased from 22 percent to 50 percent.

In 1977, women gained two million more jobs to become 46 percent of the labor force. Their earnings were nearly three quarters of what men earned, and in 1993 they were 42 percent of all managers and professionals. The majority of the success is by (within the category of) white women, indicating that group as being the most serious employment competition for white men.

Some argue that race remains a factor for African American women who are especially disenfranchised in higher education. Patitu and Hinton (2003) argue that the scarcity of literature on African American women faculty and administrators in higher education reflects the shortage of black women in academic affairs, student affairs and other administrative positions. The Digest of Education Statistics (National Center for Education Statistics, 2002) indicates that in fall 1999, only 5 percent of executive, administrative and managerial positions in colleges and universities were held by African American women.

Since the Civil Rights era and Women's Movement of the 1960s and 1970s, there have been great strides in race relations and gender acceptance. However, there is minimal research in the area of the current status of women professionally in higher education in the Deep South. Feminist economic scholars and sociologists have argued that yet another revolution is needed if women are to gain equity in educational administration (Budig & England, 2001; England & Folbre, 1999; Hochschild, 1989, 1997; Rosaldo, 1974). They argue that changing workplace policies is not enough, but rather society's cultural views on gender roles must also shift. The introduction of this dissertation covers the importance of the study of women administrators at public universities in the Deep South, the need for further research, and the plan of the study.

Importance of the Study

Most of the scholarly discussion of educational administration is centered on the male (Bolinger, 1998). Hensel (1991) argues that research by women or about women is frequently undervalued by male colleagues. This leaves females in higher education with few resources to guide their careers into the administrative and professional arena. The current body of knowledge, which contributes to normative theory in addressing the scarcity of women administrators in higher education nationally, is limited in examining the Deep South. Further, there is very little research that adequately delineates the significances of barriers in academic administrative positions in a region which historically has been documented for its severe discrimination and exclusionary practices.

Need for Further Research

Current research on female administrators provides limited information on possible resolutions of the gender disparity in higher education. Mearle (2000) asserts that many researchers have considered reasons for the gender imbalance in educational administration, but fewer of them have taken into account the conditions under which women are beginning to overcome perceived barriers and to achieve appointments of greater decision-making responsibility.

Beyond sexism, this study examines some circumstances, including family obligations that lead to underrepresentation of women in higher education leadership roles**.** Hensel (1991) argues that few studies have examined the relationship between

marriage and scholarship or parenthood and scholarship. However, some universities have implemented policies to create a family-oriented university. However, Drago (2005) asserts that faculty members seldom take advantage of family-friendly workplace policies. Further, according to Drago, faculty generally avoid bias by hiding family needs since those who inquire about formal childbearing or caregiving leaves from their work, risk damaging their academic reputation. To eliminate the professional penalties of not being considered serious players in the academic world, faculty choose not to use policies which assist in balancing family and work. Concurrently, more research is needed to examine the academic culture to determine whether administrators choose not to benefit from certain family-friendly policies out of fear of being eliminated from the administrative pipeline that would allow them to achieve upper level administrative positions.

Empirical research is also needed to assess whether there are additional circumstances to consider in the scarcity of women in the pool of administrators in public institutions in the Deep South, such as personal and family finance needs. A moderate amount of research has been conducted on pay inequities for women with regards to their male counterparts. A closer examination is needed of women's role in their contribution to their family's financial income, and whether family financial dependency on them is a factor in seeking higher level administrative positions.

Another motivation for this study was to examine current solutions and to offer additional recommendations to resolve the underrepresentation of women in higher

education administration. Hensel (1991) argues that "the climate of college and university campuses that has prevented women from achieving their full potential must change if higher education is to resolve issues of faculty diversity and the impending shortage of qualified teachers" (p. 2). In order to realize a more representative number of women in administration, family-friendly policies must be established at universities and those policies must be accepted campus-wide to promote a more conducive climate for women who seek the responsibilities of an administrator. This can be achieved through establishing a method of evaluating whether family-friendly policies are being adhered to campus-wide and whether women are comfortable with taking advantage of policies which would allow them to effectively balance work and home. The policies and practices of promoting women to Full Professor and tenured positions should also be examined to ensure that talented women are not slipping through the proverbial crack of the administrative pool.

Greater numbers of women have been preparing themselves for professional positions in the labor pool. More women have attained college degrees over the past few decades, a prerequisite for acquiring an upper administrative position. Table 1 compares the number of women to that of men who achieve college degrees in the United States. In examining the number of people in the country who obtain college degrees, women acquire slightly fewer Bachelor and Master Degrees than men. Men also earn more professional degrees than women and there are two men for every woman with a doctorate degree. According to the U.S. Census Bureau (2005f), 17.6 percent of men and

16.8 percent of women twenty-five years of age and older had a Bachelors degree. There were slightly more women with Masters Degrees (7.0%) than there were men (6.7%) with the degree. Two and one half percent of males received a professional degree almost doubling that of women acquiring the professional degree at 1.5 percent. Doctorate degrees were held by 1.1 percent of men and .7 percent women.

Table 1

College Degrees (U.S.)

Women		**Men**	
Bachelors	16.8%	Bachelors	17.6%
Masters	7.0%	Masters	6.7%
Professional	1.5%	Professional	2.4%
Doctorate	.7%	Doctorate	1.1%
Non Degrees	74.0%	Non Degrees	72.2%
N Size	100.0%	N Size	100.0%

The number of women with bachelors and advanced degrees indicates only a slightly different reality in the Deep South than that of women in the rest of the country. As shown in Table 2 fourteen percent of the men and 13.2 percent of the women in Alabama had Bachelors degrees (U.S. Census Bureau, 2005a). There were slightly more

women than men in Alabama with Masters Degrees. Those numbers indicate that 5.2 percent male and 6.0 percent female with Masters Degrees. However, the opposite occurs with the professional degrees in that state where 2.1 percent of men and only .9 percent of women received a professional degree. The number of men receiving doctorate degrees in Alabama is 1.2 percent with .5 percent of women receiving the degree.

Table 2

College Degrees (Alabama)

Women		**Men**	
Bachelors	13.2%	Bachelors	14.0%
Masters	6.0%	Masters	5.2%
Professional	.9%	Professional	2.1%
Doctorate	.5%	Doctorate	1.2%
Non Degrees	79.4%	Non Degrees	77.5%
N Size	100.0%	N Size	100.0%

Table 3 presents the degrees earned in Georgia where the number of degrees earned was larger for men in almost each category including Bachelors, Masters, Professional and Doctorate degrees (U.S. Census Bureau, 2005b). Thus, 18.2 percent of men and 17.1 percent of women had Bachelors degrees, 6.3 percent of women and 7.0

percent of men had Masters Degrees. Further, 2.2 percent of men and 1.6 percent of women had Professional degrees, and 1.2 percent of the men, and .7 percent of women had Doctorate degrees.

Table 3

College Degrees (Georgia)

Women		**Men**	
Bachelors	17.1%	Bachelors	18.2%
Masters	6.3%	Masters	7.0%
Professional	1.6%	Professional	2.2%
Doctorate	.7%	Doctorate	1.2%
Non Degrees	74.3%	Non Degrees	71.4%
N Size	100.0%	N Size	100.0%

Table 4 illustrates Louisiana's college degrees earned where there were slightly more women than men who have acquired Bachelor degrees (U.S. Census Bureau, 2005c). The number of men receiving the Bachelors degree is 13.3 percent while women who acquired the BA degree are 13.6 percent. There were comparatively more women in Louisiana with Masters Degrees than men. The number of women earning the Masters degree was 5.0 percent while 3.9 percent were earned by men. However, over twice the proportion of men acquired professional degrees than women. There were 2.1 percent of

men and .9 percent of women with Professional degrees while the number of men with Doctorate degrees is 2.3 percent with 1.3 percent of women earning Doctorate degrees in Louisiana.

Table 4

College Degrees (Louisiana)

Women		**Men**	
Bachelors	13.6%	Bachelors	13.3%
Masters	5.0%	Masters	3.9%
Professional	.9%	Professional	2.1%
Doctorate	1.3%	Doctorate	2.3%
Non Degrees	79.2%	Non Degrees	78.4%
N Size	100.0%	N Size	100.0%

Table 5 is a picture of the breakdown of gender with degrees earned where the numbers of women and men twenty-five years and older who attained Bachelors degrees are about the same as other states (U.S. Census Bureau, 2005d). Eleven point eight percent of women and 12.6 percent of men had obtained Bachelor's degrees. However, slightly more women earned Masters Degrees than did men. The number of men with Masters Degrees is lower at 4.0 percent compared to 4.8 percent of women. The number of men with Professional degrees in Mississippi was 1.7 percent, with 1.1 percent of

women acquiring the Professional degree. Mirroring Alabama, Georgia, and Louisiana, .9 percent men acquired doctorate degrees almost doubling the proportion of women with the degree at .5 percent.

Table 5

College Degrees (Mississippi)

Women		**Men**	
Bachelors	11.8%	Bachelors	12.6%
Masters	4.8%	Masters	4.0%
Professional	1.1%	Professional	1.7%
Doctorate	.5%	Doctorate	.9%
Non Degrees	81.8%	Non Degrees	80.8%
N Size	100.0%	N Size	100.0%

In Table 6 South Carolina's degrees earned illustrate the numbers of men and women with Bachelor's degrees are similar to those of other states. The number of women earning the Bachelors degree is 14.5 percent and 15.7 percent for men (U.S. Census Bureau, 2005e). However, there were slightly more women who earned Masters Degrees than did men. The number of women with that degree was 5.9 percent and 5.4 percent of men. Like the other Deep South states there were fewer women at 1.0 percent in South Carolina with professional degrees than men at 2.0 percent. Similarly, 1.2

percent of men in that state had Doctorate degrees, which tripled the proportion of women at .4 percent.

Table 6

College Degrees (South Carolina)

Women		**Men**	
Bachelors	14.5%	Bachelors	15.7%
Masters	5.9%	Masters	5.4%
Professional	1.0%	Professional	2.0%
Doctorate	.4%	Doctorate	1.2%
Non Degrees	78.2%	Non Degrees	75.7%
N Size	100.0%	N Size	100.0%

Statement of the Problem

A review of literature indicates that women are disproportionately included in major leadership roles in colleges and universities. The number of women in administration is not comparable with the number of male administrators. In order to acquire diversity in administrative positions in higher education, equal access must be offered regardless of race and gender. I assert that the opportunity to gain balance in leadership positions has eluded women because of obstacles such sexism and the lack of understanding for the needs of women with family obligations.

The problem addressed in this study includes the significant perceived reasons for the lack of parity for women in public higher education administration which limits diversity on university campuses. Unlike affirmative action policies that are government mandated, diversity programs are voluntarily established to foster an environment of various cultures, ethnicities, and races of an organization. Diversity is defined as "the mix of people of all identities, backgrounds, experiences, and beliefs (e.g., gender, race, ethnicity, national origin, sexual orientation, religion, age, physical ability, education, class, work experience, family situation, political or economic perspective, etc.) in any classroom, organization, community, nation, or group of nations" (Foxman & Easterling, 1999, p.285).

The literature review examines the evolution of women's role in higher education administration and some of the barriers that prevent women from moving through the administrative ranks. Public universities are included in my research to determine similarities or differences in perception of promotion practices for women. It also examines whether the pool that provides potential administrative candidates is perceived as elusive to women while available to men, and considers other reasons for women choosing not to seek administrative or upper administrative positions.

Objective of the Study

The first objective of this study was to examine the perception of women regarding barriers in seeking administrative positions in public higher education

institutions in Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, and South Carolina. The sample of women included full professors, associate professors, department chairpersons, deans, associate deans, program directors, vice presidents, provosts, associate provosts and presidents. The second objective was to test the hypothesized relationships of women and major considerations for their underrepresentation in higher education administrative roles. The considerations for lack of parity in representation in administration for women included gender bias, family/work conflict and family financial dependency. The final objective was to offer recommendations for increasing the representation of women administrators in order to maximize the benefits of diversity in higher education.

Expected Contribution of Study

The expected outcome of this study was that women do not participate in the important decision-making and policy-making processes of colleges and universities in the Deep South. Though slight gains are being made, the existence of gross underrepresentation of women is detrimental to higher education; it limits diversity and potential contributions by a group of individuals. Further, the exclusion of talented and qualified women who aspire to top leadership positions is costly to universities. Discrimination eliminates potential leaders and their contributions in meeting the vision and goals of higher learning institutions.

It was expected that, for some women, personal decisions related to lifestyle and family are instrumental in their choice in seeking administrative roles as a profession. However, it was also expected that gender stereotypes hinder some women from reaching their full leadership potential. Therefore, this research could contribute to: (1) A close examination of higher education institutions' policies regarding the recruitment and promotion of women, (2) the implementation of diversity programs to gain parity for that group, and (3) an examination of practices regarding family/work issues that could hinder women's aspirations in seeking administrative or upper administrative positions.

Study Limitations

The proposed construct has potential limitations, since it did not consider the differences in the sizes of the various institutions and or perform an in depth examination and comparison of institutional policies regarding affirmative action, diversity programs, family-friendly policies and the development of a pool of administrators inclusive of women. Further, this study did not look at institutions outside of the Deep South to compare perceptions of women in higher education in other regions with those of the studied region. In addition this study did not include a qualitative assessment of women's perceptions of issues surrounding their ability to seek administrative positions. Nor did it examine men's perceptions of stereotyping and other barriers which inhibit women in career advancement.

Plan of Study

A study of four-year public universities in the five states of Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, and South Carolina was conducted to identify the promotion and hiring practices of women in administration positions. The perceptions of women who are full professors, associate professors and current administrators were examined on issues regarding gender bias, work/family conflict, male administrative dominance, personality issues and family financial dependency.

Chapter II, which is a review of literature, gives an overview of scholarly research related to this study. Information regarding the hypotheses, proposed model, operationalization of variables, data collection and the statistical techniques are discussed in Chapter III. Research findings, implications, and limitations of the study are included in Chapter IV. Finally, Chapter V contains the summary, conclusions and recommendation.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The analysis of literature indicates that there are four major areas that will answer the problem statement questions. The review of literature examines these areas including: (1) the glass ceiling's criteria which distinguishes it as a form of discrimination, (2) the effects of gender bias in the development of a pool of administrators that is inclusive of women, (3) Work-family conflict, (4) The effects of personality and workplace conflict. It also reviews Affirmative Action policies and the debates over its effectiveness in the hiring and advancement of women executives.

The Glass Ceiling

According to the U.S. Department of Labor (1995), the concept "glass ceiling" refers to "artificial barriers to the advancement of women and people of color." Kramer and Lambert (2001) argues that gender bias and discrimination can considerably limit women's opportunities for promotion in the workplace. Although women are being promoted more readily than thirty years ago, the gap remains between men and women in

the advancement to administrative positions. The glass ceiling is a specific type of gender or racial inequality distinguishable from other forms of inequality (Cotter et al, 2001). Cotter et al contend that there are four criteria, which can be used to define a glass ceiling effect:

> (1) A glass ceiling inequality represents a gender or racial difference that is not explained by other job-relevant characteristics of the employee, (2) A glass ceiling inequality represents a gender or racial difference that is greater at higher-levels of an outcome than at lower levels of an outcome, (3) A glass ceiling inequality represents a gender or racial inequality in the chances of advancement into higher-levels, not merely the proportions of each gender or race currently at those higher-levels, and (4) A glass ceiling inequality represents a gender or racial inequality that increases over the course of a career (Cotter et al, 2001, p. 657,-661).

In 1999's Catalyst data, women comprised almost 12 percent of the corporate offices of *Fortune* 500 companies. That was up from two percent in 1987, and up from 9 percent in 1995. However, Van Vianen and Fischer (2002) argue that women are still underrepresented in management positions globally, particularly in senior management posts. Further Van Vianen and Fischer (2002, p.315) contend that the "phenomenon of women's careers being stuck at middle management levels is well documented and has been referred to as the 'glass ceiling' effect."

In recent decades women have made gains in education and the labor market. However, according to Bain and Cummings (2000), due to the glass ceiling, women have not achieved parity in success in advancing to higher-level managerial and professional jobs. Forty percent of managerial workers are women, but women only comprise five percent of senior managers. In academia, Bain and Cummins studied ten university

systems. They found that women constituted one-third of all academics, however, among full professors, only one of every ten was a women.

Van Vianen and Fisher (2002) examined two studies concerning women's reasons to pursue careers in top management. Their hypothesis was that "masculine culture preferences are important predictors for career motives" (Van Vianen & Fischer, 2002, p. 315). In examining gender differences in organizational cultural preferences for non-managerial and managerial positions in the private sector, they found that gender differences only existed in the non-managerial groups where women showed less masculine culture preferences than men. Their examination of a second study indicated that organizational culture preferences were predictive for the ambitions of non-managerial employees, but not for that of middle management workers. Further, women were "less ambitious" than men. Those ambitious women perceived work family restraints as a vital barrier to career advancement.

Examining two decades of affirmative action initiatives in the early 1990s, Guy (1993) characterizes a "three steps forward, two steps backward" process of advancement. She argues that each movement toward equality for women is followed by a backlash of restraint and the desire to return to a more rigid male-oriented social order. Guy asserts that the number of women in decision-making positions is disproportionately low compared to that of men in the public work force. More than a decade later Guy and Newman (2004), examining "emotional labor" and salary inequities, argue that "caring work" is optional for men, while required for women. However, they assert that women

are not compensated for the emotional obligations and expectations they bring to the workplace. Their research indicates that within each occupational category, women earn less than their male counterparts.

Not all research is indicating discriminatory practices. For example, the Senior Executive Service (SES), created by the Civil Service Reform Act in 1978, committed the federal government to provide equal employment opportunity for the creation of diversity in the federal service ranks (Dolan, 2004). In examining the SES, Dolan's research probes the question of whether the women's advancement was "illusory or real" (p. 299). Dolan's research indicates that both men and women rate their own influence similarly, and in some cases, when controlling for agency type, women perceive greater influence in the interpretation and application of laws. Further, contrary to other research, SES women and men have identical job responsibilities, interact with colleagues internal and external of government, have budgetary and personnel responsibilities and utilize their experience and political relationships to form government policies and programs.

According to Williams (2005), in academia, women are more likely to end up in non-tenured positions than their male colleagues. Williams also asserts that women on tenure track are less likely than men to be working at four-year-institutions. Further, highly ranked four-year institutions are more likely to hire low percentages of women (Mason and Goulden, 2002).

Many women never get near the glass ceiling because of a newly documented type of gender bias (Williams, 2005). A 2003 law review article coined the bias as the

"maternal wall" which prevents the progress of women in academic careers once they become mothers (Williams and Segal, 2003). According to Williams and Segal, women who have children soon after receiving their Ph.D. are less likely to gain tenure than men who have children at the same juncture in their career.

There are factors, both psychological and sociological, that formulate the glass ceiling affect for women as they attempt to gain tenure, achieve administrative positions or reach the administrative pinnacle. One of those is the fact that women tend to have a more difficult time establishing competence and respect among their peers and superiors than do men. According to Foschi (2000), men, typically measured by body language and patterns of deference, are afforded more stature than women. Men are also allowed more chance to exhibit incompetence in order to be judged incompetent overall than do women. Therefore, women must "jump through more hoops" to establish themselves as competent (Biernat and Kobrynowicz, 1997, p.544). These competency stereotypes affect objectivity in rule application. Studies indicate that when applying objective rules, colleagues tend to create exceptions for men, whereas women are held to universal standards. This is known as "ingroup favoritism" or "leniency bias" by psychologists (Brewer, 1996). According to Taylor (1981), leniency bias is important because it focuses attention not only on the deferential treatment of women but also on the preferential treatment of men.

A factor of importance in considering the glass ceiling effect for women in the higher education arena is the method in which women are judged professionally. That is,

women tend to be judged on their accomplishments, rather than on their potential. If a man in academia does not have enough publications, but he shows promise, colleagues tend to concur that he should be invited to speak. However, a woman, who is generally recognized on accomplishments, is generally denied an opportunity to be interviewed because she is "unqualified" (Krieger, 1995).

According to Heilman (1995), women's mistakes are also remembered after her male counterpart's are forgotten. Facts attributed to a given stereotype are more accurately remembered than facts that do not fit a stereotype. The causal effect of this is women have a more difficult time than men as being perceived to be competent. The negative competency perception affects women in numerous ways. As women, considered to be in the out-group, they receive fewer awards than men. In one study, when an in-group member outperformed an out-group member, the in-group wanted to distribute awards based on equity with awards linked to the percentage produced; however, when an out-group member outperformed an in-group member, the in-group chose to divvy awards based on equality with identical percentages regardless of individual production numbers (Eagly and Karau, 2002).

Williams (2005) argues that the glass ceiling and the maternal wall affect women and men in nontraditional roles in all professions. Further, academia is not immune from gender stereotyping and cognitive bias. The workplace is a catalyst for perpetuating the subtle and the profound forms of discrimination against qualified women which merely

strengthens the glass ceiling as women attempt to rise to the top in administrative positions.

Gender Bias

Epp, and Sackney (1994) examined the barriers relating to women attaining administrative positions because of androcentric bias. This is prejudicial treatment when the male experience is regarded as the norm with female knowledge and realities considered to be abnormal. Androcentric bias is "when the world is viewed through the male lens; that is, when reality is defined from a male perspective and issues of gender are not addressed" (Epp, and Sackney, 1994, p. 3). Translated from Greek, androcentric means "man-centered partiality" **(**Epp, and Sackney, 1994, p. 2).

According to Shakeshaft, through an androcentric len, a gender status hierarchy exists (Epp, and Sackney, 1994). The woman's role is less valued and less honored than the man's role at university and college settings. Therefore, if having separate and unequal places for men and women is acceptable, then also desirable is a dual set of rules for the two genders. Epp and Sackney (1994) also argued that androcentric bias is particularly prevalent in research when the only subjects of studies are men, omitting the reactions, experiences and behaviors of women. Further, Shakeshaft purports that in an androcentric world, a man's opportunities for success is greater than those for a female merely based on his sex. Women are considered to be nurturing and serve well as parents who consider the "feelings" of children. Mearle (2000) conducted a study that indicates that females are nurturers, responsible for maintaining happiness within the family.

According to Smith (1997), gender stereotypes and attitudes have been found to establish overt and covert barriers for women in pursuit of organizational leadership positions. Smith argues that leadership is embedded in organizational ideology, which imposes unique barriers and constraints on women and people of color who attempt to attain leadership opportunities.

Charles and Davies (2000 p. 546) contend that there is considerable research that supports the premise that "managerial cultures are male cultures and that the ability to manage, to control and to exert authority is gendered male." Further, they argue "the cultural association of power and authority with masculinity makes it difficult for women to hold positions of power because of the contradiction between their gender identity and the masculinity of power" (Charles and Davies, 2000, p. 546).

Utilizing Lowi's models of representation for career advancement and work experiences for upper-level administrators, Newman (1994) examines gender bias in career advancement in public administration. She argues that women continue to be underrepresented at the upper level organizational chart. Lowi's model includes female subjects in a Florida study that were employed in regulatory agencies, redistribution agencies and distributive agencies. Lowi's research indicates that opportunity for advancement in upper management depends upon the type of agency. Women are more likely to advance in Business Regulation and Legal Affairs and severely less likely to progress in engineering or distributive agencies such as Highway Safety, Motor Vehicle and Agriculture.

Gender bias and discrimination against women in academia surface in various forms from overt sexual harassment to subtle sexism (Freyd and Johnson, 2003). Subtle sexism is experienced by women in work distribution, promotion and hiring decisions in what is called a “Chilli Climate” (p.2). Gerdes (2003) argues that from 1976 to 1995 the number of women faculty and women in administrative positions more than doubled. During that same time period, full time women employees increased from 25% to 36% of full-time faculty and from 26% to 44% of full-time administrators. Gerdes argues it is discouraging to find that the percentage of women faculty (part and full-time combined) did not regain the level of 1939 until 1979 and grew only 11% more by 1995.

There is research that indicates that the number of women attaining authority positions in higher education is slightly increasing. According to a study of college presidents released in February 2007 by the American Council on Education, the diversification rate of presidents has been slow, especially since the late 1990s (June, 2007). The research indicates that in 2006, eighty-six percent of presidents were white and 77 percent of them were men. In the mid 1990s, women comprised approximately 20 percent of all chief executive officer positions at colleges and universities (Getskow, 1996). The percentage doubled from 9.5% in 1986 (Ross and McDonough, 2000). In general, candidates from whom community colleges select their leaders are drawn from the pool of deans of instruction. Females occupy a higher percent of deanships than other positions, and the prediction is that the number will continue to rise (Getskow, 1996).

Regardless of the growing number of women attaining leadership positions at colleges and universities, legal suits have been filed charging discrimination based on gender. In Alabama, in a lawsuit filed by three female higher education administrators, a federal judge ruled in 1997 that the state's college system discriminated against women in "Good-Ol-Boy" patronage (Wright, 1997). In April 2002, W. Ann Reynolds, President of the University of Alabama at Birmingham, filed a gender and age discrimination complaint with the U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) against the institution after, according to Reynolds, she was being "pressured" to resign **(**Black Issues in Higher Education, 2002). The EEOC complaint also charges that Dr. Reynolds was not offered the same retirement benefits offered to former presidents. In 2005, The University of Alabama System agreed to compensate Dr. Reynolds $475 thousand to settle the discrimination lawsuit (Field, K. and Selingo, J., 2005).

A Tulane University's women's studies class in 1999 examined factors relevant to women's educational opportunities and experiences to determine how well Louisiana's higher education institutions were doing in achieving equality for women (Willinger and et al, 2000). In the eleven Louisiana institutions examined, their research indicates that women remained underrepresented in decision-making positions, holding from just 20 percent of the administrative positions at Xavier University to 35 percent of the administrative positions at the University of Louisiana-Lafayette. Of the 11 institutions studied, a woman headed only one, at Southeastern.

Bain and Cummins (2000) reported that 45 percent of all managerial workers are women, but women make up a mere 5 percent of senior managers. Their study focused on ten university systems, which found that women constituted one-third of all academics, but among full professors there was only one woman for every ten men. Historically, women tended to be prominent in the nursing, library science, and education fields, while men dominated business, engineering, medicine, law, and the military. Women outnumber their male colleagues in the primary and secondary education fields. However, there is a scarcity of women holding senior academic positions or serving as full professors in higher education.

Bain and Cummings (2000) pointed out that women have only come to the academe in large numbers in recent years. The numbers of women administrators in universities are slim and the growth rate of new positions is so slow that it will probably take several decades for women to achieve parity with men at the top. White men are the dominant group in Western societies and they seek to preserve their power and authority as decision-making teams by deliberately discriminating against women and minorities and shutting them out of top managerial positions.

Gerdes (2003) in a study of open-ended questions that requested advice for women students and women beginning careers in higher education, found interesting results in the areas of facts of life, life choices and coping strategies. In the Fact of Life category, the majority of respondents answered “that barriers remain for women in higher education, in general” (p.261).

Some research indicates that for women to advance their careers, it is vital for the women at upper levels of management to employ role-modeling behaviors. Saar (2005) contends that the mentoring process is reciprocal, that not only does the person being mentored benefit, but the mentor is assisted as well. Just as mentees gain knowledge from the mentors, the reverse is also true.

Research findings by Jandeska *et al* (2005) indicate that women in increasing numbers are gaining advanced degrees and seeking the advancement of their careers. This means that women are becoming a greater force in the administrative pool, and that regardless of their professional status, women can assist other women by increasing their mentoring efforts and by serving as role models. Jandeska *et al* (2005) also asserts that mentors can gain from the experience since mentors and mentees tend to work together and learn from each other. Further, the research also indicates that women tend to have positive attitudes about mentoring if they perceive their organization to value cooperation and participation.

Work-Family Conflict

Traditionally, conditions and personal circumstances perceived as "barriers," like racism and sexism, have eliminated the ability of women to enter into the administrative arena in higher education. Among those barriers may be family-centered issues, which result from the demands of work and home. Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) defined work-family conflict as "a form of interrole conflict in which the role pressures from the work

and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect" (p. 77). For women, conflict between work and family roles is more severe, because women spend more combined time on work and family activities than do men. Most women between the ages of 22 and 55 years of age have problems juggling childcare and work. Research indicates that the number of children at home and long work hours have been associated with overload and conflict in employed mothers (Noor, 2004).

According to Ridgeway and Correll (2004), mothers are torn between the prescriptive image of the 24/7 model worker and the prescriptive image of the 24/7 ideal mother. However, because of the difficulty to maintain both at an optimal level of success, the result is a conflict between what is the norm between the excellent worker and the norm of parental duties, which in turn, brings the reality that a woman cannot be both an efficient worker and a good mother (Williams, 1999).

Work interference with family appears to be a substantial factor for women with education careers. Nearly 50 percent of the women who remain in academe are either single or childless (Hensel 1991). Employment responsibilities are oftentimes considered too demanding to incorporate family obligations into their lifestyle. Therefore, structured social relations, including marriage, can become problematic for some couples. Barnett and Baruch (Erdwins, 2001) define role overload for women as the general sense of having so many role demands or obligations that the individual feels unable to perform them all adequately. Additional definitions (Gottman and Notarius, 2002) based on family and marital conflict and power include issues such as the distribution of family

resources, the allocation of household tasks, family coalitions and allocation of prestige and alliances.

Connidis and McMullin (2002), in examining ambivalence in interpersonal relations and the family, suggest that the family is an institution through which inequalities are reinforced. They argue that in the context of family ties, those who have been affected negatively by traditional arrangements are more likely to consider divorce as improvements to their life, rather than as threats to the family. For some women, divorce becomes a strategy for reducing structured ambivalence. However, in a study of changes in gender relations, Rogers and Amato assert that the "increase in the number of women in the workforce over the last decade has not negatively affected the quality of contemporary marriages" (2000, p. 731). The implications are that women in families with less traditional gender roles are likely to have careers. This does not indicate, however, that women are better off financially in a single parental role.

To remedy the issues surrounding family and work, the 1993 Family and Medical Leave Act was instituted which requires academic institutions to offer unpaid parental leaves to primary caregivers (Williams, 2005). There are numerous universities in an attempt to become family-friendly that incorporate policies to assist families with childcare and childbearing needs. One such policy is the reduced-hours tenure tracks which allows faculty to spend a reasonable amount of time between work and home. However, Hochschild (1997) asserts that women who use these family-friendly policies often endure a negative impact on their careers because of the perception that a woman

who assumes motherhood responsibilities is incompetent in the workplace. Many faculty members have decided to avoid such bias by not taking advantage of family-friendly policies at their universities. The "Faculty and Families Project" at Pennsylvania State University, found that in 1992 and 1999, only four of 257 tenure-track faculty took any formal family leave (Drago and et al, 2005).

Women with families are also discriminated against by women colleagues who have no children in the home (Williams, 1999). There are reports that suggest a division among women when women without children are negatively judgmental of those with children (Burkett, 2000). Further, single and childfree employees feel discriminated against because they are unable to benefit from family-friendly policies that were designed for families. These gender wars are prevalent in academia due to the high numbers of childless women. In a recent landmark case of *Back v. Hastings on Hudson* (2004), the defendants were women engaged in stereotyping and refusing to grant tenure to a school psychologist based on the assumption that she would not be as efficient at work because she had children at home.

Loder (2005), in examining high school principals, asserts that concerns about work-family conflicts are an increasing problem for women administrators. Further, Loder argues that these home-work challenges are overshadowed in educational leadership scholarship by focusing on other barriers such as discrimination in hiring and promotion and the lack of available sponsoring and mentoring.

Similar to Loder's argument that there should be more examination of work-family conflict rather than discrimination of women, Hakim (2006) asserts that recent research on women's position in the workforce is making old theories out of date, especially those theories that focus on sex discrimination. According to Hakim (2000), preference theory of explaining and predicting women's choices between work and family is empirically-based, multidisplinary and applicable in modern societies.

Preference theory predicts a polarization of work and lifestyles, due to diversity in women's sex-role preferences and family roles. Women's preferences are a central determinant of life choices with regards to activities related to children and family life or whether there is an emphasis on work and competitive activities (Hakim, 2006). Collin (2006), in his work on conceptualizing the family-friendly career, suggests that the system approach, with soft systems thinking, offers critical approaches from other theorizing. Though time-consuming, Collin believes that new approaches to the age-old problem of work-family conflict should be examined. While mainstream theorists may be beginning to acknowledge new ways of examining the issue (Kidd, 2004: Savickas, 2000), their traditional ways of thinking have not gone away.

As theorists continue to search for an answer on work-family conflict issues, Haben (2001) asserts that women who choose to work and have family responsibilities could also be role models for other females. Haben also argues that role models who balance powerful executive positions and life experiences demonstrate that qualified

people are attracted and retained in an organization; as a result, the organization is more confident about placing women in administrative positions.

In a study that integrated work-family stress with the stress factor and the "leader-member exchange," Bernas and Major (2000) examined resources available to reduce stress. Bernas and Major's research indicates that although a subordinate may have a positive working relationship with their supervisor, the demands and expectations associated with the relationship may also contribute to work interference with family.

Personality and Workplace Conflicts

One type of workplace stress that administrators will likely face during their career is conflict among colleagues and between supervisors and subordinates. Hocker and Wilmot (1995, p.20) define conflict as: "…an expressed struggle between at least two interdependent parties who perceive incompatible goals, scarce rewards, and interference from the other party in achieving their goals."

The ability and willingness to resolve personality issues and workplace conflict may be a determining factor for faculty considering career advancement to administrative positions since administrators, occasionally, must deal with workplace conflicts. In fact, resolving conflict occupies as much as 20 percent of a manager's time (Thomas & Schmidt, 1976). Administrators should be skilled in conflict management since unresolved conflict can be costly, resulting in antisocial behavior, covert retaliation (Spector, 1997), and even violence (Luckenbill & Doyle, 1989).

According to Meyer (2004), an organization's response to conflict affects the amount and intensity of future conflict. Van de Vliert (1996) asserts that heated conflicts within an organization cause absenteeism, personnel turnover, and various other inefficiencies. Jehn (1997) argues that when an employee becomes emotional during a disagreement, he or she loses sight of duties, resulting in poor work performance.

Ambition and Personality Conflicts

There has also been research conducted on personality traits and issues at the workplace on career ambition and personality conflicts as they relate to equal opportunities and family-friendly policies. Olson (2006) purports that academics who appear ambitious are occasionally accused of being concerned foremost with their careers. Further, according to Olson, the assumption is that having career goals is inconsistent with excellent job performance and acting in the best interest of the institution.

Fels (2004) argues that as contemporary women examine personal goals, they must decide how much of the stress associated with ambition they are willing to endure. Stressful reactions to work-related injustice can emerge in many forms and often lead to decreased work performance and increased organizational expenses, decreased productivity and workplace accidents (Greenberg, J., 2006).

According to Fels, (2004) the hazards to women's ambitions emerge at a later phase in a woman's life after they have started families and are moving up the career

ladder to more competitive positions (Fels, 2004). According to Fels, often women who are pursuing careers must manage their jobs to accommodate male colleagues and supervisors with wives who do not have full-time careers. Further, they must undergo the social pressure to fulfill more traditional feminine roles.

Ng and Fosh (2004) in a case study, examining women's perceptions of equal opportunity policies, found that implementing Equal Opportunity policies is dependent upon a two-pronged approach. The first is that women need to promote more advocators of equal opportunity policies. The second relates to men changing their attitude of antagonism to effect a more conducive working environment. The study found that hiring more women employees who are ambitious and who seek balance between work and family afford them a greater opportunity to progress upward within the organization. When the number of equal opportunity advocators increase, this will give rise to a more balanced view on policies among higher-level women managers.

Research indicates that the lack of ambition can cause a lack of interest in attaining higher administrative positions. Often, men occupying decision-making positions in the workforce naturally become comrades, a process of developing relationships that excludes women. Maddox and Parkin (1994) assert that men bond through activities such as sports and social drinking events. Exclusion from the bonding process is linked to women in male-dominated work environments feeling isolated and alienated. This results in reinforcing the perception by men that women lack confidence.

There is also empirical evidence that some women who are considered high-achievers are not necessarily motivated to serve in a leadership role. In fact, Lawless and Fox (Fischer, 2006), in a study of nearly 3,800 potential political candidates, found that high-achieving women were less likely than their male counterparts to have ambition for elected office, less likely to be encouraged to run for office by public officials or party leaders, and less likely to believe that they were as qualified as other candidates for an elected office.

Conclusion

Research indicates that gains have been made by women in achieving administrative positions in higher education in the United States. However, progress has occurred at a very slow rate over the past decade. The glass ceiling continues to be difficult to crack for women who seek career advancement in administrative positions, particularly in upper administrative positions. Further, the issues of gender bias and discrimination continue to be debated as a major contributor toward the lack of opportunity for advancement for women and people of color. However, the Review of Literature indicates there are other factors to be considered when examining the causes for underrepresentation of women in higher education administration. Research has indicated that family/work conflict, a financially dependent family, ambition, and employee/supervisor personality conflicts contribute to whether women seek or choose not to seek administrative positions.

One of the barriers researched, the glass ceiling, according to Cotter et al (2001), is a specific type of gender or racial inequality that is distinguishable from other forms of discrimination. This form of discrimination is difficult to explain by other job related characteristics such as job performance and competence since it is a more covert method or process of discrimination.

There are factors of a psychological and sociological nature regarding the glass ceiling as women attempt to achieve tenure and administrative positions. One problem lends itself to the difficulty of women gaining respect and establishing competence among peers and superiors. According to Foschi (2000), men are given more opportunities to show incompetence in order to be judged incompetent than are women. Women, more so than men must "jump trough more hoops" to establish themselves as competent (Biernat and Kobrynowicz, 1997, p.544).

In examining other forms of discrimination, Epp and Sackney assert that prejudicial treatment occurs when the male experience is regarded as the norm with female realities considered to be abnormal. This occurance is recognized as "androcentric bias" when the world is seen through the male lens (Epp and Sackney, 1994, p.2).

Affirmative Action was established in the 1960s to eradicate the discriminatory practices for women and people of color. However, over the decades, the success of affirmative action has been debated passionately. Although governments and corporations have advanced women to upper level management, Chaffins *et al* (1995) contends that the efforts are minimal and that females are restricted mostly to mid-level

management positions with less compensation and little authority. Maume (1990) conducted research on income and salaries of professionals and contends that management promotions are delayed for women. According to Tsang and Dietz (2001) research on the effects of race, gender and their interaction with time, indicates that women and people of color continue to earn less, even after controlling for other socioeconomic factors such as childhood poverty and educational attainment.

In academia, according to Williams (2005), women are more likely than their male counterparts to attain non-tenured positions, and women who are on a tenure track are less likely than men to be employed at four-year-institutions. Further, highly ranked four-year institutions are more likely to hire low percentages of women (Mason and Goulden, 2002).

Williams (2005) also asserts that many women never get near the glass ceiling because of a newly documented type of gender bias called the maternal wall. This bias prevents advancement for women in academic careers once they become mothers. Women who have children are less likely to gain tenure than men who have children at the same point in their career.

Beyond the glass ceiling and other more overt discriminatory practices there are other barriers which inhibit the advancement of women in higher education administration. Among those hindrances are family-oriented issues which center around the demands of work and home. Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) assert that for women, conflict between work and family roles is more severe since women, more so than men,

spend more combined time on work and family responsibilities. Mothers are divided between the 24/7 model employee and the 24/7 ideal mother (Ridgeway and Correll, 2004). Further, the difficulty to maintain both at an optimal level of success results in conflict between what is the norm of an excellent worker and the norm of parental duties.

Work and family conflict appears to be an important factor for women with academic careers. Hensel (1991) contends that nearly 50 percent of the women who remain in academia are either single or childless. Job responsibilities are considered too demanding to have family obligations. To eliminate issues surrounding family and work, the 1993 Family and Medical Leave Act was established which requires academic institutions to offer unpaid parental leaves to primary caregivers (Williams, 2005). However, Hochschild (1997) asserts that, in some cases, women who use these family-friendly policies are often perceived as incompetent in the workplace which eventually impacts their career negatively.

The literature also indicates another stressful barrier that may have an affect on some women's decision on seeking administrative positions. That issue surrounds workplace conflict, and whether women are willing to deal with personality conflicts and resolution. Administrators, on occasion, must participate in resolving conflict. According to Thomas and Schmidt (1976), conflict in the workplace can be costly since it can occupy as much as 20 percent of a manager's time.

The Review of Literature illustrates the issues and historical timeline of women in academia in achieving administrative positions. There is little research on barriers facing

women in academia, particularly in the Deep South. However, according to Rushing (2002), historical sociological analysis of the "New South" demonstrates the "dividing practices of sin, sex and segregation" to disenfranchisement African-American males, to support segregated public schools, to segregate public higher education by race and gender, and to put into practice a race, class and gender distinctive curriculum (p.167). Women were not allowed to attend the State University or have equal economic opportunity to that of men. Alternative normal and industrial institutes were created for white women while racially segregated schools were established for African-Americans (Edwards, 1998).

Ng and Fosh (2004) examined perceptions of equal opportunity policies and found that the implementation of EO policies is dependent upon: (1) women promoting more advocators of equal opportunity policies, and (2) men changing their attitude of antagonism to foster a more favorable work environment. Ng and Fosh's (2004) study found that hiring more women who are ambitious and who seek balance between work and family actually offer women a greater opportunity for advancement within the organization. They suggest that when the number of equal opportunity advocators increase, a more balanced view on policies will occur among higher-level women managers.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Description of Data Set

The purpose of this study is to identify barriers faced by women in achieving top-level administrative positions in higher education in the Deep South. This section presents the research methodology that is used to examine issues that influence the inability of women faculty to advance to administrative positions and women administrators to progress to upper level positions in higher education in Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, and South Carolina.

The unit of analysis is the individual faculty member or administrators. The Dependent variable used for analysis is “Intention to seek an administrative position” (if faculty) or “Intention to seek a higher administrative position” (if administrator). Women faculty and women administrators from universities in the five states were provided questionnaires for the research sample.

Data Collection

The sample of women administrators including Presidents, Provosts, Vice Presidents, Deans, Department Heads, Full Professors and Associate Professors at four-

year public universities and colleges in Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, and South Carolina was obtained from the respective state governing boards and various university websites. A survey instrument was mailed to respondents from Jackson, Mississippi in November 2005.

The faculty and administration population sample of women was 1,847 in which 493 faculty and 282 administrators completed and returned the survey instrument. There were six respondents who did not indicate their position at their universities. Returned surveys from only one mailing yielded a sufficient 43 percent response rate to conduct the research. The sample includes women faculty and administrators from a total of 50 public universities in the five states. Appendix C includes a list of the universities used in our survey.

Faculty respondents included Associate Professors and Full Professors within the average age range 45-54 and women administrators surveyed within the average age range of 55-64 years old. Respondents were in various disciplines in which the majority of them were in social sciences, humanities, education and business. The majority classified their universities as comprehensive or research institutions. Surveys were also mailed to women faculty and administrators at Historical Black Colleges and Universities (HBCU) in the five Deep South states. Only 68 surveys were returned from HBCU which included 36 faculty and 32 administrators.

The survey, found in Appendix B, was comprised of forty-two questions and solicited information regarding the respondents' attitudes on gender equity in an attempt

to investigate the extent of inclusion of females in the institution's administrative pool. The survey also solicited information from the participants regarding the barriers that are perceived as preventing women from attaining administrative positions such as home/job conflict and personality conflicts. Other information retrieved from respondents surrounded finances such as family financial dependency and money motivation in striving for job advancement. Whether respondents had a mentor and if so, the effectiveness of that mentor was also sought in the survey instrument.

Respondents were given the opportunity to select responses of survey questions including Strongly Agree, Agree, Neither Agree Nor Disagree, Disagree and Strongly Disagree to perceived barriers, gender hindrance, gender benefit, job satisfaction, job status satisfaction and mentor availability. There were three response choices of survey questions regarding family responsibilities, interpersonal conflicts, ambition, family financial dependency and money motivation. Those categories of answers included Very Much, Somewhat and Not At All. Also made available in the instrument were four open-ended questions which allowed the respondent to further explain: (1) What, if any, were their work-family conflicts, (2) The greatest challenges they faced as a female professor or administrator, (3) The barriers they personally experience as a woman in performing job duties, and (4) How the university can better attain diversity on their campus. After the data was collected, the variables were coded and entered into a Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) database to facilitate the analysis of the data.

The following model includes several hypotheses (variables) for this research project. Perceived barrier data for career advancement were used as independent variables including sexism, family-friendly institution, the glass-ceiling barrier, personality traits and situational family financial dependence. The Dependent variable used for analysis is “Intention to seek an administrative position” (if faculty) or “Intention to seek a higher administrative position” (if administrator). Women who are Associate Professors, Full Professors, and those who are currently administrators including Presidents, Vice Presidents, Deans, Department heads, and Program Directors were provided questionnaires for the research sample. The model below is an arrow diagram of the hypotheses that were tested:

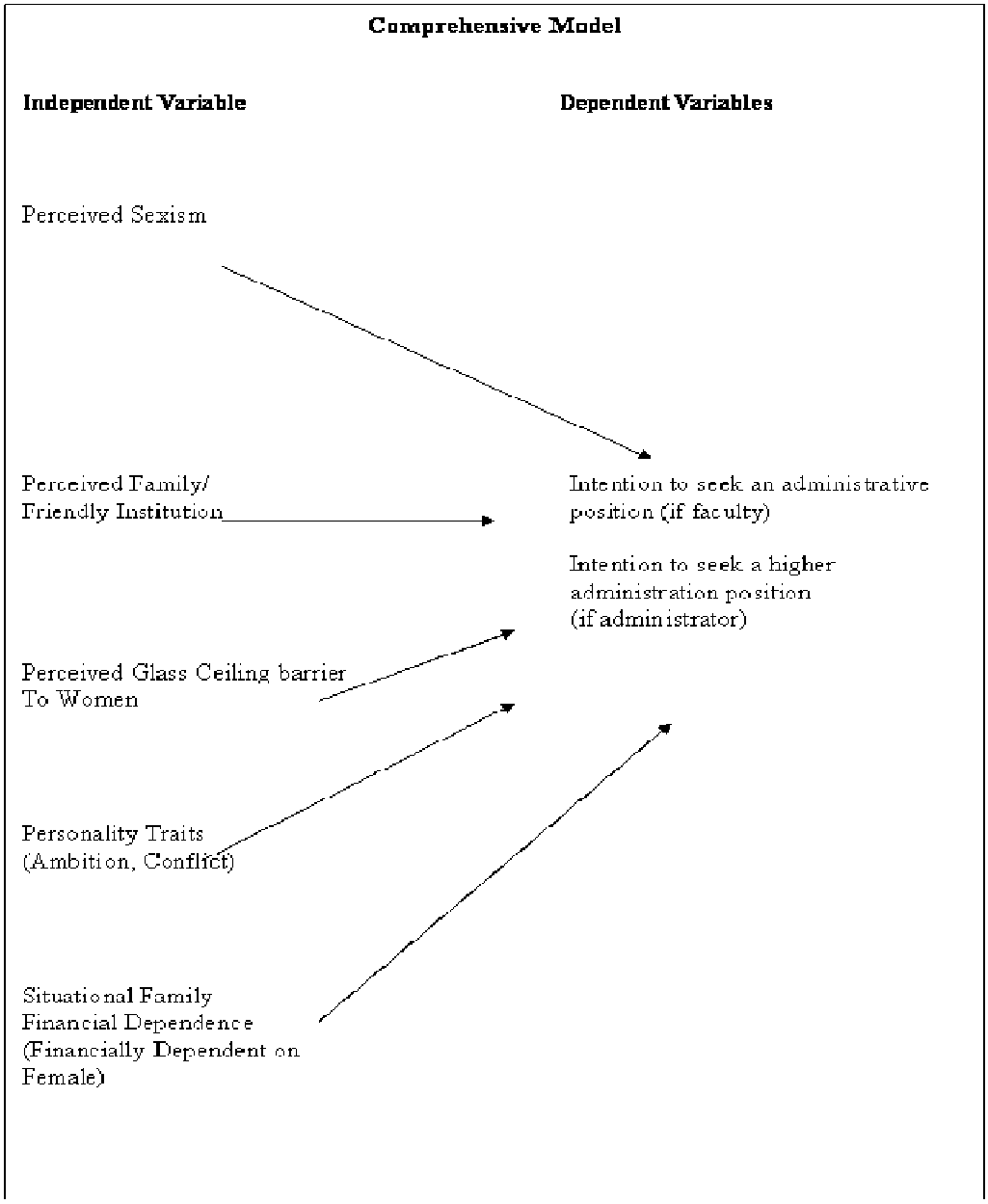

Figure 1 HYPOTHESIS TESTED

Research Questions

The central research question is "What is the relationship between gender and promotions to administration positions and upper administrative positions at public universities in the Deep South." Other research questions to be considered to guide this research include, but are not limited to the following:

1. Is there a perceived glass-ceiling barrier by women who seek administrative and upper administrative positions?

2. Does gender play a role in the gap between the number of men and women in administrative positions in higher education in the Deep South?

3. What impact does family have on women in deciding whether to enter into the administrative pool in higher education?

4. Do personality conflicts and willingness to deal with them play a role in women achieving administrative positions?

Hypotheses

In understanding underlying principles on the subject matter, specific hypotheses must be developed. In developing hypotheses the question surfaces, what are the differences, if any, between the advancement of women and men, in general, in the public systems of higher education in the Deep South? Analysis of the reviewed literature indicates that the glass ceiling, the administrative pool, racism, sexism, and family issues are constraints on female promotions to higher echelon administrative positions at

universities and colleges. Hypotheses were formulated regarding these circumstances and barriers.

The review of literature indicates that women are underrepresented in higher education administration. Sherr (1995) defined the Glass Ceiling as an image, which represents obstacles that prevent women from advancing to their full potential in their careers. Matthews (1995) found that women classified as activists for women's rights were concerned about national issues such as current threats to affirmative action guidelines and Supreme Court rulings that limit sex role stereotypes and sex discrimination.

Work-family conflict is among the barriers preventing females from achieving top level administrative positions. Some women may believe the workplace should strive to assist employees in balancing work and family responsibilities (Dolan, 2000). Based upon the foregoing questions centered on a perceived glass ceiling, sexism and family issues, the following hypotheses to be examined are outlined by the process of path analysis:

I hypothesized that there is a perceived glass ceiling that prevents women from attaining top-level administrative positions in public universities in the Deep South.

H.1. Women faculty who think that there are barriers for women seeking upper administrative positions at their institution are less likely to seek an administrative position, compared to women faculty who believe that there is not a glass ceiling for women.

H.2. Women faculty who report experiencing a barrier are less likely to seek an administrative position, compared to women faculty who have not experienced a glass ceiling barrier.

H.3. Women administrators who think that there are barriers for women seeking upper administrative positions at their institution are less likely to seek a higher-level administrative position, compared to women administrators who believe that there is not a glass ceiling for women.

H.4. Women administrators who report experiencing a barrier are less likely to seek a high level administrative position, compared to women administrators who have not experienced a glass ceiling barrier.

Variables used (5 point, agree-disagree items):

Independent (faculty and administrators):

Do you think there are barriers for women seeking upper administration positions at your institution?

I have experienced a barrier?

Dependent (faculty):
I expect to seek an administrative position at this university in the next few years.

Dependent (administrators):
I expect to seek a higher-level administrative position at this university in the next few years.

INTEND TO SEEK

GLASS CEILING ⟶ ADMINISTRATIVE POSITION

I hypothesized that there will be a perception that fewer women faculty are promoted to administrative positions than their male counterparts, and that the number of women administrators promoted to upper administrative positions is less than that of their male counterparts.

H.5. Women faculty who believe that their gender is a hindrance in employment advancement at their university are less likely to seek an administrative position, compared to women faculty who believe that their gender is not a hindrance in employment advancement.

H.6. Women faculty who believe that their gender is a benefit in employment advancement at their university are more likely to seek an administrative position, compared to women faculty who believe that their gender is not a benefit in employment advancement.

H.7. Women administrators who believe that their gender is a hindrance in employment advancement at their university are less likely to seek a higher-level administrative position, compared to women administrators who believe that their gender is not a benefit in employment advancement.

H.8. Women administrators who believe that their gender is a benefit in employment advancement at their university are more likely to seek a higher-level administrative position, compared to women administrators who believe that their gender is not a benefit in employment advancement.

Variables used (5 point, agree-disagree items):

Independent (faculty and administrators):

I feel like my gender is a benefit in employment advancement at the university?

I feel like my gender is not a benefit in employment advancement at the university?

Dependent (faculty):
I expect to seek an administrative position at this university in the next few years.

Dependent (administrators):
I expect to seek a higher-level administrative position at this university in the next few years.

PERCEIVED SEXISM ⟶ **INTEND TO SEEK ADMINISTRATIVE POSITION**

I hypothesized that women faculty will perceive universities to be less tolerant of family situations when considering the promotion of women in administration positions, and that women administrators will perceive universities to be less tolerant of family situations in the promotion of women to upper level administrative positions.

H.9. Women faculty who believe that their university is family-friendly in its practices and policies are more likely to seek an administrative position, compared to women faculty who believe that their university is not family-friendly.

H.10. Women faculty who report feeling in conflict between their job and home responsibilities are less likely to seek an administrative position, compared to women faculty who do not report such conflicts between job and home responsibilities.

H.11. Women faculty who report that their family responsibilities hinder them from assuming more administrative responsibilities are less likely to seek an administrative position, compared to women faculty who do not report such family responsibility conflicts.

H.12. Women administrators who believe that their university is family-friendly in its practices and policies are more likely to seek a higher-level administrative position, compared to women administrators who believe that their university is not family-friendly.

H.13. Women administrators who report feeling in conflict between their job and home responsibilities are less likely to seek a higher-level administrative position, compared to women administrators who do not report such conflicts between job and home responsibilities.

H.14. Women administrators who report that their family responsibilities hinder them from assuming more administrative responsibilities are less likely to seek a higher-level administrative position, compared to women administrators who do not report such family responsibility conflicts.

Variables used (5 point, agree-disagree items, except where noted):

Independent (faculty and administrators):

Do you believe that the university where you work is family-friendly in its practices and policies?

Do you feel that family responsibilities keep you from acquiring a job with more important administrative responsibilities?

I feel like I'm in conflict/tension with job and home responsibilities.

Dependent (faculty):
I expect to seek an administrative position at this university in the next few years.

Dependent (administrators):
I expect to seek a higher-level administrative position at this university in the next few years.

FAMILY FRIENDLY ENVIRONMENT ⟶ ***INTENT TO SEEK AN ADMINISTRATIVE POSITION***

I hypothesized that women faculty will perceive personality factors as a hindrance for promotions for women, and that women administrators will perceive personality factors as a hindrance for promotions for women.

H.15. Women faculty who rate themselves as more ambitious than their peer group are more likely to seek an administrative position, compared to women faculty who rate themselves as less ambitious.

H.16. Women faculty who report an unwillingness to deal with interpersonal conflict are less likely to seek an administrative position, compared to women faculty who report a willingness to deal with conflict.

H.17. Women faculty who report personality conflicts with their superiors are less likely to seek an administrative position, compared to women faculty who do not report personality conflicts.

H.18. Women administrators who rate themselves as more ambitious than their peer group are more likely to seek a higher-level administrative position, compared to women administrators who rate themselves as less ambitious.

H.19. Women administrators who report an unwillingness to deal with interpersonal conflict are less likely to seek a higher-level administrative position, compared to women administrators who report a willingness to deal with conflict.

H.20. Women administrators who report personality conflicts with their superiors are less likely to seek a higher-level administrative position, compared to women administrators who do not report personality conflicts.

Variables used:

Independent (faculty and administrators):

Compared to your colleagues, how ambitious are you? More ambitious, equally as ambitious, or not as ambitious.

How willing are you to deal with conflicts with other people? Very willing, somewhat willing, or not willing.

How often do you experience personality conflicts with your current supervisor on the job? Very often, from time to time, rarely.

Dependent (faculty):
I expect to seek an administrative position at this university in the next few years.

Dependent (administrators):
I expect to seek a higher-level administrative position at this university in the next few years.

PERSONALITY TRAITS → ***INTEND TO SEEK AN ADMINISTRATIVE POSITION***

I hypothesized that women faculty with families that are financially dependent on them are likely to seek administrative positions, and that women administrators with families that are financially dependent on them are likely to seek administrative promotions.

H.21. Women faculty who have people financially dependent on them are more likely to seek an administrative position, compared to women faculty who do not have people dependent on them.

H.22. Women faculty who are more motivated by acquiring money are more likely to seek an administrative position, compared to women faculty who are not as motivated by acquiring money.

H.23. Women administrators who have people financially dependent on them are more likely to seek a higher-level administrative position, compared to women administrators who do not have people dependent on them.

H.24. Women administrators who are more motivated by acquiring money are more likely to seek a higher-level administrative position, compared to women administrators who are not as motivated by acquiring money.

Variables used:

Independent (faculty and administrators):

To what extent do you have people who are financially dependent on you?
Very much, somewhat, not at all.

To what extent is acquiring money an important motivation in your life?
Very much, somewhat, not at all.

Dependent (faculty):
I expect to seek an administrative position at this university in the next few years.

Dependent (administrators):
I expect to seek a higher-level administrative position at this university in the next few years.

FINANCIAL DEPENDENCE ⟶ ***INTEND TO SEEK ADMINISTRATIVE POSITION***

Operational Definitions and Variable Measurements

Below are operational definitions based upon pertinent literature and the survey instrument to ascertain whether women in higher education in the Deep South are impacted by variables such as gender, family/institution conflict, perceived Glass Ceiling barriers, personality traits and family financial dependence. The dependent variables for analysis are "intention to seek an administrative position (if faculty)" and "intention to seek a higher administration position (if administrator)."

Variable Definitions

Sexism

Discrimination based on gender superiority; the ideal administrator conforms to masculine stereotype: forceful, ambitious, and strong leadership qualities.

Family Friendly Institution

The concept of strain or conflict in a female's multiple roles as parent and employee; the conflict arising when the demands of work interfere with family responsibilities; the lack of understanding by colleagues and university administration.

Glass Ceiling

This is an image representing obstacles not explainable by more overt discriminatory actions like sexism that prevent women from achieving their full career potential.

Personality Traits

The concept that personality traits can impact the promotion of employees and that personality conflicts can diminish opportunity for advancement.

Situational Family Financial Dependence

Family financial responsibilities play a role in determining ambition to seek higher compensated administrative positions.

Administrative Position

This denotes positions within the administration including department chairs, deans, assistant deans, vice presidents, assistant vice presidents, provosts and presidents.

Statistical Measurement Technique

The principal method of statistical analysis for this research is bivariate crosstabulation analysis and multiple regression analysis. This method was used to test

the aforementioned hypotheses. The relationships between the two dependent variables (1) women faculty and intention to seek an administrative positions and (2) women administrators and intention to seek a higher level administrative position and the independent variables (1) barriers in seeking administrative positions (2) gender hindrances, (3) interpersonal and home/work conflict, (4) finances and (5) ambition were analyzed and discussed. For the optimal understanding of regression outputs, bivariate crosstabulations and some univariate measures are included.

The survey requested that the participants provide choices on a Likert Scale including "strongly agree," "Agree," "Neither Agree Nor Disagree," "Disagree" and "Strongly Disagree." These responses were later recoded to a trichotomous ("yes", "no," "neutral") response choices for purposes of addressing the twenty-four hypotheses posed. Collapsing the categories was necessary to create groupings with a large enough number of respondents to analyze. It also allows an examination of the neutral category which becomes interesting as a predictor of reluctance or uncertainty to try to advance in the administrative ranks.

Reliability and Validity Concerns

A goal of human and organizational research is to offer theoretical explanations of factors related to behaviors. Reliability is a mandatory expectation for measuring validity. Therefore, a brief discussion on reliability and validity is appropriate for this section.

The explanation of human behavior in an organization in higher education must be formulated with an appropriate handling of construct validity. Stringer (1999) said valid should describe a "true" state of affairs and that results should be replicable by any person similarly placed in order to be reliable. AllPsyco Online, The Virtual Psychology Classroom (2002) asserted that construct validity relates to a test's ability to include or represent all of the content of a particular construct. There must be questions on math, verbal reasoning, analytical ability, and every other aspect of the construct in order to develop a valid test of intelligence.

Reliability is the consistency of a test, survey, observation, or other measuring devices. Behavioral measures are seldom totally reliable and valid, but the degree of their validity and reliability should be assessed for research to be strictly scientific. The survey instrument meets the test of construct validity, because it includes multiple questionnaire items that measure each of my concepts, such as perceived sexism, perceived family-friendly institution, perceived glass ceiling barriers to women, personality traits, and personal financial matters. I also believe that the measures possess face validity, though the absence of panel data precludes a statistical test of their reliability through a test-retest study.

Discussion and Expected Implications

The major objectives of this study are to identify the factors accounting for the underrepresentation of women in higher education administration in several southern

states. Another primary objective of the study is to add to the limited body of research regarding barriers affecting the ability of women in achieving their full administrative potential in the Deep South. To date, very little empirical research has been conducted to examine issues surrounding the glass ceiling and the ability of women to contribute to higher education in top administrative roles in this geographical region. This research also examines the perceptions of women regarding other barriers such as family/work conflict and personality conflicts and how those affect their desire to seek administrative or upper administrative positions.

Expected Research Findings

The model construct for the study consists of five major components including sexism, family financial dependency, Glass Ceiling and family-work conflict, interpersonal conflict and personality conflicts with supervisors. The relationships presented in the model suggest that the underrepresentation of women administrators is affected by the construct's variables. Expected findings of the study are:

1 There is a perceived glass-ceiling barrier by women faculty who seek administrative positions and for women administrators who seek higher-level administrative positions.

2 Gender bias plays a role in the gap between the number of men and women in administrative positions in higher education in the Deep South.

3 Family responsibilities play a role in women deciding whether to enter into the administrative pool in higher education.

4 Personality conflicts can negatively impact women faculty and administrators in seeking administrative or higher level administrative positions.

5 Family finances play a role in women's decision to seek an administrative position if faculty and an upper administrative position if an administrator.

CHAPTER IV
FINDINGS

Overview

Chapter IV is a presentation of the results of the study conducted. The study seeks to examine a sample of women administrators including Presidents, Provosts, Vice Presidents, Deans, Department Chairs, Full Professors, Associate Professors and Program Directors employed at four-year public universities and colleges in Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, and South Carolina.

Women in administrative and Full and Associate Professor positions at 50 public institutions in the respective states were sent the Glass Ceiling Survey for completion. This research tested for perceptions of barriers for women faculty and administrators in seeking administrative positions. The dependent variables were women faculty and women administrators. The independent variables tested were perceived sexism, perceived work/home conflict, perceived glass ceiling barriers, personality traits and situational family/financial dependency.

There were a number of surprising findings and reversed hypotheses in the research. For example 74 percent of women faculty and 75% of administrators who perceived no barriers, expressed no intention to seek an administrative position. In fact, an astonishing finding was that the minority of women faculty and administrators who

had experienced barriers were more likely to seek administrative or upper administrative positions. When soliciting their perception of gender being a hindrance, a majority 80% of women faculty who reported that gender was not a hindrance in career advancement, nevertheless had no desire to seek an administrative position. For administrators, the case was the same, 72% of women administrators perceiving gender to not be a hindrance for their career, had no interest in seeking a higher administrative position. This is opposite to my hypothesis.

Surprisingly, those women faculty and administrators who perceived gender as a hindrance were actually more likely to plan for career advancement in administration. Notably, many respondents were comfortable with their job and their job status, though the majority of women faculty and administrators believed that men were the primary decision-makers of the university. The following hypotheses were developed to fully address the problem of this study:

H.1. Women faculty who think that there are barriers for women seeking upper administrative positions at their institution are less likely to seek an administrative position, compared to women faculty who believe that there is not a glass ceiling for women.

H.2. Women faculty who report experiencing a barrier are less likely to seek an administrative position, compared to women faculty who have not experienced a barrier.

H.3. Women administrators who think that there are barriers for women seeking upper administrative positions at their institution are less likely to seek a higher-level

administrative position, compared to women administrators who believe that there is not a barrier for women.

H.4. Women administrators who report experiencing a barrier are less likely to seek a high level administrative position, compared to women administrators who have not experienced a glass ceiling barrier.

H5. Women faculty who believe that their gender is a hindrance in employment advancement at their university are less likely to seek an administrative position, compared to women faculty who believe that their gender is not a hindrance in employment advancement.

H6. Women faculty who believe that their gender is a benefit are more likely to seek an administrative position, compared to women faculty who believe that their gender not a benefit.

H7. Women administrators who believe that their gender is a hindrance in employment advancement at their university are less likely to seek a higher-level administrative position, compared to women administrators who believe that their gender is not a hindrance in employment advancement.

H8. Women administrators who believe that their gender is a benefit are more likely to seek a higher administrative position in comparison.

H9. Women faculty who believe that their university is family-friendly in its practices and policies are more likely to seek an administrative position, compared to women faculty who believe that their university is not family-friendly.

H10. Women faculty who report feeling in conflict between their job and home responsibilities are less likely to seek an administrative position, compared to women faculty who do not report such conflicts between job and home responsibilities.

H11. Women faculty who report that their family responsibilities hinder them from assuming more administrative responsibilities are less likely to seek an administrative position, compared to women faculty who do not report such family responsibility conflicts.

H12. Women administrators who believe that their university is family-friendly in its practices and policies are more likely to seek a higher-level administrative position, compared to women administrators who believe that their university is not family-friendly.

H13. Women administrators who report conflict between their job and home responsibilities are less likely to seek a higher-level administrative position, compared to women administrators who do not report such conflicts between job and home responsibilities.

H14. Women administrators who report that their family responsibilities hinder them from assuming more administrative responsibilities are less likely to seek a higher-level administrative position, compared to women administrators who do not report such family responsibility conflicts.

H15. Women faculty who rate themselves as more ambitious than their peer group are more likely to seek an administrative position, compared to women faculty who rate themselves as less ambitious.

H16. Women faculty who report an unwillingness to deal with interpersonal conflict are less likely to seek an administrative position, compared to women faculty who report a willingness to deal with conflict.

H17. Women faculty who report personality conflicts with their superiors are less likely to seek an administrative position, compared to women faculty who do not report personality conflicts.

H18. Women administrators who rate themselves as more ambitious than their peer group are more likely to seek a higher-level administrative position, compared to women administrators who rate themselves as less ambitious.

H19. Women administrators who report an unwillingness to deal with interpersonal conflict are less likely to seek a higher-level administrative position, compared to women administrators who report a willingness to deal with conflict.

H20. Women administrators who report personality conflicts with their superiors are less likely to seek a higher-level administrative position, compared to women administrators who do not report personality conflicts.

H21. Women faculty who have people financially dependent on them are more likely to seek an administrative position, compared to women faculty who do not have people dependent on them.

H22. Women faculty who are more motivated by acquiring money are more likely to seek an administrative position, compared to women faculty who are not as motivated by acquiring money.

H23. Women administrators who have people financially dependent on them are more likely to seek a higher-level administrative position, compared to women administrators who do not have people dependent on them.

H24. Women administrators who are more motivated by acquiring money are more likely to seek a higher-level administrative position, compared to women administrators who are not as motivated by acquiring money.

Mean Responses

Table 7 provides the mean responses to the survey of participant administrators and faculty. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to compute the data analyses for this study. Based on the original coding of the 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 Likert Scale, the higher scores indicate a score of leaning towards disagreement, while the lower scores lean towards agreement.

In most of the items in Table 7, women faculty displayed a higher mean score than the women administrators, except "gender as a hindrance," "People are financially dependent," "personality conflicts with supervisors," and "money motivation." In responding to survey questions regarding whether they perceive or had experienced barriers, administrators' mean scores were slightly lower than those of faculty indicating that they, more than did women faculty, believed that there are barriers or had experienced them.

Responding to survey questions concerning their perception of gender as a hindrance in employment advancement, women faculty's mean score (3.17) was lower

than that of women administrators (3.28), indicating that faculty respondents believed gender is a hindrance in seeking administrative positions more than did women administrators who believe gender is a hindrance in seeking upper administrative positions. Further, when asked if their gender is a benefit in career advancement, women administrators' mean score 3.49 was lower than that of women faculty's 3.68 indicating that more administrators perceived gender as a benefit than did faculty.

Mean scores indicate that women administrators with a mean 2.63, perceived their university to be family-friendly in its practices and policies more than did women faculty with a 2.91 mean score. However, with a mean score of 3.16, women administrators believed there is conflict between job and home responsibilities, more than indicated by the higher mean score of 3.21 for women faculty respondents. When responding to whether there are people financially dependent on them, the mean score for faculty which is 1.93 indicates they have more responsibility in that area than do women administrators with 1.97 a mean score.

In responding to survey questions concerning how willing they are to deal with conflict at work, administrators with a mean score of 1.56 were very willing, while faculty's mean score of 1.78 indicated that they were not willing to deal with conflict among colleagues. Further, women administrators, indicated by a mean score of 2.61 rarely experience personality conflict with superiors, while women faculty with a response mean of 2.50 indicated that they more often engage in conflict with their superiors.

In this research, money provided the greatest motivation for faculty seeking administrative positions while ambition was a major factor for women administrators in seeking upper level administrative positions. With a mean score of 1.89 women faculty responded that acquiring money is "very much" an important motivation in their life, while a higher mean score of 1.94 for women administrators indicated that money is "not as important" a motivation. When examining the mean scores for how ambitious women faculty and administrators are compared to their colleagues, administrators' mean score of 1.67 indicated that they are "very much" ambitious while the faculty's 1.83 mean score indicates that group is "not as ambitious."

Table 7…

Mean Responses of Women Faculty and Administrators

	N	Mean	SD
Seek Administrative Position/Upper Administrative Position			
Higher Administrative Position			
Faculty (Dependent variable)	463	4.00	1.086
Administrator (Dependent variable)	273	3.53	1.361
Perceived Upper Administrative Barriers			
Faculty (H.1)	489	2.83	1.242
Administrator (H.3)	281	2.80	1.308

Table 7 (continued)

Experienced Administrative Barriers			
Faculty (H.2)	436	3.34	1.132
Administrator (H.4)	275	3.26	1.169
Gender Hindrance			
Faculty (H.5)	492	3.17	1.231
Administrator (H.7)	281	3.28	1.133
Gender Benefits			
Faculty (H.6)	490	3.68	0.857
Administrator (H.8)	281	3.49	0.756
Family-friendly			
Faculty (H.9)	488	2.91	1.095
Administrator (H.12)	280	2.63	.942
Conflict between Job and Home			
Faculty (H.10)	492	3.21	1.219
Administrator (H.13)	281	3.16	1.228
Family Affect Acquiring Job			
Faculty (H.11)	491	2.33	0.794
Administrator (H.14)	277	2.34	0.776
Ambition Comparable to Colleagues			
Faculty (H.15)	492	1.83	0.674
Administrator (H.18)	281	1.67	0.672

Table 7 (continued)

Willing to Deal with Conflicts			
Faculty (H.16)	492	1.78	0.650
Administrator (H.19)	281	1.56	0.595
Personality Conflicts with Supervisor			
Faculty (H.17)	492	2.50	0.659
Administrator (H.20)	279	2.61	0.612
People Financially Dependent			
Faculty (H.21)	493	1.93	.777
Administrator (H.23)	278	1.97	.752
Money Motivation			
Faculty (H.22)	493	1.89	0.558
Administrator (H.24)	281	1.94	0.548

Presentation of Actual Survey Responses

Table 8 is a presentation of the actual responses of the participants to the items on the survey. Only 11% of the women faculty expressed a willingness to pursue an administrative position while 25% of the women administrators indicated their intention to seek a higher administrative position. The majority of them expressed satisfaction with their jobs and the status attached, and most of them declared that they intended to stay at their respective universities. A similar number of women faculty and women administrators felt a conflict between their job and their home responsibilities, but more

women administrators than faculty regarded the university as family-friendly. A small number of them regarded ethnicity as a major factor, and less than one-third of both women faculty and women administrators reported that they had experienced administrative barriers. The majority of them expressed the feeling that males made most of the administrative decisions at their university.

Table 8

Survey summary of Faculty & Administrator Barriers and Benefits

Survey Responses of the Women Faculty/Administrators to Barriers, Gender Hindrances/Benefits, Job/Home Conflicts and Family-Friendly Institutions

	Strongly Agree %	**Agree** %	**Neither Agree nor Disagree** %	**Disagree** %	**Strongly Disagree** %
Seek Administration/ Upper Position					
Faculty	2.8	8.4	16.6	30.0	42.1
Administrators	12.6	12.6	13.1	32.4	29.3
Perceive Barriers					
(H.1)Faculty	16.2	28.8	20.0	25.6	9.4
(H.3) Admin	16.0	36.3	12.1	22.8	12.8
Experienced Barriers					
(H.2) Faculty	7.8	13.3	32.3	30.5	16.1
(H.4)Admin	9.1	18.9	21.5	38.2	12.4
Family-friendly University					
(H.9) Faculty	8.4	32.8	25.0	27.0	6.8
(H.12) Admin	8.2	43.6	26.8	20.0	1.4
Job/Home Conflict					
(H.10) Faculty	8.7	26.2	13.8	37.8	13.4
(H.13) Admin	10.0	27.4	10.0	41.6	11.0
Gender Hindrance					
(H.5) Faculty	8.1	28.0	18.5	29.3	16.1
(H.7) Admin	5.7	25.3	15.3	42.3	11.4
Gender Benefit					
(H.6) Faculty	1.4	6.3	30.4	46.7	15.1
(H.8)Admin	.4	9.6	36.3	48.4	5.3

Survey Responses to Family hindrances and Financial Motivation

Table 9 examines other factors facing women faculty and administrators. Almost half of the women faculty and women administrators believed that their family was affecting their opportunities for acquiring job advancement, and most of them reported that there were people who were financially dependent upon them. The majority of both groups declared that money was a motivational factor.

Table 9

Responses to Family and Financial Factors

	Very Much	**Somewhat**	**Not at All**
Family Affect Acquiring Job			
(H.11) Faculty	20.4	25.9	53.8
(H.14) Administrator	18.8	28.5	52.7
People Financially Dependent			
(H.21) Faculty	33.7	39.4	27.0
(H.23) Administrator	29.5	43.5	27.0
Money Motivation			
(H.22) Faculty	21.5	67.7	10.8
(H.24) Administrator	18.1	69.8	12.1

Survey Responses to Personality Issues and Conflicts

Table 10 examines personality issues of the participants. The majority of both groups of women expressed their willingness to deal with conflicts, and most of them were confident that they had ambition comparable to their colleagues. More than one-third of faculty and nearly one-third of administrators reported that they had conflicts with supervisors.

Table 10

Respondents on Ambition and Personality Issues

	Very Willing	**Somewhat Willing**	**Not at All**
Willing to Deal with Conflicts			
(H.16)Faculty	34.1	53.3	12.6
(H.19)Administrator	49.1	45.6	5.3
	More Ambitious	**Equally as Ambitious**	**Not as Ambitious**
Ambition Comparable to Colleagues			
(H.15) Faculty	32.9	51.6	15.4
(H.18) Administrator	44.8	43.8	11.4
	Very Often	**From Time To Time**	**Rarely**
Personality Conflicts with Supervisor			
(H.17) Faculty	9.1	31.5	59.3
(H.20) Administrator	6.8	25.1	68.1

Bivariable Technique to Establish Likelihood to Seek administrative and Upper Administrative Positions

Tables 11 through 34 explore the perceptions of the participants to establish the likelihood that they would seek administrative positions when certain situations exist. Hypotheses were tested on women's perceptions of barriers in seeking an administration position, if faculty, or aspiring to higher level administrative positions, if an administrator. The tables indicate that some women had experienced challenges including conflict between their job and home responsibilities. Other issues were examined, such as gender bias and its affect on women's decision to seek an administrative or higher level administrative position at their university. Respondents were also surveyed on how much finances play a role in their desire to move into the administrative ranks. Below are bivariable tables testing each hypothesis of the model. The five response choices for survey questions, ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree," were trichotomized into three categories to depict whether respondents were in agreement, were neutral or in disagreement to survey questions. Collapsing the categories into three categories allowed larger groups to be analyzed and an opportunity to better examine those who were neutral or uncertain about future plans to seek career advancement.

Table 11 represents responses of Hypothesis 1 of my model which states that those women faculty who think that barriers exist in seeking an upper level administrative position are less likely to apply for an administrative position, compared to women faculty who believe that there are no barriers. One interesting finding that bears on this hypothesis and others is how few women faculty aspire to seek any administrative position in the future. Only 11% of the sample of women faculty indicated a desire to

seek any future administrative position, while an overwhelming 72% indicated an unwillingness to seek administrative position, with 17% being unsure about their future plans.

Faculty women perceiving that barriers existed for women seeking upper level administrative positions at their universities were slightly less likely to express an intention to seek a future administrative position, compared to those perceiving that no barriers existed. Only 8% of faculty women perceiving a barrier intended to seek an administrative position, compared to 15% of those perceiving no barriers who also intended to seek an administrative position (Table 11). However, those perceiving that no barriers existed were also slightly more likely to disagree that they planned to seek a future administrative position, compared to those perceiving barriers. Seventy-four percent of faculty women perceiving no barriers expressed no intention to seek an administrative position, compared to 69% of those perceiving barriers. These minor and conflicting differences between faculty women perceiving and not perceiving barriers to women seeking administrative positions are further illustrated by examining those unsure about their future plans, who did appear to be affected by the perception of barriers to women. Twenty-three percent of women perceiving barriers expressed uncertainty about their future plans, compared to only 12% of women faculty who perceived no barriers. These modest group differences are statistically significant at the .05 level, particularly because of group differences in uncertainty about future job plans. However, with a gamma value of only .04, my ordinal level hypothesis that women perceiving administrative barriers to women seeking administrative positions are less likely to seek

future administrative positions compared to women not perceiving barriers, does not receive much evidential support, and is therefore rejected.

Table 11

H.1. Perceived Barriers for Faculty

	Perceive Barriers	**Neutral**	**No Barriers**	**TOTAL**
Seek Position	7.9%	12.8%	14.7%	11.3%
Neutral	22.8%	11.7%	11.7%	16.6%
Would not seek	69.3%	75.5%	73.6%	72.1%
N Size	202 100.0%	4 100.0%	163 100.0%	459 100.0%

Gamma = .037
Chi-square significant at .013 level.

Table 12 of my model depicts responses for Hypothesis 2 of my model which posits that women faculty who have experienced barriers are less likely to seek an administrative position, compared to women faculty who have not experienced barriers. The first noteworthy finding is that while a plurality of women faculty believes that barriers to women exist at their universities, a plurality of women faculty reports that they have not experienced such barriers. Furthermore, completely contrary to the hypothesis, the minority of women faculty who report having experienced barriers in seeking

administrative positions are actually more likely to express an intention to seek a future administrative position, compared to women faculty who report not having experienced barriers.

Twenty-one percent of women faculty who have experienced a barrier plan to seek a future administrative position, compared to 11% of women who have not experienced a barrier. However, experiencing a barrier does appear to make other women faculty more uncertain about whether they plan to seek an administrative position. Thirty-four percent of women who have experienced a barrier are neutral about their future job plans, compared to only 18% of those who have not experienced a barrier. Also contrary to the hypothesis is that a large 71% of women who have not experienced barriers indicate that they do not plan to seek an administrative position, compared to only 45% of women who have experienced a barrier who also plan not to seek an administrative position. Consequently, the gamma value is .214 and it is statistically significant at the .001 level. However, the sign of the gamma is the opposite of what I hypothesized. Women faculty who report personally experiencing a barrier to seeking an administrative position are actually more likely to want to seek a future administrative position, compared to women who have not experienced any barriers. Rather than conforming to the stereotype of women in the literature who are fragile and easily discouraged, my study suggests that the woman faculty member today may actually respond in a positive manner to adversity, being motivated by perceived discrimination to seek a position of power that would enable them to fight such discrimination. Consequently, the hypothesis

that experiencing barriers to advancement would hinder future intentions to seek administrative positions is rejected.

Table 12

H.2. Experienced barriers by Faculty

	Experienced Barriers	Neutral	No Barriers	TOTAL
Seek Position	20.9%	9.0%	10.8%	12.3%
Neutral	33.7%	8.2%	18.3%	18.3%
Would not seek	45.3%	82.8%	71.0%	69.5%
N Size	86 100.0%	134 100.0%	186 100.0%	406 100.0%

Gamma = .214
Chi-square significant at .001 level.

Table 13 includes perceptions of women administrators as they relate to Hypothesis 3 of the model which states that women administrators who think that there are barriers for women seeking upper level administrative positions are less likely to seek a higher level administrative position, compared to women administrators who believe that there are no barriers. The results are similar to those for the previous hypothesis in

that the modern woman appears far more resilient than the literature suggestions. Twenty-nine percent of women administrators believing that barriers to female advancement exist express an intention to seek a higher level administrative position, compared to only 12% of women administrators who perceive that no barriers to advancement exist. Furthermore, 75% of women administrators perceiving no barriers have no plans to seek a higher administrative position, compared to only 56% of women administrators perceiving barriers. Therefore, the gamma value of .277 is statistically significant at the .001 level, but its sign is in the opposite direction than the hypothesis proposed. Therefore, hypothesis 3 is rejected. Rather than women administrators being discouraged from seeking higher administrative positions by their perceptions of barriers to women's advancement existing, they appear to be encouraged to seek higher administrative positions if they perceive that such barriers exist.

Table 13

H.3. Perceived Barriers By Administrators

	Perceive Barriers	Neutral	No Barriers	TOTAL
Seek Position	29.1%	51.9%	11.9%	25.3%
Neutral	14.5%	3.7%	13.1%	12.7%
Would not seek	56.4%	44.4%	75.0%	62.0%
N Size	110 100.0%	27 100.0%	84 100.0%	221 100.0%

Gamma = .277
Chi-square significant at .001 level.

Responses related to hypothesis 4 of the model are presented in table 14. The hypothesis states that those women administrators who have experienced barriers are less likely to seek a higher level administrative position, compared to women administrators who have not experienced barriers. Consistent with the results of the two previous hypotheses, this hypothesis is also rejected, as women professionals show much more resilience to adversity than the literature suggests. Fully 41% of women administrators who report having experienced barriers to advancement because of their gender nevertheless express intent to seek a higher level administrative position, compared to only 15% of women administrators who report not experiencing such barriers. Furthermore, 77% of women administrators not experiencing such barriers report no desire to seek a higher administrative position, compared to 39% of women who report

experiencing barriers. The gamma value of .503 is statistically significant at the .001 level, but its positive sign is the opposite of what the hypothesis proposed. Women administrators who report experiencing barriers to administrative advancement because of their sex are actually more likely, not less likely, to intend to seek a higher administrative position. Therefore, hypothesis 4 is rejected.

Table 14

H.4 Experienced Barriers by Administrators

	Experienced Barriers	Neutral	No Barriers	TOTAL
Seek Position	40.9%	31.6%	14.8%	25.6%
Neutral	19.7%	15.8%	7.8%	12.8%
Would not Seek	39.4%	52.6%	77.4%	61.6%
N Size	66 100.0%	38 100.0%	115 100.0%	219 100.0%

Gamma = .503
Chi-square significant at .001 level.

Table 15 demonstrates women faculty's perceptions of gender as a hindrance in seeking an administrative position. Hypothesis 5 of the model states that women faculty who believe that their gender is a hindrance are less likely to apply for an administrative position, compared to women faculty who believe that their gender is no hindrance. Once again, if anything the reverse is the case. Women faculty reporting that gender is not a hindrance in employment advancement at their university are even less likely to desire to seek an administrative position, compared to women faculty reporting that gender is a hindrance. Fully, 80% of women faculty reporting that gender was not a hindrance to advancement nevertheless had no plans to seek an administrative position, compared to

only 61% of women faculty perceiving that gender was a hindrance. Women faculty perceiving that gender was a hindrance to advancement were more likely to be unsure about their future plans. Thirty percent of those perceiving that gender was a hindrance were unsure about their future plans regarding seeking an administrative position, compared to only 9% of women faculty perceiving that gender was not a hindrance. To summarize these conflicting patterns, the gamma value of .252 is statistically significant at the .001 level, but its positive value is opposite to what I had hypothesized. Rather than women faculty being discouraged from seeking an administrative position if they perceived that their gender was a hindrance to professional advancement at their university, may have actually been slightly encouraged. Therefore, hypothesis 5 is also rejected.

Table 15

H.5. Gender Hindrance for faculty

	Gender Hindrance	Neutral	No Gender Hindrance	TOTAL
Seek Position	8.6%	14.9%	11.8%	11.3%
Neutral	30.1%	11.5%	8.5%	16.7%
Would not seek	61.3%	73.6%	79.7%	72.1%
N Size	163 100.0%	87 100.0%	212 100.0%	462 100.0%

Gamma = .252
Chi-square significant at .001 level.

Table 16 is a presentation of actual responses to whether women faculty perceive gender as a benefit in seeking administrative positions. Hypothesis 6 states that women faculty who believe that their gender is a benefit are more likely to apply for an administrative, compared to women faculty who believe that their gender is no benefit. Once again the hypothesis received little empirical support. While 18% of women faculty who perceived that their gender was a benefit in seeking administrative advancement also expressed an intent to seek an administrative position in the future, a figure 6% higher than the 11% of all position women faculty expressing a desire to seek an administrative

position, only 8% of all women faculty believed that their gender was a benefit to advancement. The group most likely to express no desire for administrative advancement was those women faculty unsure about whether gender was a benefit in administrative advancement. Consequently, the gamma value is a mere -.104 in value, and though it is statistically significant, it is in the direction opposite to that hypothesized, so it provides no support for the hypothesis. Perception that being a woman is a benefit to administrative advancement is a rare occurrence, and it exerts little effect on faculty women's intention to seek an administrative position.

Table 16

H.6. Gender Benefit for Faculty

	Gender Benefit	**Neutral**	**No Gender Benefit**	**TOTAL**
Seek Position	17.6%	12.0%	10.2%	11.3%
Neutral	14.7%	9.2%	20.8%	16.7%
Would not seek	67.6%	78.9%	69.0%	72.0%
N Size	34 100.0%	142 100.0%	284 100.0%	460 100.0%

Gamma = -.104
Chi-square significant at .031

Table 17 represents perceptions of women administrators to gender as a hindrance in seeking upper administrative positions. Hypothesis 7 of the model states that women administrators who believe that their gender is a hindrance, are less likely to apply for an upper administrative position, compared to women administrators who believe that their gender is no hindrance. Once again, the results suggest that the exact opposite is the case. Women administrators who believe that their gender is a hindrance to administrative advancement are more likely to express a desire for a higher administrative position, compared to those who believe that it is not a hindrance. Thirty-six percent of those believing that their gender is a hindrance express intent to seek a higher administrative position, compared to only 18% of women administrators believing that gender is not a hindrance. Perception that gender is a hindrance to administrative advancement may also make women administrators slightly unsure about whether to seek a higher position. On the other hand, fully 72% of women administrators believing that gender is not a hindrance nevertheless have no intent to seek a higher administrative position, compared to only 46% of those perceiving that gender is a hindrance. With a gamma value of .379 that is statistically significant at the .01 level, hypothesis 7 is rejected. Instead of perceptions of gender discrimination discouraging women administrators from planning to seek a higher administrative position, such discriminatory perceptions may actually encourage some women administrators to pursue a higher position.

Table 17

H.7. Gender Hindrance for Administrators

	Gender Hindrance	Neutral	No Gender Hindrance	TOTAL
Seek Position	36.4%	31.3%	17.9%	25.6%
Neutral	18.2%	12.5%	9.8%	12.4%
Would not seek	45.5%	56.3%	72.4%	62.0%
N Size	66 100.0%	32 100.0%	123 100.0%	221 100.0%

Gamma = .379
Chi-square significant at .008

Table 18 demonstrates women administrators' perception of gender as a benefit in seeking upper administrative positions. Hypothesis 8, which states that women administrators who believe that their gender is a benefit are more likely to apply for an administrative position, compared to women administrators who believe that their gender is of no benefit, also receives no empirical support. Only 11% of women administrators indicated that they believed that their gender was a benefit to administrative advancement, and this small group was slightly less likely to plan to seek a higher administrative position compared to those women administrators who reported that gender was not a benefit. Only 15% of women administrators who said that their

gender was a benefit to administrative advancement actually planned to pursue a higher administrative position, compared to 25% of those who reported that their gender was not a special benefit. The very small gamma value of -.016 is not statistically significant at the .05 level, providing even more evidence that hypothesis 8 is rejected. Perception that being a woman is a benefit to administrative advancement has no significant impact over the intentions of women administrators to seek a higher position.

Table 18

H.8. Gender Benefit for Administrators

	Gender Benefit	Neutral	No Gender benefit	TOTAL
Seek Position	15.4%	30.1%	24.6%	25.3%
Neutral	7.7%	15.1%	12.3%	12.7%
Would not seek	76.9%	54.8%	63.1%	62.0%
N Size	26 100.0%	73 100.0%	122 100.0%	221 100.0%

Gamma = -.016
Chi-square significant at .38

Table 19 represents women faculty's intent to seek administrative positions if they perceive their university family-friendly. Hypothesis 9, which states that women faculty who believe that their university is family-friendly in its practices and policies are more likely to seek an administrative position, compared to women faculty who believe that their university is not family-friendly, receives only slight evidential support. It is interesting to note that a plurality of 41% of women faculty surveyed believed their university was family-friendly, while 25% were neutral and 34% disagreed. Among those believing that their university was family-friendly, 14% expressed intent to seek an administrative position, compared to only 5% of those women faculty who believed that

their university was not family-friendly. On the other hand, at least 70% of all groups of women faculty expressed no intent to seek a higher administrative position. Those believing that their university was not family-friendly were more likely to be unsure about their future plans, compared to those believing that their university was family-friendly. These small differences in group ambition are reflected in a gamma value of only .003, and while chi squared is statistically significant at the .01 level, hypothesis 9 receives only slight evidential support. Women faculty believing that their university is family-friendly are only slightly more likely to express an intent to seek an administrative position, compared to women faculty believing that their university is not family-friendly.

Table 19

H.9. Perception of Family-friendly University/faculty

	Family-friendly	Neutral	Not Family-friendly	TOTAL
Seek Position	13.9%	12.6%	5.2%	10.7%
Table 19 Continued				
Neutral	13.4	11.7	24.8%	16.8%
Would not seek	72.7%	75.7%	69.9%	72.5%
N Size	194 100.0%	111 100.0%	153 100.0%	458 100.0%

Gamma = .003
Chi-square significant at .003 level.

Table 20 presents beliefs of faculty respondents regarding how home/job conflicts may affect their decision to seek an administrative position. Hypothesis 10 states that women faculty who believe they are in conflict between their job and home responsibilities are less likely to seek an administrative position, compared to women faculty who do not have such conflicts between job and home responsibilities. Once again, the survey results provide little support for this hypothesis. Group differences in

faculty ambition are small, but they are in the predicted direction. Fourteen percent of women faculty reporting no conflict between job and home express an intention to seek an administrative position, compared to only 7% of women experiencing a conflict. Furthermore, 75% of women faculty reporting a conflict between job and home responsibilities has no desire to seek an administrative position, compared to a slightly smaller 70% of faculty not experiencing a conflict. Yet these differences produce a gamma value of only -.112, and neither the gamma value nor the chi squared value is statistically significant at the .05 level. Thus, the hypothesis that women faculty are more likely to seek an administrative position if their job and home responsibilities are not in conflict receives little evidential support.

Table 20

H.10 Job Home Conflict for Faculty

	Conflict	Neutral	No Conflict	TOTAL
Seek Position	6.7%	14.1%	13.7%	11.3%
Neutral	18.3%	14.1%	16.2%	16.7%
Would not seek	75.0%	71.9%	70.1%	72.1%
N Size	164 100.0%	64 100.0%	234 100.0%	462 100.0%

Gamma = -.112
Chi-square significant at .235

Table 21 is a presentation of responses of women faculty to perceptions of family responsibilities as a hindrance to seeking administrative positions. Hypothesis 11, which posits that women faculty who report that family responsibilities hinder them from assuming more administrative responsibilities are less likely to seek an administrative position, compared to women faculty who do not report family responsibility conflicts, is rejected. Perceiving that family responsibilities are a hindrance to assuming more administrative responsibilities may cause women faculty to become more unsure about whether or not to seek an administrative position, but it is not associated with being actively turned off to the possibility. Nearly thirty percent of women faculty perceiving that their family was a hindrance to assuming more administrative responsibilities was

unsure about whether to seek an administrative position, compared to only 11% of those women faculty who reported that their family was not a hindrance. On the other hand, those women faculty rejecting the notion of a future administrative position outright were most likely to be found in the group that reported that family was not a hindrance to assuming more administrative responsibilities. Fully 78% of this group indicated no desire to seek an administrative position, compared to only 66% of those perceiving that family was a hindrance. The gamma value of .168 is statistically significant at the .001 level, but its sign is the opposite of what I hypothesized. Because of these weak, unclear, and conflicting patterns, hypothesis 11, which posits that women faculty are less likely to seek an administrative position if they perceive family as a hindrance, is rejected.

Table 21

H.11. Seek Admin. Position for Faculty with Family Responsibilities

	Family Hindrance	Neutral	No Family Hindrance	TOTAL
Seek Position	4.2%	17.4%	11.0%	11.3%
Neutral	29.5%	17.4%	11.4%	16.7%
Would not seek	66.3%	65.3%	77.6%	72.0%
Table 21 Continued				
N Size	95 100.0%	121 100.0%	245 100.0%	461 100.0%

Gamma = .168
Chi-square significant at .001

Table 22 summarizes responses of women administrators regarding seeking an administrative position if they consider their institution family-friendly. Hypothesis 12, which states that women administrators who believe that their university is family-friendly in its practices and policies are more likely to seek a higher level administrative position, compared to women administrators who believe that their university is not family-friendly, is also rejected. Mirroring the faculty survey results, 52% of administrators believe their university is family-friendly. However, only 22% of administrators who perceive a family-friendly university actually expect to seek a higher

administrative position, compared to a slightly larger 28% of women administrators who perceive that the university is not family-friendly. Furthermore, fully 66% of women administrators believing that their university was family-friendly indicated that they would not seek a higher administrative position, compared to a more modest 56% of those believing that their university was not family-friendly. However, the gamma value has a sign that is the opposite of what I hypothesized, its magnitude is small at -.144, and it is not statistically significant at the .05 level. In any event, hypothesis 12, which posits that women administrators are more likely to seek an upper administrative position if they perceive a family-friendly institution, is rejected.

Table 22

H.12 Administrators Seek Higher Admin Post if University Perceived Family-friendly

	Family-friendly	**Neutral**	**Not Family-friendly**	**TOTAL**
Seek Position	21.7%	30.9%	28.0%	25.5%
Neutral	12.2%	10.9%	16.0%	12.7%
Would not seek	66.1%	58.2%	56.0%	61.8%
N Size	115 100.0%	55 100.0%	50 100.0%	220 100.0%

Gamma = -.144
Chi-square significant at .607

Table 23 represents administrators' survey responses regarding job/home conflicts. Hypothesis 13 states that women administrators, who believe they are in conflict between their job and home responsibilities, are less likely to seek an upper level administrative position, compared to women administrators who do not have such conflicts between job and home. This hypothesis was rejected, as women administrators perceiving a conflict between home and job responsibilities were slightly more likely to express intent to seek a higher administrative position, compared to women perceiving no conflict. Thirty-two percent of women administrators perceiving such conflict indicated intent to seek a higher administrative position, compared to only 20% of women administrators perceiving no such conflict. Conversely, 66% of women administrators perceiving no conflict indicated no intent to seek a higher administrative position, compared to 60% of those perceiving conflict. The gamma value of .162 was not statistically significant at the .05 level, though the chi squared value was barely significant. Nevertheless, the sign of the relationship is the opposite of what I hypothesized, so hypothesis 13 is rejected. Women administrators are not discouraged from seeking an upper level administrative position if their job and home responsibilities are in conflict.

Table 23

H.13. Seek Higher Administration with Job/Home Conflict

	Job/Home Conflict	Neutral	No Job/Home Conflict	TOTAL
Seek Position	32.2%	27.8%	19.5%	25.3%
Neutral	7.8%	27.8%	14.2%	12.7%
Would not seek	60.0%	44.4%	66.4%	62.0%
N Size	90 100.0%	18 100.0%	113 100.0%	221 100.0%

Gamma = .162
Chi-square significant at .046

Table 24 is a presentation of Hypothesis 14 which states that women administrators who report that their family responsibilities hinder them from assuming more administrative responsibilities are less likely to seek an upper level administrative position, compared to women administrators who do not report family responsibility hindrances. This hypothesis was also rejected, as if anything administrators reporting that family responsibilities were not a hindrance were somewhat less likely to express an intention to seek a higher administrative position. Seventy percent of those not hindered by family responsibilities indicated no intent to seek a higher administrative position, compared to only 55% of those reporting that family responsibilities were very much a hindrance and 49% of those reporting that they were somewhat of a hindrance. Those

reporting the greatest problems with family responsibilities were more likely to report uncertainty about seeking a higher administrative position compared to other women administrators. The gamma value of .222 is statistically significant at the .05 level, as is the chi squared value, but the magnitude of the relationship is in the opposite direction to what I hypothesized. Thus, hypothesis 14 states that women faculty are more likely to seek an upper level administrative position if they perceive family as not a hindrance, is rejected.

Table 24

H.14. Effects of Family Responsibilities for Seeking Higher Admin Post

	Very Much	**Somewhat**	**Not at All**	**TOTAL**
Seek Position	23.7%	34.9%	21.6%	25.8%
Neutral	21.1%	15.9%	8.6%	12.9%
Not Seek Position	55.3%	49.2%	69.8%	61.3%
N Size	38 100.0%	63 100.0%	116 100.0%	217 100.0%

Gamma = .222
Chi-square significant at .040

Table 25 is a presentation of responses by women faculty of their evaluation of ambition regarding self and other colleagues. Hypothesis 15 states that women faculty who rate themselves as more ambitious than their peers are more likely to seek an

administrative position, compared to women faculty who rate themselves as less ambitious. This hypothesis was upheld, as 20% of women faculty who report being more ambitious than other faculty express an intention to seek an administrative position, compared to only 6% of those who rate themselves as less ambitious than other faculty. Furthermore, 84% of those rating themselves as less ambitious than other faculty indicated that they would not seek an administrative position, compared to only 61% of those rating themselves as more ambitious. The gamma value reflecting the magnitude of the relationship between the perception of ambition and women faculty's willingness to seek an administrative position is a respectable .337, and the sign of the gamma is in the predicted direction. Furthermore, the chi-square value is statistically significant at the .001 level, indicating those faculty who agree they are as ambitious as their colleagues, are more likely to have a willingness to seek an administrative position. Thus, hypothesis 15, which posits that women faculty who rate themselves as ambitious are more likely to seek an administrative position compared to those who are less ambitious, is upheld.

Table 25

H.15. Faculty Seek Admin Position if More Ambitious than Peers

	More Ambitious	Equally	Not As Ambitious	TOTAL
Seek Position	19.7%	7.9%	5.5%	11.3%
Neutral	19.0%	16.9%	11.0%	16.7%
Would not seek	61.2%	75.2%	83.6%	72.1%
N Size	147 100.0%	242 100.0%	73 100.0%	462 100.0%

Gamma = .337
Chi-square significant at .001

Table 26 presents women faculty's evaluation of their willingness to resolve interpersonal conflict. Hypothesis 16 states that women faculty who say that they are unwilling to deal with interpersonal conflict are less likely to seek an administrative position, compared to women faculty who report a willingness to deal with conflict. This hypothesis is also upheld, suggesting that such basic personality traits as ambition and conflict acceptance are more motivating forces for women faculty than are the glass ceiling factors that were earlier examined. Nineteen percent of women faculty expressing a willingness to deal with conflict indicated intent to seek an administrative position, compared to none of the women faculty expressing an unwillingness to deal with conflict. Furthermore, fully 93% of those women faculty unwilling to deal with conflict indicated that they would not seek an administrative position, compared to only 64% of those

willing to deal with conflict. The gamma value reflecting the magnitude of the relationship between the willingness to deal with conflict and women faculty willingness to seek an administrative position is a respectable .370, and it is in the hypothesized direction. Furthermore, the chi-square value is statistically significant at the .001 level, indicating a relationship between willingness to deal with interpersonal conflict and willingness to seek an administrative position. Therefore, hypothesis 16, which proposes that women faculty who report an unwillingness to deal with interpersonal conflict are less to seek an administrative position compared to women faculty who report a willingness to deal with conflict, is upheld.

Table 26

H.16. Faculty Willing to Deal with Conflicts

	Willing	**Neutral**	**Not Willing**	**TOTAL**
Seek Position	18.5%	9.6%	.0%	11.3%
Neutral	17.9%	18.3%	6.7%	16.7%
Would not seek	63.6%	72.1%	93.3%	72.1%
N Size	151 100.0%	251 100.0%	60 100.0%	462 100.0%

Gamma = .370
Chi-square significant at .001

Table 27 depicts the perception of women faculty regarding how conflicts with their supervisors may impact decisions to seek administrative positions. Hypothesis 17 states that women faculty who report personality conflicts with their superiors are less likely to seek an administrative position, compared to women faculty who report no conflict. This hypothesis was rejected, as few differences in intent to seek an administrative position across groups reporting conflict or no conflict with supervisors existed. Indeed, there was a slight tendency for those reporting the least conflict to be least likely to desire an administrative position, as 78% of those rarely experiencing conflict with their superior indicated that they would not seek an administrative position compared to a slightly smaller 73% of those very often experiencing conflict. These findings suggest that conflicts with superiors do not deter women faculty from seeking an administrative position. The gamma value reflecting the magnitude of the relationship between reported conflicts with superiors and seeking an administrative position is .203, and the direction of the slight relationship is the opposite of what was hypothesized. The chi-square value is statistically significant at the .001 level, indicating the relationship between experiencing conflict and being more willingness to seek an administrative position can be generalized. Thus, the hypothesis that women faculty who report conflicts with superiors are less likely to seek an administrative position, compared to women faculty who rarely experience conflict with superiors is rejected.

Table 27

H.17. Faculty Seek Admin Positions if Conflicts with Superiors

	Very Often	Sometimes	Rarely	TOTAL
Seek Position	12.5%	10.2%	11.6%	11.3%
Neutral	15.0%	27.9%	10.9%	16.7%
Would not seek	72.5%	61.9%	77.5%	72.1%
N Size	40 100.0%	147 100.0%	275 100.0%	462 100.0%

Gamma = .203
Chi-square significant at .001 level.

Table 28 is a compilation of survey responses by women administrators rating their level of ambition in seeking upper administrative positions. Hypothesis 18 states that women administrators who rate themselves as more ambitious than their peers are more likely to seek an upper administrative position compared to women administrators who rate themselves as less ambitious. As was the case with the ambition of women faculty, ambition among women administrators was indeed related to intent to seek professional advancement. Fully 30% of women administrators who believed that they were more ambitious than their peers expressed an intention to seek a higher administrative position, compared to only 5% of women administrators who reported being less ambitious than their peers. Though the group of least ambitious women

administrators was a small one, even comparing the highest ambitious group with the average woman administrator showed that the most ambitious women were more likely to report intent to seek a higher administrative position. The gamma value reflecting the magnitude of the relationship between the perception of ambition and women administrators' willingness to seek a higher administrative position is a respectable .278, and the sign of the relationship is in the predicted direction. The chi-square statistic is significant at the .027 level, indicating that the relationship between ambition and willingness to seek an administrative position can be generalized to the entire population. Thus, hypothesis 18, which posited that women administrators who rate themselves as ambitious are more likely to seek an upper administrative position compared to those who are less ambitious, is upheld.

Table 28

H.18. Administrators Seek Higher Admin Posts if More Ambitious

	More Ambitious	Equally	Not As Ambitious	TOTAL
Seek Position	29.5%	24.7%	5.0%	25.3%
Neutral	14.3%	13.5%	.0%	12.7%
Would not seek	56.3%	61.8%	95.0%	62.0%
N Size	112 100.0%	89 100.0%	20 100.0%	221 100.0%

Gamma = .278
Chi-square significant at .027

Table 29 illustrates responses by women administrators in their willingness to deal with conflict at work. Hypothesis 19 states that women administrators who are unwilling to deal with interpersonal conflict are less likely to seek an upper administrative position, compared to women administrators who report a willingness to deal with conflict. This hypothesis receives little evidential support, partly because of the tiny number of women administrators expressing unwillingness to deal with conflict, though all five of them indicated no intention to seek a higher administrative position. Yet even among those more ambivalent in dealing with conflict, there is a greater willingness to seek a higher administrative position than among those most willing to

deal with conflict. In short, the gamma value reflecting the magnitude of the relationship between willingness to deal with interpersonal conflict and women administrators' willingness to seek an upper level administrative position is a miniscule -.025, and the direction of the relationship is the opposite of what I hypothesized. Furthermore, the chi-square value is significant at the .445 level, indicating that this tiny relationship between willingness to deal with interpersonal conflict and intention to seek an administrative position cannot be generalized to the entire population. Thus, hypothesis 19, which posits that women administrators who report an unwillingness to deal with interpersonal conflict are less likely to seek an upper level administrative position compared to women administrators who report a willingness to deal with conflict, is rejected.

Table 29

H.19. Administrators willing to deal with conflicts in seeking higher admin. Posts

	Willing	**Neutral**	**Unwilling**	**TOTAL**
Seek Position	24.3%	27.7%	0%	25.3%
Neutral	12.2%	13.9%	0%	12.7%
Would not seek	63.5%	58.4%	100%	62.0%
N Size	115 100.0%	101 100.0%	5 100%	221 100.0%

Gamma = -.025
Chi-square significant at .445

Table 30 is a presentation of survey responses regarding women administrators who experience conflict with their superiors and their desire to seek upper level administrative positions. Hypothesis 20 states that women administrators who report personality conflicts with their superiors are less likely to seek an upper level administrative position compared to women administrators who report no conflict. With only 5% of women administrators reporting that they very often experience conflicts with their superiors, it is more instructive to compare those sometimes experiencing conflict with those rarely reporting conflict. That comparison suggests a slight tendency for conflict to be associated with a greater willingness to seek a higher administrative position. While 33% of women administrators sometimes experiencing conflict indicate that they plan to seek a higher administrative position, only 23% of those rarely experiencing conflict indicated such progressive ambition. Furthermore, those rarely experiencing conflict are 14% more likely to indicate that they do not plan to seek a higher administrative position compared to those sometimes experiencing conflict. However, these patterns that are the reverse of what we hypothesized yield a gamma value of only .128, and neither it nor the chi squared value is statistically significant at the .05 level, therefore it cannot be generalized to the entire population. Thus, hypothesis 20, which posits that women administrators who report conflicts with superiors are less likely to seek an upper level administrative position compared to women administrators who rarely experience conflicts with superiors, is rejected.

Table 30

H.20. Seek Higher Admin Posts if Conflicts with Superiors

	Very Often	Sometimes	Rarely	TOTAL
Seek Position	18.2%	33.3%	23.2%	25.5%
Neutral	.0%	16.7%	12.9%	13.2%
Would not Seek	81.8%	50.0%	63.9%	61.4%
N Size	11 100.0%	54 100.0%	155 100.0%	220 100.0%

Gamma = .128
Chi-square significant at .211

Table 31 represents responses of women faculty and a possible correlation between having a financially dependent family and their seeking administrative positions. Hypothesis 21 states that women faculty who have people financially dependent on them are more likely to seek an administrative position, compared to women faculty who do not have people dependent on them. As was the case with some of the personality traits, this situational characteristic does indeed appear to be a factor in encouraging professional advancement. Fifteen percent of women faculty reporting that family members were financially dependent on them reported intent to seek an administrative position, compared to a slightly smaller 10% of those reporting that nobody was

financially dependent on them. Furthermore, 79% of those reporting no financial dependents indicated no interest in a future administrative position, compared to a more modest 70% of those having family members financially dependent on them. The gamma value reflecting the magnitude of the relationship between the perception of family financial dependency and a woman faculty member's willingness to seek an administrative position is .134, and the sign of the coefficient is in the expected direction. Furthermore, the chi-square statistic is significant at the .032 level, indicating the relationship between having financially dependent people and the willingness to seek an administrative position can be generalized to the entire population. Thus, hypothesis 21, which posits that women faculty who have a financially dependent family are more likely to seek an administrative position compared to those who do not, is upheld.

Table 31

H.21. Faculty Seek Admin. Post if Family is Financially Dependent

	Family Financially Dependent	Neutral	Family Not Financially Dependent	TOTAL
Seek Position	15.1%	8.5%	10.3%	11.2%
Neutral	15.1%	21.8%	10.3%	16.6%
Would not seek	69.8%	69.7%	79.3%	72.1%
N Size	159 100.0%	188 100.0%	116 100.0%	463 100.0%

Gamma = .134
Chi-square significant at .032

Table 32 is a compilation of responses by women faculty in acquiring more money as a motivator in seeking administrative positions. Hypothesis 22 states those women faculty who are motivated by acquiring money are more likely to seek an administrative position, compared to women faculty who are not motivated by acquiring money. In this case, though the relationship is in the expected direction, it is not strong enough to achieve statistical significance. Ten percent of women faculty very much motivated by money and 12% of those somewhat motivated by money indicated intent to seek an administrative position, compared to only 6% of those not motivated at all by money. Conversely, 79% of women faculty not at all motivated by money indicated no

desire for an administrative position, compared to 72% of all women faculty. The gamma value reflecting the magnitude of the relationship between money as a value and a woman faculty member's willingness to seek an administrative position is .171, and the direction of the sign is in the predicted direction. However, the relationship is not strong enough to achieve statistical significance at the .05 level for either the gamma or chi square value. Thus, hypothesis 22, which posits that women faculty who are motivated by money are more likely to seek an administrative position compared to those who are not so motivated, is not upheld by the data.

Table 32

H.22. Faculty Seek Admin Position if motivated by Money

	Very Much	**Somewhat**	**Not at All**	**TOTAL**
Seek Position	10.1%	12.3%	6.3%	11.2%
Neutral	25.3%	14.2%	14.6%	16.6%
Would not seek	64.6%	73.4%	79.2%	72.1%
N Size	99 100.0%	316 100.0%	48 100.0%	463 100.0%

Gamma = .171
Chi-square significant at .080

Table 33 represents responses by women administrators to survey questions regarding their likelihood of seeking an upper level administrative position if there are others who are financially dependent upon them. Hypothesis 23, which states that women administrators who have people financially dependent on them are more likely to seek an upper level administrative position, compared to women administrators who do not have dependents, receives little evidential support. Though 28% of women administrators with financially dependent families indicated intent to seek a higher administrative position, a slightly higher percent than the 22% of those without financially dependent families who also harbored progressive ambition, fully 62% of those with financially dependent families indicated no intent to seek a higher administrative position, a 3% higher level of reluctance than those not having financially dependent families. Consequently, the gamma value reflecting the magnitude of the relationship between the perception of family dependency and women administrators' willingness to seek an upper level administrative position is a minute .005, which does not achieve statistical significance. Thus, hypothesis 23, which posits that women administrators who have a financially dependent family are more likely to seek a higher administrative position compared to those who do not, is rejected.

Table 33

H.23. Seek Higher Admin. Post if Family is Financially Dependent

	Family Financially Dependent	Neutral	Family Not Financially Dependent	TOTAL
Seek position	27.6%	25.6%	22.0%	25.3%
Neutral	10.5%	11.6%	18.6%	13.1%
Would not seek	61.8%	62.8%	59.3%	61.5%
N Size	76 100.0%	86 100.0%	59 100.0%	221 100.0%

Gamma = .005
Chi-square significant at .664

Table 34 is a presentation of responses by women administrators concerning money as a motivator in seeking upper level administrative positions. Hypothesis 24 states that women administrators who are motivated by acquiring money are more likely to seek an upper level administrative position compared to women administrators who are not motivated by money. This aspect of personal finances does indeed appear to motivate women administrators to seek a higher administrative position. Fully 46% of those indicating that they were very much motivated by money indicated an intention to seek a higher administrative position, compared to only 24% of those indicating that they weren't motivated at all by money. Furthermore, 64% of those not motivated at all by money indicated no intent to seek a higher administrative position, compared to only 48%

of those very much motivated by money. The gamma value reflecting the magnitude of the relationship between the importance of a monetary motivation and a woman administrator's willingness to seek an administrative position is a noteworthy .254. Furthermore, the chi-square significance level is at the .014 level, indicating the relationship between a monetary motivation and willingness to seek an upper level administrative position can be generalized to the entire population. As a result, hypothesis 24, which posits that women administrators who are motivated by money are more likely to seek a higher level administrative position compared to those who are not inspired by acquiring more money, is upheld.

Table 34

H.24 Seek Higher Admin Post if Motivated by Money

	Very Much	Somewhat	Not at All	TOTAL
Seek Position	45.5%	19.7%	24.0%	25.3%
Neutral	6.8%	15.1%	12.0%	13.1%
Would not seek	47.7%	65.1%	64.0%	61.5%
N Size	44 100.0%	152 100.0%	25 100.0%	221 100.0%

Gamma = .254
Chi-square significant at .014

Multiple Regression Analyses

The dependent variables in this study were: (1) women faculty and women administrators intent to seek an administrative or higher administrative position. The independent variables were: (1) Administrative barriers, (2) Gender Hindrance, (3) Ambition, (4) Finances, and (5) Conflict. Two separate multiple regression analyses were conducted for each dependent variable to determine which independent variables found statistically significant in the bivariate analyses were direct predictors of women faculty's and women administrators' decision to seek an administrative position. Separate regression analyses were needed for faculty and administrators since there are different specific variables that are relevant for faculty compared to administrators, therefore

combining the two and using administrators as a control variable would not reveal the complete picture of variations of perceptions of the two groups.

Nominal variables such as state and academic discipline were not used in the regression equations. To include them would mean testing the possibility that the study's results are limited to a particular state or discipline, we have no reason to theoretically expect that to be the case. Demographic variables were also not used in the regression analysis simply because the hypotheses did not relate to age or race.

Table 36 depicts the multiple regression that was conducted to determine which predictor variables, found statistically significant in the bivariate analyses were indeed direct predictors of the female faculty member's decision to seek an administrative position. The predictor variables were (1) Finance- Female faculty were financially dependent; (2) Conflict- Female faculty were willing to deal with conflict; (3) Gender Hindrance- Female faculty perceived gender as a hindrance to advancement; (4) Ambition—How ambitious were the female faculty compared to colleagues; and (5) Administrative Barriers—the extent to which the female faculty had experienced administrative barriers. Prior to the computation of the multiple regression, multicollinearity was evaluated through the analysis of a Pearson correlation matrix of the independent variables (predictors). The Pearson correlation analysis revealed that no problems of multicollinearity existed. Pearson correlation coefficients ranged from a low of .02 to a high of 0.37. This cleared the way to conduct a reliable multiple regression analysis.

Regression results reveal an overall model of three predictors (conflict-- female faculty were willing to deal with conflict, ambition-- how ambitious were the female faculty compared to colleagues, and experienced administrative barriers-- the extent to which the female faculty had experienced administrative barriers) that significantly and directly predict female faculty willingness to seek an administrative position. This model accounted for 8.9% of the variance in female faculty willingness to seek an administrative position.

Table 35

Multiple Regression Predictors by faculty to Seek Administrative Position

Predictors	Unstandardized Coefficients B	Std Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig
Experienced Barriers	.107	.046	.120	2.316	.021*
Gender Hindrance	.007	.040	.010	.186	.852
Conflicts	.191	.055	.176	3.510	.000*
Ambition	.165	.052	.158	3.182	.002*
Finance	.056	.044	.061	1.268	.206

R^2_{adj} = .089, F (5, 403) = 8.882, p < .001
*indicates statistical significance at or below the.05 level.

Multiple regression, shown in Table 37, was also conducted to determine which independent variables, found significant in the bivariate analyses, were direct predictors of female administrators' decisions to seek a higher level administrative position. The

predictor variables were (1) Experienced Barriers - Female Administrators' experience of administrative barriers; (2) Gender Hindrance- Female administrators perceived gender as a hindrance to advancement; (3) Ambition—How ambitious were the female administrators compared to colleagues; (4) Perceived Barriers—the extent to which the female administrators had perceived administrative barriers; and (5) Money- Money as motivation for female administrators. Prior to the computation of the multiple regression, multicollinearity was evaluated through the analysis of a Pearson correlation matrix of the independent variables (predictors). The Pearson correlation analysis revealed that no problems of multicollinearity existed. Pearson correlation coefficients between the independent variables ranged from a low of 0.39 to a high of .604. This cleared the way to conduct a reliable multiple regression analysis.

Regression results reveal an overall model of three predictors (ambition-- how ambitious were the female administrators compared to colleagues, money—money as motivation for female administrators, and experienced administrative barriers-- the extent to which the female administrators had experienced administrative barriers) that significantly and directly predict female administrators' willingness to seek a higher administrative position. This model accounted for 12.6% of the variance in female administrators' willingness to seek a higher administrative position.

Table 36

Multiple Regression Predictors for Administrators

Predictors	Unstandardized Coefficients B	Unstandardized Coefficients Std Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig
Experienced Barriers	.275	.081	.281	3.380	.001*
Gender Hindrance	.067	.088	.069	.762	.447
Ambition	.173	.087	.129	2.002	.047*
Perceived barriers	-.011	.081	-.011	-.132	.895
Money	.195	.100	.125	1.954	.052

R^2_{adj} = .129, F (5, 217) = 7.283, p < .001
*Statistically significant at .05 or below level.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Chapter V is a presentation of the summary, conclusions, and recommendations that are derived from the major findings of this study. Specifically this research was conducted to establish the likelihood that women educators would seek administrative positions in higher education institutions when they perceive certain conditions existing. The administrative positions under scrutiny included department chairs, deans, assistant deans, vice presidents, assistant vice presidents, provosts and presidents. Beyond those women surveyed in those positions, Associate Professors, Full Professors and project Directors were also mailed a survey. The variables examined in relation to the administrative positions were the following:

(1) Sexism relating to discrimination based on gender superiority, where the ideal administrator conforms to masculine stereotype, such as being forceful, ambitious, and viewed as exhibiting strong leadership qualities;

(2) Family/Friendly Institution that referred to the concept of strain or conflict in a female's multiple roles as parent and employee. In this situation the conflict arises when the demands of work interfere with family responsibilities, and this is compounded by a lack of understanding by the institution;

(3) Glass Ceiling which is an image representing obstacles that prevent women from achieving their full career potential;

(4) Personality traits representing factors that can impact the promotion of employees and result in personality conflicts that can diminish opportunity for advancement and ambition that can determine personal drive in advancing career;

(5) Situational Family Financial Dependence which refers to family financial responsibilities that could play a role in determining ambition to seek higher compensated administrative positions.

Summary

The hypotheses were addressed through the use of the bivariate crosstabulations to examine the likelihood that the women would apply for an administrative position at their university. The five response choices for survey questions, ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree," were trichotomized into three categories to depict whether respondents were in agreement, were neutral or in disagreement to survey questions.

The fundamental research question was: "What is the relationship between gender and intent to seek promotions to administration positions and upper administration positions at public universities in the Deep South?" Other primary research questions that guided this study include:

1. Is there a perceived glass ceiling barrier by women who seek administrative and upper administrative positions?

2. Does gender play a role in the gap between the number of men and women in administrative positions in higher education in the Deep South?
3. What impact does family have on women in deciding whether to enter into the administrative pool in higher education?
4. Do personality conflicts and willingness to deal with them play a role in women achieving administrative position?

Surprisingly, only 11% of the women faculty participating in the survey expressed a willingness to pursue an administrative position while 25% of the women administrators indicated their intention to seek an upper administrative position. The majority of them expressed satisfaction with their jobs and the status attached, and most of them declared that they intended to stay at their respective universities. A similar number of women faculty and women administrators felt a conflict between their job and their home responsibilities, but more women administrators than faculty regarded the university as family-friendly. Less than one-third of both women faculty and women administrators reported that they had experienced administrative barriers. The majority of them expressed the feeling that males made most of the administrative decisions at their university.

The research suggests that personality traits and other factors that are relevant to people of both sexes may be more important in motivating women faculty and administrators to seek either administrative or higher level administrative positions than are perceptions or experiences with sex discrimination. For example, the reverse of hypotheses 2, 3, and 4 was found, as faculty women who had encountered barriers to

advancement and women administrators who had perceived and encountered barriers to advancement at their university were actually more likely to express an intention to seek a higher administrative position than those women not experiencing barriers.

Most of the women faculty members in this study believe that barriers do exist at their universities, although most of them have not experienced such barriers. Faculty women perceiving that barriers existed for women seeking upper level administrative positions at their universities were most likely to express neutrality regarding their intention to seek a future administrative position, while those not perceiving barriers had more definite plans to either seek or to refrain from seeking an administrative position.

The small number of women faculty who report personally experiencing a barrier in seeking an administrative position indicated a greater likelihood of seeking one compared to women who have not experienced any barriers. Rather than conforming to the stereotype of women in literature who are easily discouraged, it appears that the woman faculty today may actually respond in a positive manner to adversity, being motivated by perceived discrimination to seek a position of power that would enable them to fight such challenges.

There were similar responses of administrators to those of faculty regarding barriers in seeking upper administrative positions. Instead of women administrators becoming discouraged from seeking higher administrative positions by their perceptions of barriers to women's advancement, they appear to be encouraged to seek higher administrative positions if they perceive that such barriers exist. Concurrently, women administrators who have actually experienced barriers show much more resilience to

adversity than previous research suggests. Women administrators who report experiencing barriers to administrative advancement because of their sex are actually more likely, not less likely, to intend to seek a higher administrative position. Modern women appear far more resilient than the literature suggestions.

There were similar findings for women faculty and administrators regarding their perception of gender being a hindrance. In fact, rather than be discouraged by the belief that being a woman can hinder one's rise in the organizational ladder, both women faculty and administrators appear to be inspired to overcome such discriminatory barriers to their advancement. Therefore, the reverse of hypotheses 5 and 7 was also found, as women faculty and administrators who perceived that their gender was a hindrance to advancement at their university were more likely than other women to intend to seek a higher administrative position. Rather than being discouraged by actual and perceived setbacks, the contemporary woman in academe may merely view them as an additional challenge that they will strive to overcome by working even harder.

Contrary to the hypothesis, women faculty reporting that gender is not a hindrance in employment advancement at their university are less likely to desire to seek an administrative position, compared to women faculty reporting that gender is a hindrance. Rather than women faculty being completely discouraged from seeking an administrative position if they perceived that their gender was a hindrance to professional advancement at their university, they may have actually been slightly encouraged, as fully 30 percent of women viewing their gender as a hindrance are at least open enough to the idea of seeking an administrative position to fall in the "neutral" category.

Women administrators who believe that their gender is a hindrance to administrative advancement are also more likely to express a desire for an upper administrative position, compared to those who believe that it is not a hindrance. Instead of perceptions of gender discrimination discouraging women administrators from planning to seek a higher administrative position, such discriminatory perceptions, may actually encourage some women administrators to pursue a higher position.

The group most likely to express no desire for administrative advancement was those women faculty unsure about whether gender was a benefit in administrative advancement. Perception that being a woman is a benefit to administrative advancement is a rare occurrence, and it exerts little effect on faculty women's intention to seek an administrative position. Concurrently, for women administrators, perception that being a woman is a benefit to administrative advancement has no significant impact over the intentions of women administrators to seek a higher position, and few women administrators perceive that their gender is a benefit to advancement.

There were other findings that completely contradict conventional wisdom. For example, family responsibilities do not appear to significantly deter women faculty or administrators from seeking more demanding administrative positions. Interestingly, conflict between job and home responsibilities was not much of a factor for faculty in seeking an administrative position, compared to women faculty who do not have such conflicts between job and home responsibilities. This hypothesis is rejected. As with faculty, no significant relationship existed for administrators between perception of conflict between job and home responsibilities and intention to seek an upper

administrative position. Women administrators are not discouraged from seeking a higher level administrative position if their job and home responsibilities are in conflict.

Regarding family responsibilities as a hindrance to assuming more administrative responsibilities, women faculty became more unsure about seeking an administrative position, though not completely turned off by the possibility. On the other hand, those women faculty rejecting the notion of a future administrative position outright were most likely to be found in the group that reported that family was not a hindrance to assuming more administrative responsibilities. Similarly, women administrators reporting that family responsibilities were not a hindrance were somewhat less likely to express intention to seek a higher administrative position. Those reporting the greatest problems with family responsibilities were more likely to report uncertainty about seeking a higher administrative position compared to other women administrators.

A large number of women faculty surveyed believed their university was family-friendly. Those believing that their university was not family-friendly were more likely to be unsure about their future plans, compared to those believing that their university was family-friendly. However, women faculty believing that their university is family-friendly are only slightly more likely to express intent to seek an administrative position, compared to women faculty believing that their university is not family-friendly. Therefore hypothesis 9 is rejected. For women administrators, there is no significant relationship between perception of a family-friendly organization and intention to seek a higher administrative position. Hypothesis 12 is rejected.

Ambition was a definite motivator for women faculty and administrators in their intention to seek career advancement. Ambition was considered in this research as a possible motivator for career advancement for women who would like to achieve administrative or upper administrative positions in higher education. Hypotheses 15 and 18 were both upheld, indicating that self-reports of how ambitious one is compared to one's peers were important to both faculty and administrators in motivating them to seek a higher administrative position.

A monetary motivation also appears to be at work, as hypotheses 21 and 24 were upheld, though the type of motivation differed for women faculty and administrators. Faculty women were more motivated by having a family financially dependent on them, while women administrators were more motivated for the sake of acquiring more money in their own right.

Faculty who have people financially dependent on them are more likely to seek an administrative position, compared to women faculty who do not have people dependent on them. This situational characteristic does appear to be a factor in encouraging professional advancement for faculty. However, for administrators, the hypothesis is rejected, as there are virtually no differences in intention to seek a higher administrative position across the categories of administrators in family financial dependency.

For administrators, acquiring more money was a motivational factor in seeking higher administrative positions. In fact, improvement of personal finance was the greatest financial motivator in seeking an upper level administrative position, compared to women administrators who are not motivated by money. Therefore this hypothesis is

accepted. Conversely, for women faculty, the modest relationship between these variables of money motivation and seeking an administrative position is not statistically significant and cannot be generalized to the population.

Hypothesis 16 was upheld, indicating that women faculty who are willing to deal with interpersonal conflict are more likely to seek an administrative position than those reluctant to handle such uncomfortable situations. The relationship between willingness to deal with interpersonal conflict and willingness to seek an administrative position can be generalized to the entire population of faculty. When examining women administrators, the hypothesis was rejected. Women administrators, who are unwilling to deal with interpersonal conflict, are not especially less likely to seek an upper administrative position, compared to women administrators who report a willingness to deal with conflict.

Another interpersonal relationship that is vital to consider in women faculty and women administrators considering career advancement is that of employee and superior. More than one-third of faculty and nearly one-third of administrators reported that they had conflicts with supervisors. The hypotheses posits that women faculty and administrators who report personality conflicts with their superiors are less likely to seek an administrative position or an upper administrative position compared to women faculty and administrators who report no conflict. Hypotheses 17 and 20 are rejected. This research indicates that there were few differences in intent to seek an administrative position and upper administrative position for faculty and administrators across groups reporting conflict or no conflict with supervisors. Indeed, there was only a slight

tendency for those faculty reporting the least conflict to be least likely to desire an administrative position. These findings suggest that conflicts with superiors do not deter women faculty from seeking an administrative position.

For administrators, the research suggests only a slight tendency for conflict with a superior to be associated with a greater willingness to seek a higher administrative position, though the relationship is not statistically significant. Only 5% of women administrators reported that they “very often” experience conflicts with their superiors. However, even comparing those sometimes experiencing conflict with those rarely reporting conflict, there was only a slight tendency for conflict to be associated with a willingness to seek a higher administrative position. Table 35 is a summary of these findings.

Table 37

Summary of Testing Results

	FACULTY	ADMINISTRATORS
GLASS CEILING EFFECTS	H2 reversed- adversity experience promotes upward mobility; H5 reversed- perceive gender hindrance promotes upward mobility.	H3, H4 reversed- adversity perceived or experienced promotes upward mobility; H7 reversed- perceive gender hindrance promotes upward mobility desire.
FAMILY EFFECTS	No effects.	No effects.
PERSONALITY TRAITS EFFECTS	H15 upheld- ambition promotes upward mobility; H16 upheld- comfort with conflict promotes upward mobility desire.	H18 upheld- ambition promotes upward mobility desire.
MONETARY EFFECTS	H21 upheld- a financially dependent family promotes upward mobility desire.	H24 upheld- money motivation promotes upward mobility desire.

Conclusions

This research is intended to be an addition to the literature on the advancement of women in administrative roles in higher education. It provides depth to the current body of knowledge since there is little documentation regarding women in higher education achieving administrative positions particularly in the Deep South. Based on the empirical data of this research, I cannot conclude that most women faculty would seek an administrative position even if they perceived their university to have paramount working

conditions and believed there to be no barriers in their attempts to achieve career advancements. In fact, the overwhelming 72% indicating an unwillingness to seek an administrative position with 17% unsure about committing in the future to acquire one even if they believed their university to be family-friendly, indicates that most faculty prefer to be on the front line in preparing students for their professional careers. Having administrative duties could be interpreted by this study's faculty participants as them being a mere "paper pusher" rather than a meaningful contributor at their university.

This research appears to be in direct contrast to much of the literature which describes a transparent glass ceiling that prevents women from aspiring to seek an administrative position at their universities. According to Cotter *et al* (2001), some of the women perceive not only a glass ceiling, but a "concrete ceiling." The glass ceiling as reported, similar to the research presented by Powell and Butterfield (2002), is transparent and strong enough to prevent women and people of color from positioning themselves to move up in the management hierarchy. As a result, promotion decisions for top management positions tend to favor white and or male applicants. However, this research suggests that factors in career advancement such as ambition and finances are just as important to women as they are to men. Further, against conventional wisdom, issues surrounding sex discrimination are of little importance to women in the Deep South in their quest to advance their career in higher education.

Although the findings of this research seem to be contradictory with the literature on the glass ceiling and the hypotheses for this research, this study does indicate that though most women faculty and administrators believe that men are the primary decision-

makers of the university, those women who experienced barriers were not deterred from seeking career advancement. This presents a picture of optimism for acquiring more diversity in higher education administration in the future and also illustrates determination by some women faculty and administrators to be included in the decision making process. Women in both groups of respondents, faculty and administrators, who rated themselves as ambitious appear to be resilient and not dissuaded by barriers in seeking administrative positions regardless of obstacles including family-work conflicts.

This research also illustrates a correlation between acquiring money and motivation for women administrators achieving upper level administrative positions. It appears contemporary women administrators are motivated by money, a predictor more readily identifiable in the past with men. What this implies is that women administrators in this study would seek career advancement into roles which carry upper administrative responsibilities if compensation is appealing and equitable to that of men**.** In fact, forty-six percent of women administrators in this study are inspired to advance their careers when considering financial compensation for job responsibilities of upper administrative positions. Regardless of whether women were simply wanting more money or having a need for more, appropriate compensation for added responsibilities is a major consideration for women who seek career advancements.

Though the majority of women faculty in this study indicated that they would not seek an administrative position even if the climate at their university was conducive for advancement, the fact remains that there are others who indicated interest in advancing their careers. For those women faculty and women administrators who have experienced

barriers and still would pursue administrative or upper administrative positions, according to the literature, the playing field is not level. The College and University Professional Association for Human Resources (2002) has suggested that this type of atmosphere in higher education mirrors the rest of society regarding gender and racial inequities in upper administrative positions. The factors that deter women from advancing to upper level positions in academia are frightening, especially since the number of women with advanced degrees in the Deep South is comparable to that of men. According to the U.S. Census Bureau's data (2000f), this means that there should be as many women as there are men in the pool to obtain key administrative posts at colleges and universities.

Though most women faculty and administrators in this study acknowledge they would likely remain at their current university, they believe that men continue to be the primary decision-makers for the university. The problem, according to Charles and Davies (2000) is that managerial cultures continue to support male cultures, with the belief that males have the greater ability to manage, to control and to exert authority than women. Many supervisors and education boards still believe that power and authority are best when wielded by men, and this makes it even more difficult for women to obtain administrative positions in certain areas. As Hensel (1991) argued, the climate that exists on many college and university campuses that continues to prevent women from achieving their full potential must change if higher education is to resolve issues of faculty diversity and the impending shortage of qualified teachers.

In general, the belief is that women do not experience equity in the selection process for administrative positions in higher education for a number of reasons. Chief Executive Officers of universities in southern states are typically white, middle-aged (40-55) males. To level the playing field for women to attain administrative positions, many myths and stereotypes surrounding personality and leadership weaknesses would have to be eliminated. For men, the "good ol' boy" stereotypical system of male patronization should also be eliminated. According to Heilman (1995) in studying the consequences of being in the out-group, the stereotypes outweigh the contributions made by the members of the out-group and ultimately negatively affect the awards received by the out-group. Perhaps the women faculty and administrators in this study who believe there is male dominance in administrative roles, however perceive no barriers and choose not to seek administrative or upper administrative positions are actually discouraged by this exclusionary practice and have become somewhat apathetic in considering advancement choices.

This study offers empirical data that will, hopefully, affect and inspire decision-making relative to the advancement of qualified women to administration positions at Deep South universities. It is also desired that these institutions, as diversity programs are developed, be inclusive of women who aspire to achieve in the university administration arena. Consideration should also be made of the importance of family-friendly policies to alleviate serious home/work challenges for women who would consider the additional responsibilities of administration. In this study those reporting the greatest problems with family responsibilities were more likely to report uncertainty

about seeking a higher administrative position compared to other women administrators. This implies a need to examine policies closer and to continue to develop means to allow women to achieve administrative goals.

Accomplishing true diversity in higher education administrative roles ultimately ensures countless benefits of having created an environment purely for the exchange of knowledge, ideas and talents. Including women in higher education decision-making positions would ultimately amount to a mutual engaging atmosphere for all, including faculty, administrators, higher education boards and more importantly for society's most important resource, the students.

Recommendations

The following recommendations were developed for universities based upon survey responses for this study and a review of the literature which examines issues surrounding barriers that women face in achieving administrative positions.

- Examine practices and policies of granting tenure to faculty to ensure fairness and inclusiveness toward women faculty who potentially may consider administrative roles.
- Examine promotion practices and policies to ensure fairness in advancing women through the professor ranks and into the pool of administration.
- Provide management enrichment programs that would include training and dissemination of information on topics such as personality conflict resolution.

- Examine current diversity and family-friendly policies periodically at universities to ensure they are updated and continue to meet the needs of the university.
- Approach talented women regarding the benefits of an administrative position who otherwise may not consider it.
- Establish a mentor program for women faculty and administrators.
- Examine salaries to ensure equity in compensation between men and women. Adjust women's salaries that are inconsistent with those of men who perform similar duties or have the same rank.
- Maintain information on the climate of the campus toward women and issues involving stereotyping and sex discrimination.

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APPENDIX A

SURVEY COVER LETTER

A. Survey Cover Letter

Hello, my name is Judy Meredith, and I am doing a study of women in academe. I am an employee at Jackson State University in Jackson, Mississippi, and am doing this study as part of my requirements for a Ph.D. at Mississippi State University. My dissertation committee and the Political Science Department at Mississippi State University have approved my research titled, "The Glass Ceiling: An Analysis of Women in Administrative Capacities in Public Colleges and Universities in the Deep South." As part of my research, I am interviewing women who are professors, associate professors and administrators at public universities in various southern states. This study will attempt to identify "glass ceiling" barriers that have hindered women's ability to acquire top administrative positions in higher education in the Deep South. It will also examine other reasons for decreased advancement opportunities for women such as family/job constraints and required mentor relationships.

This study will provide resourceful data for colleges and universities in the future as administrators examine policies regarding the recruitment and promotion of women. It will also assist universities in the implementation of diversity programs or the assessment of effectiveness of current practices or programs geared toward gaining parity for women at their institutions.

Your answers will be kept completely confidential. Your participation is voluntary, you may discontinue the survey at any time, and if you feel a question is too personal you need not answer it. It will only take about ten minutes to complete the survey. I would greatly appreciate your help in completing this survey, and returning it to me in the postage paid envelope. The return envelopes will be coded for follow-up correspondence for those who have not responded. In such cases, additional requests and questionnaires will be mailed to those individuals. To maintain confidentiality, all identifiers including names, addresses and survey code numbers will be de-linked immediately upon return of the questionnaire. All identifiers will also be destroyed for those who decline to participate in the study.

If you choose to participate in the survey and would like to receive a copy of the results, please email your request to me and I will provide you with findings from the research when they become available. If you have questions regarding the survey, you may email me at judy.a.meredith@jsums.edu or call me at (601) 672-3897. Thank you in advance for your cooperation in my research project.

Sincerely,

Judy A. Meredith

APPENDIX B

SURVEY INSTRUMENT

B Survey Instrument

For each of the following questions, please tell me whether you strongly agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree or strongly disagree with it.

(Answer this question if you are NOT an administrator)

1. I expect to seek an administrative position at this university in the next few years.

Strongly agree Agree Neither Agree Nor Disagree Disagree Strongly Disagree

(Answer this question if you ARE an administrator)

2. I expect to seek a higher-level administrative position at this university in the next few years.

Strongly agree Agree Neither Agree Nor Disagree Disagree Strongly Disagree

(EVERYONE answers ALL of the following questions)

3. I am very satisfied with my job.

Strongly agree Agree Neither Agree Nor Disagree Disagree Strongly Disagree

4. I am satisfied with my status at the university.

Strongly agree Agree Neither Agree Nor Disagree Disagree Strongly Disagree

5. My professional goal is to become a vice president, dean or department head.

Strongly agree Agree Neither Agree Nor Disagree Disagree Strongly Disagree

6. I feel that I can achieve my goal of becoming an administrator (or a higher level administrator) at this university.

Strongly agree Agree Neither Agree Disagree Strongly Disagree Not Applicable

7. I am likely to stay at this university.

Strongly agree Agree Neither Agree Nor Disagree Disagree Strongly Disagree

8. I feel like I'm in conflict/tension with job and home responsibilities.

Strongly agree Agree Neither Agree Nor Disagree Disagree Strongly Disagree

9. Do you believe that the university where you work is family-friendly in its practices and policies?

Strongly agree Agree Neither Agree Nor Disagree Disagree Strongly Disagree

10. Do you feel that your voice can be heard at faculty meetings?

Strongly agree Agree Neither Agree Nor Disagree Disagree Strongly Disagree

11. Do you think there are barriers for women seeking upper administration positions at your institution?

Strongly agree Agree Neither Agree Nor Disagree Disagree Strongly Disagree

12. Have you experienced a barrier in seeking administration positions?

Strongly agree Agree Neither Agree Nor Disagree Disagree Strongly Disagree

13. I feel like my ethnicity is a hindrance in employment advancement at the university?

Strongly agree Agree Neither Agree Nor Disagree Disagree Strongly Disagree

14. I feel like my ethnicity is a benefit in employment advancement at the university?

Strongly agree Agree Neither Agree Nor Disagree Disagree Strongly Disagree

15. I feel like my gender is a hindrance in employment advancement at the university?

Strongly agree Agree Neither Agree Nor Disagree Disagree Strongly Disagree

16. I feel like my gender is a benefit in employment advancement at the university?

Strongly agree Agree Neither Agree Nor Disagree Disagree Strongly Disagree

17. Do you have a mentor at your university?

Yes No

18. My mentor takes the responsibility for shaping the attitude and the relationships within our university.

Strongly agree Agree Neither Agree Nor Disagree Disagree Strongly Disagree

19. My mentor provides me with continuous feedback to help me achieve my professional goals.

Strongly agree Agree Neither Agree Nor Disagree Disagree Strongly Disagree

20. My mentor encourages individual high achievement.

Strongly agree Agree Neither Agree Nor Disagree Disagree Strongly Disagree

21. Do you think that males at the university primarily decide administrative issues?

Strongly agree Agree Neither Agree Nor Disagree Disagree Strongly Disagree

For each of the following questions, please circle one of the responses:

22. To what extent would family responsibilities keep you from acquiring a job with more important administrative responsibilities?

Very much Somewhat Not at all

23. How willing are you to deal with conflicts with other people.

Very willing Somewhat willing Not willing

24. Compared to your colleagues, how ambitious are you?

More ambitious Equally as ambitious Not as ambitious

25. To what extent do you have people who are financially dependent on you?

Very much Somewhat Not at all

26. How often do you experience personality conflicts with your current supervisor on the job?

Very often From time to time Rarely

27. To what extent is acquiring money an important motivation in your life?

Very much Somewhat Not at all

And now for some final questions.

28. Describe your university (circle one):

Comprehensive Research Doctoral Regional

Non-doctoral Granting Urban

29. Is your university a Historically Black College and University (circle one):

Yes No

30. What is your educational attainment? Please circle one.

Bachelors Degree Masters Degree Professional Degree Doctorate Degree

31. How many years have you worked in academe?

Under 10 yrs.	10-15 yrs.	15-20 yrs.	20-25 yrs.
25-30 yrs.	30-35 yrs.	Over 35 yrs.	

32. What is your academic discipline? (Circle the response most appropriate)

Humanities	Social Sciences	Natural Sciences or Math
Education	Business	Engineering
Agriculture/Forestry		Health Services

33. Circle the nature of your job responsibilities:

Associate Professor	Full Professor	Program Director
Department Head	Dean	Vice President
Provost	President	

34. Your Age Range: 25-34____ 35-44____ 45-54 ____55-64____ 65-74____ 75 and Older____

35. What is your race or ethnic origin? (circle one category)

White (non-Hispanic)	Black (includes African-Americans)
Hispanic	Asian and Asian-American
Native American	Other

36. What is your marital status? (circle one)

Single, never married	Currently married	Separated
Divorced	Widowed	

37. Do you have any minor children? (circle yes or no)

Yes No

38. If so, how many minor children do you have? (indicate number)_____

THE FOLLOWING ARE OPTIONAL QUESTIONS, WHERE YOU CAN PROVIDE MORE DETAILED WRITTEN RESPONSES ABOUT VARIOUS SUBJECTS:

39. Do you experience any work-family conflicts? If so, what are they?

_____

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40. What are the greatest challenges you face as a female professor or administrator?

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41. What are some of the barriers that you have experienced as a woman in performing your job duties?

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42. How can the university better attain diversity on your campus?

_____

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IF YOU DESIRE A COPY OF THE FINDINGS OF MY RESEARCH, PLEASE PRINT YOUR NAME AND MAILING ADDRESS ON A BLANK SHEET OF PAPER, AND RETURN IT WITH YOUR COMPLETED SURVEY. ALL IDENTIFYING INFORMATION IS BEING "DELINKED" FROM THE COMPLETED SURVEYS IN ORDER TO ESTABLISH ANONYMITY OF EVERYONE'S RESPONSES.

APPENDIX C

LIST OF RESPONDENTS' UNIVERSITIES

C List of Respondents' Universities

Alabama

Alabama A & M University
Alabama State University
Alabama University of Birmingham
Alabama University of Huntsville
Athens State College
Auburn University Main Campus
Auburn University Montgomery
Jacksonville State University
Montevallo University
North Alabama University
South Alabama University
Troy State University, Dothan
Troy State University Main Campus
Troy State University, Montgomery
West Alabama University of Livingston

Georgia

Albany State University
Armstrong Atlantic State University
Augusta State University
Columbus State University
Fort Valley State University
North Georgia C & State University
Georgia University at Athens
Georgia Institute Atlanta
Savannah State University
Southern State Polytechnic State University

Louisiana

Delta State University
Louisiana State at Baton Rouge
Louisiana State at Monroe
Grambling State University
Lafayette
Kennesaw State University
Nicholls State University
North East Louisiana University
Northwestern State University of LA
Southeastern Louisiana University
Southern University Baton Rouge
Southern University New Orleans
Southwestern Louisiana University

Mississippi

Alcorn State University
Delta State University
Jackson State University
Mississippi State University
Mississippi University Women
Mississippi Valley State University
University of Mississippi
Southern Mississippi University

South Carolina

University of South Carolina at Aiken
University of South Carolina at Columbia
University of South Carolina at Spartanburg
South Carolina State College