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CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE CAREER AND MANAGERIAL DEVELOPMENT
OF WOMEN: THE IMPORTANCE OF SELECTED COMPONENTS
AS PERCEIVED BY A GROUP OF COMMUNITY
COLLEGE FEMALE EDUCATORS

by
Daniel A. Jaksen

A Dissertation
Submitted to the
Faculty of The Graduate College
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the
Degree of Doctor of Education
Department of Educational Leadership

Western Michigan University
Kalamazoo, Michigan
April 1985
The purpose of this research was to determine the perceived importance of factors which comprised the major components of a leadership training program developed exclusively for female community college managerial aspirants. The study was undertaken to determine if any differences existed among six components, perceived by the participants as contributing to their career development. Comparisons were also made to ascertain if a difference existed in the importance of each of the components between those who have advanced in their careers since participating in the leadership program and those who have not advanced.

Data were collected from 251 (82%) female participants of the leadership program, "Leaders for the 80s," for the academic years of 1981-82, 1982-83 and 1983-84. Among the six components of (1) self-esteem, (2) knowledge of community college issues, (3) knowledge of management and leadership concepts, (4) mentoring, (5) networking, and (6) a special work project, the participants held differentiated views. Differences in importance were found between 12 of 15 pairs of components. However, self-esteem and knowledge of management and leadership concepts were found to be the most important components. The women reporting advancements in their careers also perceived that
self-esteem and knowledge of management and leadership concepts were more important to their career development.

As a growing segment of the workforce, aspiring female managers need to integrate and gain acceptance into the traditional organizational domains of men. To aid in achieving this objective, managerial and career development programs will continue to be offered in a variety of ways. The results of this study contain important information for planners of future programs. By knowing the extent to which factors contained in such programs influence the participants, better determinations can be made about content and where time and subject matter should be concentrated and emphasized.
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Western Michigan University

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Management training is now commonplace in many organizations and is increasingly available to those aspiring to managerial careers. Its delivery is structured in various configurations, often as part of formal professional and career development programs. Career development programs have become an accepted function of contemporary human resource management and management training is a primary method by which aspiring managers and executives develop their potential as they progress in their careers.

While many management training programs have come into existence Fitzgerald and Shullman (1984) complained of a void relative to the training of female managerial aspirants and expressed the need for programs designed specifically for women. These authors argued that there are too few considering the enormous influx of women into the workforce.

A large volume of literature has been written about the problems of women moving ahead in organizations (Loring and Wells, 1972; Hig-genson and Quick, 1975; Hennig and Jardim, 1977; Larwood and Wood, 1977; Miller, 1976; Josefowitz, 1980; Stern, 1981; among others). These problems are prevalent in all types of organizations and are especially common in business and education.

White (1983) agreed with Loring and Wells (1972) who wrote that in order to become good managers, women must receive similar and appropriate training available to that of comparably qualified men.
To obtain the support viewed necessary for success in management positions, women have often had to seek out or develop exclusive institutes and/or seminars for themselves.

Whether these seminars or workshops are exclusive to women or not, the topics are seemingly endless. A review of the American Management Association's schedule of seminars for 1984-85 is representative of many training organizations. Lindquist (1978) referred to the regular advertising of workshops and conferences in the Chronicle of Higher Education as a "cafeteria line" for administrative development. The Third Annual Conference on Women and Organizations' seminar (1984) entitled, "Developing Professional Women," sponsored by the Department of Management of Simmons College, serves as another example of such efforts. Topics commonly include leadership and management concepts, self assessment, knowledge of specific issues, and strategies on how to improve personal performance and succeed in organizations. This study deals with a program designed for aspiring female educators that had such an agenda.

Problem Statement

The purpose of this study was to investigate the differences in importance among the concepts which comprised the major components of a particular leadership training program. Specifically, it was intended to determine the differences among the participants' perceived importance of: (a) self-esteem, (b) knowledge of community college issues, (c) knowledge of management and leadership concepts, (d) networking, (e) mentoring, and (f) a special work project.
The perceptions were those of professional community college women who participated in a leadership training program entitled, "Leaders for the 80s." The program was a three year federally funded project sponsored by the American Association of Women in Community and Junior Colleges and the League for Innovation in the Community College. It was conducted annually and involved three different groups of women in each of three academic years: 1980-1981, 1981-1982 and 1982-1983.

Also investigated were the perceived differences of the components' importance between those women who reported career advancement and those who did not. Specifically, answers to the following questions were sought:

Questions

1. With regard to the contribution made to career development, what is the difference in perceived importance between the six major components of the training program: (a) self-esteem, (b) knowledge of community college issues, (c) knowledge of management and leadership concepts, (d) networking, (e) mentoring, and (f) a special work project?

2. Is there a difference in the importance attributed to self-esteem between those participants who have reported career advancement and those who have not?

3. Is there a difference in the importance attributed to knowledge of community college issues between those participants who have reported career advancement and those who have not?
4. Is there a difference in the importance attributed to knowledge of management and leadership concepts between those participants who have reported career advancement and those who have not?

5. Is there a difference in the importance attributed to networking between those participants who have reported career advancement and those who have not?

6. Is there a difference in the importance attributed to mentoring between those participants who have reported career advancement and those who have not?

7. Is there a difference in the importance attributed to the special work project between those participants who have reported career advancement and those who have not?

The reader should note that this investigation was not intended to evaluate the training program itself. Of interest were the major components that comprised the program. These factors were ones which many of the participants may have already experienced through their formal education or life experiences, including experiences in the workplace. However, by emphasizing these components in a formal way, this training program combined previous and current life experiences with factors which could equip the participants to better achieve their career goals.

After formal exposure to these factors in this training program, several years have passed for the participants in which opportunity may have availed itself to enhance the practical application of the concepts consistent with the career development goals of the participants. It was the intent of this study to determine the role
these components played in this career development.

Significance and Need for the Study

The study adds to the body of knowledge about about women's careers, especially in management. As Hansen and Rapoza (1978) emphasized, there is a need for information about career development of women. They stated this need has been accentuated by national and international interest in the psychology and development of women in many sectors, especially education and work.

The increasing numbers of women moving into management positions will require development of appropriate managerial skills which will be met not only by formal educational institutions and corporations but also independent seminars, workshops and training programs of various designs. The content and delivery systems of these program designs will be vital in the determination of success for these women. This study was intended to shed some light on this subject by examining the importance of selected components in such a design.

Changing Times

Because change is occurring so rapidly, the conceptual framework upon which career development and management training have been based requires retrospection. Jelinek (1980) suggested that a need existed to rethink many of the concepts and theories, concerning women and careers. Osipow (1973) concurred and professed that theory itself is imperfect and constantly changing. He advised that efforts are continually being made to improve and refine practices that will lead
to more effective programs.

Many career development theories and practices are dated and related to the economic period resulting from the influences of the industrial revolution and a production oriented society. This time period included cultural conditions and socialization processes that resulted in limited attention to women and their careers.

Managerial and Organizational Change

The times are calling for new managerial approaches to match changes occurring in organizations. Some writers contend that these approaches make women particularly suitable for management positions (Sargent, 1981). Kanter (1984) commented that, "Historians will say that between 1960 and 1990, the American corporation changed its shape" (p. 40). Nieva and Gutek (1981) wrote about Yankelevich's support of this view. They noted that he called attention to the changed meaning of work, attributing it to the "new breed" of American worker who increasingly included more ambitious women.

Naisbett (1982) wrote that America is in a transformation period; a transitory period with an emphasis on an information society and with a corresponding gradual reduction of dependence on a production oriented economy. Earlier, Drucker (1974) emphasized the growing influence of what he labeled, "the knowledge worker" in an expanding service oriented economy. This position was substantiated by Michaels (1984) when she reported that in 1950, 41% of the work force was involved in production; the remaining 59% worked in service jobs. In 1981, 28% of workers produced goods and 72% held service jobs.
Management styles accompanying this new emphasis are also changing (Owens, 1982). Past bureaucratic and hierarchical organizational designs have ingrained managerial behavior tendencies such as competitiveness, aggressiveness, and individual performance, which according to Sargent (cited in Berman, 1984), no longer serve to achieve optimal managerial and work performance.

These behavioral tendencies, suggested Sargent, are male oriented and can be counter-productive when over-emphasized. She stated that these tendencies are giving way to new values such as openness, trust and self-awareness. The attention being given to male and female work characteristics are contributing forces which are resulting in new opportunities for women.

Referring to the works of several authors (Rand and Tipton; Bem; and Allgeier), Nieva and Gutek (1981) dealt with this underlying dimension of male and female characteristics. Rand and Tipton, according to Nieva and Gutek (1981), suggested that career oriented women expand their definition of femininity to include some of the male traits in the workplace while retaining their feminine qualities. Bem (cited in Nieva and Gutek, 1981) supported this contention and reported that career women possess both feminine and masculine characteristics in their personalities and labeled them androgynous. Allgeier (cited in Nieva and Gutek, 1981) compared androgynous and sex-typed persons and found that college women place more importance on competence in the workplace than the female stereotype. These findings supported Sargent's (1981) prediction that the successful manager of the future will be one who espouses a blending of male and female traits into what she called the "androgynous manager" (p. 199).
Developing Female Managers

Development of the career oriented professional female into a competent manager will continue to be a focus of attention. By acknowledging the potential contributions of women managers to organizations, a study such as this one contributes to identification of elements useful to women in advancing their careers which of course, is subsequently of value to organizations.

Brown and Brooks (1984) remarked, "To respond effectively to the diverse career development needs of individuals in our society, we need sound theoretical and conceptual frameworks that have proven and tested practical applications" (p. 4). Champion (1979) concurred when he pointed out that additional research on women was needed to dispel the myths, prejudices, and inaccuracies about women and their career ambitions as managers.

Indeed, Kaplan, Secor, and Tinsley (1984) placed the need for research on women in management as an outstanding emerging issue in higher education. They urged studies that would track, over time, the progress being made on this issue. These authors declared a need for more useful information that can be used to shape institutional policies and that will yield other information about the factors that promote career advancement.

Specifically, this research was intended to contribute to the literature by determining which concepts contained in the training program in this study were most valuable, and contributed most to the professional life of the participants. It may aid in future decisions about what to include or how to deliver such training efforts.
The Emergence of Theory

The following chapter on the review of literature addresses an array of theories and opinions related to career development. A researcher in this field is exposed to a plethora of material. One is quickly challenged to develop a coherent understanding of the many perspectives that have been spun out of interest in the career development of workers in general and, in the case of this study, women in particular. Montross (1981) remarked, "We do not have at the present time a truly comprehensive theory of career development" (p. xiv). Brooks (1984) agreed and stated, "the field has no common core or focus" (p. 389). Hansen and Rapoza (1978), while advocating specific attention to women, added, "A comprehensive, fully developed and tested theory of female career development is yet to be formulated" (p. xvii).

This research, then, was based on emerging schools of thought, practices and knowledge. The main element dealt with in the study was management training, specifically for women. The specific career development intervention in this study served as the basis for the formulation of the research questions. The subsequent hypotheses were derived from a number of events, practices, models and other related theories.

Terminology

Brooks (1984) related the diversity of activities included under the label of career development. She stated that terms are dispar-
ately used and lack clear definition. She identified as examples: "career counseling, career planning, career development, career pathing, management development, and career management" (p. 389). Other recent publications can be shown to reinforce this point.


Adult, human, vocational and life/stage development theories are other schools of thought which contain many of the central propositions of career development theorists and share the disparate use of terms. The absence of precision in nomenclature and definitions among writers is cause for caution to readers.

Specifically in this study, the reader is alerted to the definition given to career advancement. It is defined as that change in job assignment or duties that reflected an increase in level of responsibility, status, or salary.

Some Consensus

However, some major consensus does seem to have emerged from the developing theories on career development. It no longer is viewed as a single event occurring at a particular point in one's life. Brooks (1984) succinctly identified some of the centrality of career develop-
ment. She credited Super (1984) with the acceptance of the notion that it is now considered a life-long process of developing and implementing a self-concept. Parsons, Holland, Bordin, and Roe, each in his or her own approach, is credited by Brooks with reasoning that career development includes efforts at matching personalities and skills to tasks and jobs in careers. The developmental process includes establishing goals and activities necessary to attain them. Brooks attributed to Krumboltz's social learning theory of career choice and Tiedeman's decision-making model, the identification of the multitude of personal and environmental variables that influence decisions about career options.

Miller's (1979) views were consistent with these theorists. He stated that, until recently, a dominating belief was that career decisions were made early in life and were rather firmly fixed by formal education and experience. He noted the presence of the era of multiple careers which is dispelling the prevailing notion of one life with one career.

The definition of career planning put forth by Miller included all processes required for decision-making relative to the direction for a career and all of the specific jobs that made up the career. Emphasis should not be on a specific job but on the general direction that is growth-oriented and fulfilling to the worker for a period of time. Self assessment of interests, skills, goal setting, and values are major components according to Miller.
Emerging Thought

Under the premise that career development is still a relatively new, dynamic and evolving field, Hennig (1970), in her dissertation on career development of women executives, raised a concern about the influence of occupations themselves upon the growth and changeability of personalities. She stated, "not only should we be concerned with the ways in which personality will form the career but also in what ways the career and other life experiences will cause the person to change, and hence a whole new chain of events to occur" (Appendix I p. 3).

Because of dynamic changes occurring in society, Hanson and Rapoza (1978) called attention to the question of the extent to which existing theoretical formulations have been based upon the career patterns of men. While some of the more prominent writers of career development have not necessarily ignored considerations peculiar to women (Holland, 1973; Super, 1984), their earlier writings require reconsideration in the light of more recent activism concerning women's issues of today. This inspection appears to be occurring as Hansen and Rapoza noted that Super's latest writings have begun to expand and are more inclusive of women.

There are other calls for updating the study of women and career development. Working in a related family of thought, Desjardins (1978) called for a separate theory in adult development for women. Her research suggested that while many similarities in adult development existed between men and women, the differences seemed to center
around family demands and societal expectations. She believed they were not adequately addressed in existing adult development theory.

Specific to the questions raised in this study, Kaplan, Secor, and Tinsley (1984) remarked that while research has focused on women in management in recent years, it has not yielded information that can be used to shape institutional policies and practices that support the advancement of women and minorities. They concluded, "What are needed are longitudinal studies of women and men . . . in different types of institutions . . . that will yield detailed information about the factors that promote and hinder advancement" (p. 87).

The increased attention to developmental theory of women and its application to managerial work is revealed in more detail in the following chapter. The chapter reports on past literature as well as contemporary writings by authors and researchers who have contributed to the aspect of career development and, specifically, management training and its application to women.

Outline of the Study

Chapter I introduces the background factors which give rise to the interest in this topic. Seven questions are raised which serve as the foundation of this investigation. This chapter also discusses related theoretical background within which the study of the management training, the focus of this research, is lodged.

Chapter II contains a review of literature concerning career development and women, the changing role of women in society, speci-
ically, as managers in organizations. It identifies selected variables which were thought to contribute to the successful performance and career advancement of women. Chapter II also contains hypotheses related to each of the previously stated questions about this research topic.

Chapter III describes the methodology and procedures used to gather data. It identifies the statistical methods which were used to determine the extent of the differences among the variables. The findings are reported in Chapter IV. Chapter V summarizes the study and presents conclusions, implications and suggests further areas of inquiry.
CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The goal of this research was to investigate the differences in importance among some of the factors which were thought to contribute to the career development of aspiring females community college educators. The factors specific to this investigation were identified through a leadership training program entitled, "Leaders for the 80s." The program was designed to enhance the development of these aspirants and increase the probability of acquiring higher level administrative positions in community colleges.

To provide a background for this study, the literature review gave consideration to these factors as specific management training components within the broader context of "women and career development." It also presented pertinent societal conditions which have contributed to the identification of the variables contained in this study. Finally, this literature review provided support for, and stated research hypotheses about the importance of the training components and the women who participated in the leadership training program.

Historical Overview of Career Development Thought

Early schema of career development emphasized vocational guidance and choices based on the needs of the marketplace (Brown and Brooks, 1984). Emphasis was on the study of occupations to meet the economic demands of America as a growing industrial nation.
Brown and Brooks identified Parson's (1909) early conceptual framework as the first effort to incorporate consideration of individual aptitudes, interests, skills and values with requirements and conditions of work. But it was not until the emergence from the Great Depression that the psychological aspects of matching the individual and an occupation came into being. This approach came about through the development and use of a number of what was then newly created psychometrically sophisticated measurement tests. However, as Brown (1984a) noted, few considered sex as a vital component.

The concern of career counseling was emphasizing occupational choices for white males. This emphasis gave way to the civil rights and women's rights movements of the 1960's and 1970's. Career development thought began to include the circumstances in which minority groups found themselves as they increased their numbers and movement into the workforce (Brown and Brooks, 1984).

In their presentation of career development evolution, Brown and Brooks (1984) commented on the current state of affairs:

Moreover, career development theorists are challenging corporations to develop new concern for the career development of their workers. As greater numbers change careers at mid-life, it becomes evident that career development services and programs are needed throughout the life cycle. (p. 4)

Long available in schools and universities, career counseling and development programs are more recently available in corporations, independent agencies and associations. Despite some early efforts in the 1920's, Brooks (1984) indicated that the majority of workplace sponsored career development programs have occurred since 1970. Evidence of the substantial amount of management training that existed
to aid in career development was found in Loomer's (1983) dissertation. Loomer highlighted the recent growth in "out-of-house" management training seminar activity and its high credibility among and within corporations.

Career Development in Organizations

Career development is representative of new services being provided by contemporary human resource management. One major reason for this growth, according to Miller (1979), was the transformation of this country's economy previously based on a production orientation to one of information processing. This change is requiring organizations to be more responsive by showing concern for the training and development of its employees. Other reasons according to Beach, (1980) include efforts to effect equal employment opportunities, enhance quality of work life, avoid obsolescence of people-skills and to improve overall personnel utilization and performance.

Organizations committing themselves to career development activities are increasing and include many that are well known. Cross (1983) identified major corporations such as Dupont, Exxon, General Electric and IBM as major companies which have been recognized for the effectiveness of their executive development activities.

Evidence of anticipated growth is supported by data which appeared in The November, 1983 issue of The ASTD National Report. The report included results of a telephone poll conducted by Research and Forecasts, Inc. on education and training. One hundred and eight senior executives from Fortune 1300 companies were randomly sampled.
It was found that 74% had a training and development function and that 60% stated they plan to expand the function in the next three years.

These new initiatives by organizations, public and private, have introduced some new variables to be considered in future formulations of career development theory. Some of those variables are included in the leadership training program involved in this study and are the focus of this research.

Career Development Theory and Women

Hansen and Rapoza (1978) pointed out what they believe to be a growing dilemma about career development of women. They expressed concern over the degree to which existing theory is based on male career patterns. Vetter (1978) emphasized, "women as workers have been perceived as individually transient and collectively insignificant due to the type and level of jobs available to them in our society" (p. 3). A review of career development theory by Brooks, Brown and Associates (1984) provided an enlightening view of how writers have treated the differentiation between men and women and their career development.

Brown (1984b), writing on trait and factor theory, which was an outgrowth of Parson's (1909) earlier framework, maintained that this approach, "is as applicable to women and minorities as it is to white males" (p. 28). However, trait-measuring instruments tended to discriminate against groups whose culture differs from that of the white middle class (Brown, 1984c). Brown contended that testing
continues to experience constraints because of ethical, moral and legal considerations relative to potential sex bias.

In addressing women's issues, Roe (1984) admitted inadequacies in the development of her psychologically based occupational classification system. She stated that the inadequacies were even greater today because of the increasing number of women in the workforce.

Bordin (1984) presented ideas that emphasized the interaction of personality and environmental conditions which continually influenced career development choices. Of seven propositions put forth, one dealt with the role of identity development. Admittedly ambiguous, Bordin attributed the propositional vagueness to changing ideas about sex roles and identity. However, in doing so Bordin recognized the impact of cultural conditioning which he stated was equally, if not more, important than the undeviating role of biological differences associated with sex differentiation.

Weinrach (1984) discussed a view of Holland's (1973) theory and gave particular attention to females. He stated that while Holland's theory is generally looked on as having universal application without regard to sex, race or age, it continues to generate some debate over sexist charges. These charges flow from his Self-Directed Search (SDS) instrument on which scores of women show divergent patterns from men. Weinrich pointed out in defense of Holland that reliable instruments such as the SDS reflect the currency of an individual's interests at the time of testing. He suggested, "That many women and men respond in traditional ways is not an indictment of the instruments but rather a reflection of the cultural influences on their
development" (p. 74).

Ginzberg's (1984) attention to women was limited to a modest research effort involving college women which resulted in no generalizations. His contribution rested on identifying and later modifying three basic elements of occupational choice: (a) process, (b) dynamics of the process, and (c) compromise as an essential aspect of every choice.

Influenced by his extensive work in human resources and manpower needs, Ginzberg reformulated his thoughts and restated, "Occupational choice is a lifelong process of decision-making . . . . This leads them [workers] to reassess repeatedly . . . the fit between their changing career goals and the realities of the world of work" (p. 180).

Ginzberg's view was reinforced by Miller (1979) when he stated that until recently, a dominating belief was that career decisions were made early in life and were rather firmly fixed by formal education and experience. He noted the presence of the era of multiple careers which is dispelling the prevailing notion of one life with one career.

In the entire process of rethinking his theoretical foundations, the extent to which Ginzberg gave specific attention to women may be inferred from his statement, "All Americans have more opportunity to develop their potential" (p. 191).

Super (1984), like Ginzberg, pursued a line of thought that dealt with developmental stages which occur throughout a life span with a particular concern about the effect of self-concept on career...
choices. Super postulated that self-concept was relatively stable from early childhood and that it was congruent with occupational choice. Super (1978) reasoned:

The sex roles of men and women are socially as well as biologically determined, as anthropological studies and the changing roles of women during the past century make clear. But women's careers, career orientations, and career motivations differ from those of men and are likely to continue to differ in important respects. An adequate discussion of these differences becomes especially important as larger numbers of women participate in the work force.... it is important to point out that women's role as childbearer makes her the keystone of the home, and therefore gives homemaking a central place in her career. (p. 73)

Super offered a classification scheme that place women career patterns into seven categories.

1. The Stable Homemaking Career Pattern
2. The Conventional Career Pattern
3. The Stable Working Career Pattern
4. The Double-Track Career Pattern
5. The Interrupted Career Pattern
6. The Unstable Career Pattern
7. The Multiple-Trial Career Pattern

Adjusted for homemaking, patterns for men were identified by Super to be stable, conventional, unstable and multiple-trial. He contended that his theory was essentially applicable to both sexes if modified to take childbearing and marriage into account. Super further contended that self-concepts held by both men and women play an equal role in their career development, and that, "There is, in theory, no difference. Both sexes appear to make decisions on the basis of their self-concepts and their concepts of the circumstances
in which they live" (p. 216).

The work of Hennig and Jardim (1977) is representative of other recent literature and emerging theory about the career development of managerial women. Hennig's (1970) doctorate thesis which was a case study of 25 prominently successful corporate women was encouraged in part by conclusions reached by earlier researchers. Tiedeman and O'Hara (cited in Hennig and Jardim, 1977) provided Hennig's launching points:

Several years ago we decided that a separate theory of career development was needed for men and women ... . We are coming to think that the kind of resolution a woman achieves of her sex role is of major importance in her career. (p. 75)

Lewis (quoted in Hennig and Jardim, 1977) also influenced Hennig:

Most research concerning psychological characteristics and employment, for example, is based on men, and if women are studied at all—which they often aren't—the emphasis is on the extent to which they differ from men. (p. 75)

Hennig's study established norms for women, not men, and attempted to determine how 25 women were able to achieve highly responsible positions at a time when social pressure and legislation were absent. One of her major objectives was to contribute to a greater understanding of the issue of female career development.

There are many forces influencing the changing conditions of women in the workplace, particularly those aspiring to advance in organizations as administrators and managers. These conditions will affect theory and practice about how careers for women develop. They are highlighted by equal employment opportunity legislation (EEO), affirmative action, changing family conditions, lower birth rates, greater mobility, continued feminist pressures, and, also, the deli-
very of training and development by organizations in addition to formal educational institutions.

Changing Role of Women

The past two decades have brought an awareness and increased consciousness about the role of women in society, particularly in organizational management positions. As Hennig and Jardim (1977) observed:

There is little doubt that the legal drive to enforce equal opportunity has succeeded in making American organizations more aware of women both in blue-collar and managerial jobs. Simultaneously, the women's movement has heightened women's awareness of themselves, their rights and their work situations. There is even some evidence that more women now hold management positions than they did ten years ago (p. xii)

Rytina and Bianchi (1984) provided updated information to support Hennig and Jardim's contention of this increase. They reported 1980 Census data, showing growth of women in the managerial labor force from 18 percent in 1970 to 31 percent in 1980.

The potential for continued growth in this area is impressive. By reviewing other demographic data, one can see that the increased numbers of women in the workforce, when combined with other cultural changes favoring women, could result in even greater numbers of female managers in the future.

Marino and Villella (1982) emphasized this potential by citing data that women are shifting from the household to the labor market in record numbers. They reported that between 1960 and 1980 the proportion of women in the total labor force increased from 32% to 42%, and that in 1980, slightly more than 53% of white collar workers
were female.

The United Press International (1984) wrote that the U.S. Labor Department reported there were now more women in the workforce than ever before. For the first time they outnumbered those women who were not employed. The May, 1984 report showed that over 43 million women were employed. This number represented 50.5% of all women 20 years old or older. This statistic represents a continuing trend which can be traced back to World War II when in 1948 only 30.7% of all women had jobs. By 1960, that number grew to 35.7% and then accelerated to 41.2% by 1970.

According to Labor Department analyst Philip Rones, more single and divorced women supporting families are working. Deborah Klein, another analyst of the Labor Department, pointed out that women are marrying later and are having fewer children. She added, "more important, it has become more acceptable for women with children to work" (p. 1A). The Labor Department projected that the number of working women will continue to grow until 1995.

Martin's (1982) view of this data is supportive. She cited the U. S. Congress Joint Economic Committee's Report of 1980 that stated women took 1.4 million, or two out of three, of the 2.1 million jobs added to the economy. She added, "Women are expected to have continuing significant impact by entering the labor force at the rate of nearly one million per year during the 1980s" (p. 41).

A major factor contributing to this changing work role of women is the adjustment in their life styles. The traditional role of
marriage and family-rearing, while still important, is giving way to the changing personal and career goals of many women. Astin (cited in the Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry-Committee on the College Student, 1975, p. 43) reported this changing attitude existed among entering college females and highlighted the intention of these women to combine family and careers.

The Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry (1975) reported that women are no longer willing to sacrifice careers for marriage and family. This group pointed to an increase in more cooperative living patterns with a sharing of the many family tasks, including children being raised by parental collaboration. Observations about the changing role and condition of women in society, especially in the workplace, suggested a persistence of this phenomenon.

Affirmative Action

While career development has become more prevalent in many organizations, according to Hall and Hall (1976), the qualitative measures relative to advancement of women to higher management levels have been unimpressive. One activity of organizational career development criticized by these writers is that of "Dealing with Second-Generation EEO Problems" (p. 120).

Hall and Hall believed that many organizations have entered a second phase of affirmative action. Phase I was the recruitment and selection of women and minorities for managerial positions. Phase II addressed the needs of these employees such as training and development and other more pervasive problems. These writers suggested that
A subtle resistance has emerged along with a pattern of organizational behavior which they claimed have subverted EEO goals while giving the appearance of implementing them.

Woodworth and Woodworth (1979) argued that all companies have an underlying ideology with respect to women. They remarked that these companies have to weed out the contradictions between their official positions of women advocacy and actual practices of sexism.

In addition, Fraker (1984) wrote that it has been ten years since corporations have actively hired women in more than token numbers. She concluded that progress for women to achieve executive levels has been too slow. Jones-Parker (quoted in Fraker, 1984), stated, "There is an invisible ceiling for women at that level" (p. 40).

With the advent of legal action and continued social pressure for women's rights, Missirian (1980) noted that equal opportunity legislation was a force that caused a growth in the number of women to be employed in organizations but most often at entry level or lower level positions of management. However, with the arrival of numerous career development and management training programs, Missirian was encouraged. She viewed these programs as a mechanism to influence the advancement of women in organizations.

Factors Influencing the Development of Women Managers

The following section was organized into two parts. The first considered literature about the societal context in which females establish and develop life roles. The second considered writings and
research specifically about the factors which comprised the main elements of this investigation: (a) self-esteem, (b) knowledge of community college issues, (c) knowledge of management and leadership concepts, (d) mentoring, (e) networking, and (f) a special work project.

Included in the first section is a concentration of literature about those socialization factors identified as barriers, obstacles and other negative influences inhibiting the progress of women in managerial ranks. It also serves as a prelude to the review of the main variables in this study. By highlighting the social environment in which women have functioned, it was believed that knowledge of this environment would help the reader understand the reasons for the selection of these variables. It was further thought that a review of these societal influences places in perspective why attempts to provide managerial training, specifically for women, have occurred and how these efforts are directed to affect change.

This environment was succinctly presented by Terborg, Peters, Ilgen and Smith (1977) when they identified research which supported the arguments that differential treatment of women was pervasive in organizations and that in positions of authority and responsibility, the integration of women has achieved limited success. These authors elaborated that this differential treatment erroneously grows out of the popular assumption that women lack aggressiveness, leadership ability and other factors required for managerial positions. Other research disclosed by Terborg et al. (1977, p. 90) further refuted this assumption and supported the proposition that women are
actually very similar to men in leadership behavior.

Terborg et al. (1977) concluded that it was untenable to think about differential treatment of women in management positions using behavioral criteria. Rather, these authors suggested that this treatment occurs due to pervasive and persistent sex-role stereotyping established over time due to socialization. In describing this stereotype they stated, "In general, women are perceived as being dependent, passive, and subjective, and are lacking such attributes as competitiveness, ambition, and leadership ability" (p. 90).

The second emphasis in this section deals specifically with the concepts which made up the six major components around which the leadership training program being studied in this research was organized. These components included: (1) self-esteem, (2) knowledge of community college issues, (3) knowledge of management and leadership concepts, (4) networking, (5) mentoring and (6) a special work project.

The literature review concentrated on the effect the six components have had in contributing to the professional and career development of organizational managers and, in particular, educational administrators. It further attempted to address the applicability of these factors specifically to women and the influence on furthering their careers.

It should be noted that these six components were found to be common among managerial training topics and could be considered regular ingredients in management training programs whether such programs were designed exclusively for men or women or both. The
uniqueness of their treatment as variables in this research, however, was their role in the context of the emergent woman manager.

There was an abundance of literature that described the barriers and obstacles that women encounter in their quest for higher level managerial positions. The selection of the six components as explained by Bulpitt and Desjardins (1984), founders of the "Leaders for the 80s" (the focus of this study), was done with the intent to help neutralize and even counteract this resistance. The components in the training program were intended to provide additional skills, knowledge, techniques and self-confidence which would become the tools that could be used to reduce the barriers and enhance the careers of the participants.

Impact of Socialization

Previous literature attributed much of this resistance to early socialization and training. The comprehensive review of research about women and work by Nieva and Gutek (1981) presented broad and in-depth materials which supported the importance of socialization effects as influences on the development of women as managers. The work of these authors provided a mainstay and foundation for research findings which are reported in this section.

Nieva and Gutek (1981, p. 10) maintained that attitudes about particular jobs being suited for men or women begins early in life. They cited the work of Shepard and Hess who studied sex-role appropriateness of various occupational activities among several age groups.
The Early Years

The youngest group studied by Shepard and Hess (cited in Nieva and Gutek, 1981) were kindergarteners who were found to be the most stereotyped. Interestingly, the subjects were increasingly liberal as they aged but became more stereotyped again in adulthood. Nieva and Gutek (1981) reported on several other studies (Iglitzen; Kirchner and Vondracek; Loft; Schlossberg and Goodman; and Siegel) which confirmed the presence of early sex-role occupational stereotyping. They emphasized Shepard and Hess' conclusion that these stereotyped attitudes must be learned in the home since they appear to be present in children before they are exposed to the school and other external environments.

As Super was building the framework for his self-concept theory of career development, he and others (Super, Crites, Hummel, Moser, Overstreet and Warnath, 1957) posited that a person's development is partially determined by life positions and role expectations. These authors stated:

Thus, the child occupies the position of boy (at school age he has short hair and wears trousers) or girl (she has long hair and wears a dress) and is called upon to play certain roles (e.g., to be brave and strong or to be kind and gentle). Role-taking is both conscious and unconscious: children and adults emulate role models sometimes by design, sometimes without awareness of the identification. Parents are typically the first role models: the father for a boy, the mother for a girl. As Tyler has demonstrated, the girl's role model is primarily a sex model, while the boy's begins as a sex model and develops into a differentiated occupational model. Vocationally related roles are thus practiced in childhood play and fantasy as well as later school and free-time work and activities. (p. 46)

Darley and Hagenah (cited in Super et al., 1957) interpreted
Tyler's study of interest development by suggesting that:

... boys, even in the first grade, begin to see themselves and their roles according to the different kinds of positions which they might occupy in adult life; most girls see themselves as homemakers like their mothers, regardless of special abilities. In this way, the role expectations of children help to form their self-concepts. (p. 47)

In a more recent development, the Detroit News carried an Associated Press (1984) news release about a two year research project on children's fantasies conducted by Malcolm Watson of Brandeis University. This latest research showed that while the fantasies of four and five year old boys and girls supported views of traditional sex-stereotype-types, they differed with the pre-school two and three year old children. It was reported that these younger children showed little differences in fantasies and that younger toddlers displayed an even greater reduction in the differences. Where differences were found among the children, Watson noted that these differences could be attributable to adult influences and role models, particularly in movies and television.

Growing Up. This sex-role condition, according to Nieva and Gutek (1981), is perpetuated by societal factors throughout life. These authors referred to research (Weitzman; Ahlum; Bernstein, Saario, Jacklin and Tittle; Wirtenberg and Nakamura) which noted the existence of role stereotyping in children's stories and school textbooks.

Similarly, on children's television programs, Liebert, Sprafkin, and Davidson (1982) reported that females were shown as generally passive, deferential and likely to be punished for displaying high
levels of effort, while males were goal oriented, constructive and generally rewarded for their efforts.

In researching the television medium, Liebert, Sprafkin, and Davidson (1982) further substantiated the persistence of societal sex-stereotyping. These authors reported that in their content analyses of television programs regarding occupational roles, TV males were generally employed in prestigious positions such as doctors, lawyers, and law enforcement officials. In contrast, most TV women were assigned marital, romantic, and family roles.

In terms of behavior, Liebert et al. (1982) reported that TV males were portrayed as more powerful, dominant, aggressive, stable, persistent, rational, and intelligent. Females were portrayed as more attractive, altruistic, sociable, warm, sympathetic, happy, rule abiding, peaceful, and youthful than males. Courtney & Whipple (cited in Liebert et al., 1982) reported consistent findings that "women are not portrayed as autonomous, independent human beings, but are primarily sex-typed" (p. 166).

In the field of school counseling, Medvene and Collins were identified by Nieva and Gutek (1981) as a pair of researchers who found that vocational counselors were relatively conservative in their recommendations of careers deemed appropriate for women. Nieva and Gutek referred to other studies (Bingham and House; Pressley; Thomas and Stewart) and pointed out that male counselors who outnumber female counselors in high schools are even more conservative than their female counterparts.

Terborg (1977) also wrote about the adverse impact on women's
career choices because of vocational counseling. He pointed to research indicating that pressures exerted by professional vocational counselors and family members discouraged women from fulfilling career aspirations in non-traditional occupations.

Some research existed which showed that rejection of stereotyped sex roles may occur among women who were raised in families where the mother worked full time. Terborg (1977, p. 648) cited research (Almquist; Vogel and Broverman; Broverman; Clarkson; and Rosenkrantz) findings that supported the proposition that women who chose non-traditional careers were likely to come from families where the mother worked full time. Because of shared household duties between father and mother, these authors believed that highly differentiated sex roles would less likely develop in female off-spring.

The Workplace

According to Lyles (1983), socialization was a barrier to women in the workplace. She charged that it created confusion about what was proper behavior for both men and women. People have been raised with an understanding on how to behave toward one another, but many of these understandings are inappropriate in the work environment.

Other literature about sex-role stereotyping in the workplace, due to socialization, was plentiful. In developing the background for her study of organizational barriers and their impact on women in higher education, Stokes (1984) pointed to Kanter's examination of organizational environment and her identification stereotypical roles imposed on professional women in male-dominated groups. These roles
were labeled by Kanter as: "mother," "seductress," "pet," and "iron maiden." The latter was the role into which high achieving women were placed. Stokes inferred that these roles inhibited the progress of women. She reinforced her contention by referring to work by Harlen and Weiss who also reported that stereotyped attitudes were causal factors retarding advancement of women.

Nieva and Gutek (1981, p. 12) referred to Nielson's finding that workers who deviate from sex-role expectations were given lower social standing than those who followed sex-role expectations. The work of Suchner and More was also used by Nieva and Gutek to mount evidence that women who chose sex-atypical careers were viewed as less likeable than their male co-workers.

Rogan (1984) reported on a Wall Street Journal/Gallop Survey of 722 female executives which supported the sex-role stereotype influence in the lives of women. From the interviews conducted of women who had the title of vice president or higher, Rogan disclosed a changing trend that sees younger women, growing up with different expectations and opportunities. She stated that career planning appears to be occurring at a much earlier age. The trend mentioned by Rogan is away from a situation which saw female executives grow up in a time when women were not encouraged to pursue business careers and discovered their ambition as their experienced growth on the job.

In response to the questions about obstacles in their careers, the women who were among the first to reach high levels of management chided that major reasons were related to their sex. They complained that male chauvinism, prejudiced men, attitudes toward a female boss
were major barriers to them. According to Stokes (1984, p. 4), Adams announced the presence of these complaints in other exceptionally achieving women, those listed in Who's Who Among American Women.

Nieva and Gutek (1981) pointed out that beliefs about the appropriateness of jobs stereotyped for men and women show up in research across ages and sexes. While they were quick to point out the lack of clarity of how much these beliefs and attitudes affect career choice, these authors deemed it reasonable that such stereotypes would affect this choice. They declared:

It is important to remember the context of this high consensus about which jobs are appropriate for males and which are appropriate for females when examining the career choices people make. A choice is not really a choice in the presence of strong norms that limit the types of behavior considered appropriate. (p. 13)

Terborg's (1977) opinion supported this declaration: "The existence of a male managerial model, however, perpetuates societal norms that women should not or cannot be successful in management" (p. 647).

**Achievement**

The desire to progress in managerial ranks suggests a motivation to achieve. There has been intense interest of researchers to study the impact of achievement motivation as a variable influencing an individual's attempt to accomplish, perform and succeed. Empirical evidence showing differences favoring male achievement orientation over the female orientation has been well documented by McClelland, Atkinson, Weiner, Feather and others (referenced in Nieva and Gutek, 1981, p. 94). Terborg (1977) pointed to McClelland and O'Leary who reported that women describe themselves as different from men on
selected requisite management traits, one of which was achievement. Schein (1973) also researched requisite management characteristics of men and women and confirmed the hypothesis that successful managers were perceived to possess those characteristics more commonly ascribed to men in general than to women in general.

These findings have resulted in subsequent searches for understanding this phenomenon. Horner (1969) proposed a concept that viewed women as having an internalized fear of success which served as an obstacle to achievement. She believed that females experienced anxieties concerning success because of the perception of negative outcomes such as loss of femininity and social rejection.

Substantive evidence has been gathered since Horner's work which disputes this postulate as a stable psychological motive in females. Nieva and Gutek (1981, p. 96) reported on Peplau's research which suggested that females are more anxious about achievement in areas that represent a deviation from sex-role norms. Peplau found the fear of success concept elusive and argued that sex-role deviations more useful in explaining female performance. From Peplau's work and others cited by Nieva and Gutek (Monahan; Kuhn and Shaver; O'Leary and Hammock), Nieva and Gutek (1981), themselves, declared their support of a view that pointed to external factors (cultural influences) as better explanations for female performance.

Bartol (1974) referenced Megargee's investigation about the relationship between sex-roles, need for dominance, and the assumption of leadership. Megargee found that women who had a high need for dominance would not assume the leadership position when they were
paired with males who had a low need for dominance. He attributed this to the social role expected of women, noting that it is acceptable for men to dominate women but not vice versa.

It was this very condition that Josefowitz (1980) was concerned about when she identified the roadblocks to power that women experience. She exclaimed that women need to go through a self-empowerment process in order to free themselves of society's "you should" as well as their own "I should."

It is this psychological receipt held by women that Miller (1976) argued must be changed. She insisted that the psychological development of both men and women has been distorted by a mind-set perpetuating inequality. This continuance of sexual stereotypes, men as dominants and women as subordinates, argued Miller, has prevented both sexes from achieving their full human potential.

Confidence. Another related barrier hampering achievement of women was further identified by Nieva and Gutek (1981, p. 98) and Terborg, (1977, p. 648) was that of low self-confidence. These authors both referred to Maccoby and Jacklin's review of 58 previous studies on achievement motivation and their conclusion that women have lower levels of self-confidence than men do. Terborg added that Maccoby and Jacklin also stated that performance expectancies and self-evaluations of abilities were lower among women than men. Nieva and Gutek (1981) cited additional references (Deaux; Deaux and Farris; Rychlak and Ecker; among others) who reported that women generally expected to perform less well than men and expressed lower estimates in their abilities than men.
Low expectancies and other internal attitudinal propensities that represent self-derogatory attributions resulted in lowered confidence (Nieva and Gutek, 1981). Deaux (cited in Nieva and Gutek) agreed and reported that male front-line managers were more likely than females to perceive that their success was due to their ability.

Not all research suggested that women's low self-confidence is universal across all situations. Nieva and Gutek's (1981) exhaustive literature review pointed to several countering studies (Stein, Pohly, and Mueller; Montemayor; and Deaux and Emswiller) that showed higher expectancies for success were present in situations that were looked to as sex-appropriate. Nieva and Gutek found other strong evidence (Feather and Simon; Rychlak and Ecker; Julian, Regula, and Hollander; Schwartz and Clausen; McMahon; Simon and Feather; House and Perney) that specified additional factors that affect female self-confidence levels. These factors included the availability of clear and unambiguous information about abilities, tasks and feedback on performance. The evidence reported in these studies supported the contention that when these conditions are present, females demonstrated a strong achievement orientation.

Lenny, according to Nieva and Gutek (1981), emphasized the effect of social comparison or social evaluation cues as adverse influences on female self-confidence. Other experiments cited by Nieva and Gutek (Feather and Feather and Simon) supported Lenny's position. Women's confidence level was found to be lower than men's in work situations where comparison was likely and not so when comparative conditions were absent.
In Nieva and Gutek's (1981) impressive work, the authors stated that the prevailing view of the working woman does not include the drive for success and achievement. These writers suggested that the working women are perceived the same in the workplace as in general life situations. Bass, Drusall, and Alexander (referenced by Nieva and Gutek, p. 102) found that women were thought to be unsuitable for managerial positions by graduate students, male managers, due to the male beliefs about a variety of perceived attributes about women.

Further evidence of sex-stereotyping was found by Cecil, Paul, and Olins and reported by Nieva and Gutek. Cecil et al. found that subjects related males to managerial positions and females to secretarial jobs when describing white collar jobs. Nieva and Gutek also pointed to others (Schein; and Massengill and DeMarco) who declared that characteristics used to describe managers were similar to those used to describe men but different from those characteristics used to describe women.

Nieva and Gutek (1981, p. 102) reported that Bass et al. studied the appropriateness of varying levels of managerial positions for women as opinioned by male colleagues. It was reported that men who worked with women as peers were more likely to think women could be managers than those men who worked only with women in subordinate positions.

Because the achievement situations in which women seem to experience lower self-confidence is more numerous than those of men, Nieva and Gutek, (1981) cautioned that, "a vicious cycle may be established with low expectations leading to failure, which leads to
attributions of lack of ability and even lower expectations" (p. 101).

Learned helplessness can be the result of such a cycle according to Dweck (in Nieva and Gutek, p. 101). Dweck maintained that differing perceptions for failure in one situation by males and females would result in differential transfer of the effects to other situations perpetuating the cycle. Terborg (1977) agreed and stated that the consequences of continued practices of sex-role differentiation might be to lower the self-concept of affected women as well as perpetuating sex-typed occupations.

Search for Change

Advocates for women expressed hope and suggested that these conditions can be changed. Nieva and Gutek (1981) indicated that Dweck and her colleagues maintained that the pattern of learned helplessness can be modified. Lenny (in Nieva and Gutek) challenged the notion that female low self-confidence exists in all achievement contexts and is influenced for the most part by situational factors.

Nieva and Gutek (1981) added that while stereotyped attitudes of female workers may contribute to reduced achievement behavior in women, a more feminist orientation in the female worker may counteract some of the socialization and external influences. They argued, "that a lack of traditional sex-role orientation in women is associated with greater psychological adjustment, better self-concept, and higher self-esteem" (p. 103).

Hennig and Jardim (1977) pointed out that men and women enter the work world with similar goals but with very different assumptions.
and approaches on how to achieve these goals. They stated that men are usually clearer and have a more definitive understanding of how to achieve their career goals than women. Women are not as likely to have the insights, understandings and skills which men have which these authors attribute to boyhood experiences and a socialization which provides an advantage in achieving success in management positions.

According to Hennig and Jardim (1977), men and women have substantially different beliefs and assumptions which they hold about themselves and each other. These beliefs extend into the workplace and management careers. The result is differences in operating styles emphases and ways of responding to daily management situations.

Hart (in Bass 1981), writing on the conditions of women as leaders, commented that despite some headway being made in organizations by women, progress continues to be stifled because of conditions attributable to socialization and stereotyping. He cautioned that even though effective co-habitation among management personnel is improving (despite differences in male-female characteristics), women will continue to face difficulties in the work place because of role conflict in serving as wives and mothers at home and as managers and leaders in organizations.

Most women, according to Hennig and Jardim (1977), will not bring to adulthood the necessary tools to compete in the management world. They did, however, emphasize that self-evaluation can do much to overcome the socialization handicaps in route to becoming more a successful and effective manager. Once committed, a woman must be
willing to invoke an action plan that includes the realization of importance of the need to manage herself and the environment concurrently.

Self-esteem

Such an action plan, to be effective must include attention to one's self-esteem. Sanford and Donovan (1984) listed four premises underlying the presence of low self-esteem among a large number of women. They proposed that: (a) female oppression in a male-dominated culture leads to a (b) level of self-esteem which is at the roots of many psychological problems experienced by women which (c) serves to perpetuate women's external oppression and, thus, (d) requires the development of self-esteem in individual women in order to achieve advancement of women as a group.

Sanford and Donovan (1984) took care in defining the term self-esteem because it is used so inter-changeably in everyday conversation and in professional circles as well. They identified this erroneous inter-change with other terms such as self-respect, self-love, self-worth and self-concept. To clarify their meaning they stated:

The self-concept or self-image is the set of beliefs and images we all have and hold to be true of ourselves. By contrast, our level of self-esteem... is the measure of how much we like and approve of our self-concept. Or, as we've heard it put, "self-esteem is the reputation you have with yourself." (p. 7)

A similar definition was cited by Kaufman (1968). He defined self-esteem as that basic sense of one's own value. He cautioned that it was not vanity or false pride, but a proper sense of self-regard. Kaufman stated, "It involves a willingness to be one's
self, and effort to become more truly what one is, and a conviction that, in the end, one is a self that is worth being" (p. 5). Other writers in the literature were not as careful in clarifying their meaning of self-esteem and in some cases reference to the term may be implied or used interchangeably with other terms related to the "self."

Sanford and Donovan's (1984) work grew out of in-depth interviews with approximately 320 women since 1979 and provide a clinical perspective on self-esteem. As a result of their efforts they chided the research community:

While we had no difficulty finding women willing to share their thoughts and experiences pertaining to self-esteem, we have had considerable difficulty coming up with scientific evidence that validates women's experience . . . . the bulk of the existing studies simply establish the fact of low self-esteem among the women studied and do little to explain its causes or dynamics. Finally, many studies are gender-comparative; instead of linking women's self-esteem levels to women's experience in the world, women's self-esteem levels are compared to men's levels. This sort of approach is problematic, for it enforces the notion that males are the norm, and ignores the fact that from the moment of birth, male and female experience in the world is very different. (p. xix)

Sanford and Donovan (1984) go on to state that available scientific evidence to validate their clinical observations has been further hindered by the male bias that permeates much of this literature.

Looking through the clinical work on self-esteem, we've found that nearly all the supposedly general studies have been performed on male subjects, and it is from the study and/or observation of males, and males alone, that universal conclusions about human psychology, behavior and experience have been drawn. Similarly, most of the vast theoretical and speculative literature on self-esteem either deals specifically with males or speaks in vague abstractions about "man" and "the individual." What about women? (p. xx)

Enroute to improve self-esteem, one contemporary model of
career development that reinforced Hennig and Jardim's (1977) suggestion for self-motivated activism was offered by Gutteridge and Otte (1983). While their model focused on personal planning and goal setting, it also placed a heavy emphasis on self-development in taking control of one's career.

This concept of self-development was also advocated by Kur and Pedler (1982). They urged individuals to assume responsibility for building of self-confidence and self-esteem as a foundation in acquiring management skills. Kur and Pedler contended that this person-centered approach was anti-hierarchical and non-sexist. They maintained, "It is equally valid for women as for men and, in this sense, rectifies the predominantly male culture of many other management development programs" (p. 89).

A number of investigators based their research on Super and his colleagues' (1957, 1963) thoughts which postulated that self-concept was congruent with occupational choice and that self-esteem was a vital component in that choice. Richardson was identified by Nieva and Gutek (1981 p. 19) as one who found that high self-esteem was a necessary ingredient among college women in order for them to perceive themselves as career oriented.

Nieva and Gutek (1981) reported Astin's notation that self-concept played an important role in the choice of the careers of women and that it facilitated higher career aspirations. Brief, VanSell, and Aldag (in Nieva and Gutek, 1981) concluded that women will be less likely to select male-dominated occupations if the presence of a strong self-concept did not exist.
In an evaluation of his leadership training program for women, Hart (in Bass, 1981) concluded, as did White (1983) in her study, that the training resulted in raised levels of self-esteem and self-confidence of the trainees. Consistent with Super et al. (1963) and others who advocated that higher self-confidence and self-esteem resulted in realistic self-concept, both Hart and White offered some evidence that targeted training for women in management roles was effective and valuable. White concluded, "The training helped to demystify the concept of leadership and give the participants the confidence that they, too, could become leaders" (p. 18).

Instilling proper attitudes and confidence in women managers through training practices and experiences removed from traditional cultural conditioning was also advocated by Champion (1979). A search for such practices in progressive human resource development companies which may provide environments minimizing cultural conditioning uncovered the work of Digman (1980). Two in-depth studies by Digman (p. 157) of highly reputed companies revealed that 82% saw self-development initiatives as playing an important role in promotion determination of the participants.

Killian (1976) provided a human resource management perspective that highlighted the organization's responsibility and subsequent mutual benefit to the individual and the company by helping build self-esteem among its employees. Encouraging practices that demonstrate personal interest in individual employees such as showing they are valued, giving due credit, and encouraging initiative are some examples given by Killian that represent sound employee relations.
ingredients. Taking every opportunity to build self-confidence is seen by Killian as crucial in enhancing self-esteem.

**Self-analysis and Competence**

Competence motivation as postulated by White (in Kroll, Dinklage, Lee, Morley and Wilson, 1970) denotes one's desire to interact successfully with the environment. A series of successful endeavors in achieving objectives is what results in the self-evaluation of competence. Kroll et al. declared, "Positive self-evaluation emerges from the person's . . . recognition of real accomplishment. He cannot be fooled by empty praise and condescending encouragement from others. He himself has to know when he has been successful" (p. 50). White, (quoting Silverberg in Kroll et al., 1970) stated:

> Throughout life self-esteem has . . . an inner source, the degree of effectiveness of one's own activity; and an external source, the opinions of others about oneself. Both are important, but the former is the steadier and more dependable one. Unhappy and insecure is the man who, lacking an adequate inner source for self-esteem, must depend for this almost wholly upon external sources. (p. 31)

Gordon and Strober (1975, p. 16) discussed the concern about the objective evaluation of competence. They referred to psychological and sociological studies that demonstrated the effect of "labeling" on a person. If one is labeled competent or incompetent, it defines the self-image which in turn influences behavior.

Tibbetts (1979, p. 6) supported this contention by inferring that women may not be perceived as having educational management potential. Tibbetts referred to studies by Bartol and Butterfield and McMillin who reported an inverse relationship between the likelihood of women
accepting leadership roles in an educational organization as the level of responsibility increased. She inferred that women may have internalized the concept that leadership roles are for men and not women.

These aforementioned writers have presented views consistent with those formulated by Super et al. (1957, 1963) documented earlier in this chapter. This reinforcement of Super's self-concept theory of career development clearly established support for the importance of self-esteem as a career development component.

This support suggested that self-esteem was a critical factor required of those seeking achievement of a successful managerial career. The strength of this factor as found in the literature suggested a difference in importance would be present between self-esteem and other career development components identified in this study. It should be noted that while this factor was viewed to be a determinant in the careers of men as well as women, there was a large amount of literature that centered on self-esteem as a particularly critical variable in the careers of women.

The stated reasons consistently given for valuing self-esteem focuses on the importance of a realistic self-concept to which self-esteem contributes. This positive image of one's self was consistently stated as a pre-requisite to effectively overcome socialization experiences and other cultural influences that have created societal niches for women, niches which many women want to leave but experience difficulty doing so.

Consequently, it was hypothesized that self-esteem would be
viewed by the management aspirants as more important when compared to the other components intended to influence the career development of the subjects in this study. One impression received when observing preceding literature was that self-esteem would be a positive force in aiding job advancement. Thus, it was also conjectured that self-esteem will be considered more important by the subjects in this study who reported career advancement than those who did not.

Community College Issues

Lahti (1979) asked penetrating questions about the future of community colleges. He questioned whether or not the past and present managerial skills and strategies developed in a period of growth and plenty will suffice in a new era of resource scarcity, changing emphasis, and possible decline. He emphasized the need for organizational managers to use a mode of assessment regarding the issues of: (a) strategic planning, (b) staff development, and (c) improved use of all institutional resources, financial, human, and physical.

In defining the leader role in community colleges, Eaton (1979) related the need for decision-making to planning. She maintained that academic leaders should recognize the importance of educational planning, assessment of ongoing programs, evaluation of new potentials, and the fact that planning must take on a fluid and dynamic quality in order to forestall any static or rigid institutional fixation.

Eaton warned that failure to understand the complexity of the
decision-making process can result in inadequate planning. Also, compromised planning taken to its extreme can result in no planning at all. She elaborated, "Pressures of boards, communities, the managerial system, collective bargaining, and collegiality can result in management by accommodation that falls short of academic leadership" (p. 9).

Participants in the "Leaders for the 80s," the training program which was the focus of this study, were exposed to Warmbord's (1981) detailed perspective of what were seen to be major societal forces impacting the two-year college. This exposure included changes occurring in: (a) demographics, (b) technological advances, (c) the economy, (d) the workplace, (e) energy, and (f) value shifts.

Several of these forces were also specified as the central issues in the transformation of community colleges that may well produce major changes in the mission, goals, and organizational structure (Alfred, Elsner, LeCroy, and Armes, 1984). Advancing technology, public policy initiatives, demographic transition, economic conditions and societal attitudes are those identified by these authors as pressures with which future leaders must deal in order to guide the future development of community colleges.

Alfred (1984) pointed to the pressures mounting on community college leadership because of changing state and federal requirements relative to the distribution and allocation of resources. Careful planning is needed relative to enrollment levels, program and staff expenditures and capital needs in order to support requests for funds. Alfred maintained that boards of trustees and presidents no
longer unilaterally determine mission and establish priorities. He explained that faculty unions, community interest groups, state agencies and other elected officials are taking a more influential role in decision-making. Thus, the issue of governance itself remains a challenge to community college leaders or would-be leaders.

The essence of the philosophy which created the community college movement has emerged as an issue and was addressed by Richardson and Leslie (1980). While referencing a recent Carnegie Council Report (in the Chronicle of Higher Education, 1979, p. 13) that suggested that community colleges assume a sixth mission or role (one of attending to the needs of disadvantaged youth), these authors related their desire to modify the five roles as defined by the Carnegie Council on Policy Studies in Higher Education.

Currently, the five accepted roles as defined by the Carnegie Council include: (a) academic transfer programs, (b) technical training, (c) terminal general education, (d) community service programs, and (e) community-based programs. In comparison, Richardson and Leslie suggested six roles: (a) academic transfer programs, (b) vocational technical education, (c) developmental/remedial programs, (d) continuing education, (e) community service, and (f) assessment, skill training and placement.

Richardson and Leslie maintained that methods of financing community colleges have also gone under revision over time but have lagged behind in recent times, and resources to meet desired functions are not keeping pace. Richardson (1984) recently remarked that fierce competition exists for state dollars that are appropriated for
services to citizens.

Resource constraints are forcing changes which are proving to be difficult to college leaders. Richardson stated that change now involves choosing among existing programs and setting priorities between the old and the new. As an example, he pointed to one college district which chose to preserve instructional television at the expense of faculty jobs.

Besides resource constraints, Richardson (1984) identified several other internal and external forces which will influence the leadership of community colleges in the coming years. Demographic influences, mission definition, quality assurance, technological change and aging staff are some of the factors presenting the challenge of managing community colleges. He stated, "To achieve change in the coming decade, administrators will need managerial sophistication in order to avoid such unacceptable costs as loss of organizational morale and managerial credibility" (p. 23).

In order to deal with some of the issues which exist in higher education, and assist women who wish to accept the responsibility of leadership, specific training programs have recently emerged. Collective bargaining, finance and budget, and law in higher education were components of a summer institute reported by Tinsley (1984).

The Summer Institute for Women in Higher Education Administration, co-sponsored by Higher Education Resource Services (HERS), Mid-America and Bryn Mawr College was a women's training program designed to prepare aspiring women for higher level administrative positions in higher education organizations. The subjects of this study also
attended such a program to receive training in these complex and
dynamic issues. It was believed by the founders of the "Leaders for
the 80s" that this component was important to the career development
of the participants.

There existed a large amount of literature, much of it written
in recent years, regarding issues in community colleges. Vaughn and
Associates (1983) stated the importance of the relationship of these
issues and the leadership of community colleges:

Leadership is an essential dimension in any agency. The educa­
tional leaders in community colleges must have a sense of his­
tory and context into which they can place the issues that come
to their attention daily. It is not sufficient for them to
shift the burden, to shirk the responsibility. Their institu­
tions deserve leaders who can sustain consistent directions and
articulate internal policies that match external realities.
(p. xii)

As the community college movement continues its dynamic and
evolving role as part of postsecondary education, it will challenge
its leaders, present and future, to address and effectively handle
these many issues. They will test the capability of all types of
training and educational systems to develop leaders who will be able
to effectively deal with the multitude of issues.

The need for educational leaders to be knowledgeable about the
many community college issues was supported by previous discussions.
The importance of being knowledgeable about specific aspects of
community college issues was deemed a prerequisite to successful
administration in these educational organizations.

While little empirical research was found relating career
development directly to the knowledge about community college issues
possessed by administrators, the literature emphasized the necessity of managing colleges by well informed persons. This emphasis suggested that it was reasonable to assume that more knowledgeable people would experience development in their careers and professional endeavors if they were well informed about pertinent issues.

While it was unclear whether or not this component, knowledge of community college issues, would differ in importance from the other five components in this study, it was considered reasonable that it could. One hypothesis offered, then, was that knowledge of community college issues would be viewed differently in its importance to career development when compared to the other factors in this study. In addition, it was hypothesized that women who experienced career advancement would perceive that knowledge of educational issues as more important than those who did not advance.

Management and Leadership Concepts

Stogdill (1974), in his exhaustive and comprehensive work on leadership theory and research, concluded that there was little agreement as to the meaning of leadership and even less in the way of unifying theory. He identified a variety of concepts which were used by many writers in defining leadership. A few included: power differential, persuasion, influence act, influence in goal achievement, initiation of structure, and structuring expectations.

Classical theories of management, added Stogdill, suggested a simple classification of functions: (a) planning, (b) organizing, and (c) controlling. These theories abound in the literature, and as
Horton (1983) pointed out, despite the wide spread attention focused on them, "real-life circumstances usually lack the neatness found in management textbooks" (p. 2). Hersey and Blanchard (1982) pointed out that defining management was as illusive as leadership. They did identify the concern for accomplishing organizational goals as the common thread in the many definitions of management. They wrote, "We shall define management as working with and through individuals and groups to accomplish organizational goals" (p. 3). Hersey and Blanchard pointed out a distinction between management and leadership:

In essence, leadership is a broader concept than management. Management is thought of as a special kind of leadership in which the achievement of organizational goals is paramount. The key difference between the two concepts, therefore lies in the work organization. Leadership occurs any time one attempts to influence the behavior of an individual or group, regardless of the reason. It may be for one's own goals or those of others, and they may or may not be congruent with organizational goals. (p. 3)

Leadership

Hollander (1978) saw leadership as a process of influence, a social process that is transactional in nature, extending from both situational variables and the social exchange of inter-personal relations. He viewed leaders as initiators of action but the quality of the action relied on the quality of a dyadic relationship between leader and follower. Hollander emphasized that the influence is more dependent on persuasion than on power as a coercive force.

Boles (1982) wrote that leadership is that process that occurs as part of the larger social interaction among the members of a social system. According to Boles (1983), it is "a process tending
toward accomplishment of specific goals through the use of personal 
or group influence, authority, or power under the conditions of 
social exchange then prevailing" (p. 189).

These authors represent only two of the many who have undertaken 
to explain the phenomenon of leadership. But as Stogdill (1974) 
pointed out, "The endless accumulation of empirical data has not 
produced an integrated understanding of leadership" (p. vii).

Training Programs. Lombardo and McCall (1978), while retaining 
their professional interest in the topic, affirmed their frustration 
in dealing with the leadership concept. In maintaining that the 
central aim of research was to help practitioners become more effec­
tive leaders, they insisted much depended on the training received in 
various skills and modes of behavior. Lombardo and McCall lamented, 
however, that the results of studies on training effects were not 
encouraging. They referred to Miner's contention that while there 
was little doubt that training produces temporary changes in those 
experiencing it, there was little evidence of long-term effects.

Stogdill (1974, p. 196) referred to a study done by the Nation­
al Industrial Conference Board in 1963. He reported that of 1,074 
recently recruited college graduates who attended management develop­
ment programs, 40% expressed disappointment that the training con­
centrated on improved human relations and general management topics 
rather than skills they perceived necessary to gain promotions. 
Referring to a study by Andrews, Stogdill (1974, p. 196) pointed to 
the sizable percentage of executives who, after attending management
development programs, saw no relationship between the training and
subsequent salary advances.

Stogdill (1974) lamented over the fact that training procedures
seldom provide explicit evidence that demonstrates how a person may
use methods to gain and hold a leadership position. Stogdill chided
the research on leadership training as inadequate in both design and
execution. He remarked:

> It has failed to address itself to the most crucial problems of
> leadership—consequences of training for acquisition and retention
> of the role, maintenance of leadership under concerted
> challenge of legitimacy of the role, and effects of leadership
> on group performance and member satisfaction. (p. 199)

**The Positive Side.** Regardless of a frustrating premise put
forth by some writers, a plethora of research studies was also
reported by Stogdill (1974) that demonstrated positive results in
gaining insights into the leadership phenomenon. In his extensive
review of research, Stogdill pointed to a number of studies that
demonstrated that individuals trained in a number of leadership
techniques achieved superior results to those in untrained control
groups. Abilities possessed or learned by those individuals in the
various experimental groups included knowledge about problem solving
techniques and group processes which included leading discussions,
regulated participation, and conflict resolution.

Two such examples cited by Stogdill (1974, p. 183) were studies
by Morton and Bass, and Wedel. Morton and Bass reported that 97
managers, who after a management training experience, identified more
than 350 behavior changes. That list was headed by improved working
relationships and self-understanding. Wedel was identified by Stogdill as another researcher who reported improved human relations skills which was related to the intent of the training experience of 333 subjects.

Digman (1980, p. 155) stated that as a result of his findings, he would advocate a composite management training program that would include experiences in building human relations skills including leadership, motivation, style of management and how to develop people.

Bass' (1981) updated edition of Stogdill's (1974) exhaustive work about leadership identified a pair of authors who placed training for a leadership role in the context of the leader's developmental stage over the adult life cycle. Bryson and Kelly (in Bass, 1981) suggested that leaders go through stages, and the skills and capacities learned at one stage prepare the leader for newer and bigger tasks and responsibilities in later stages. A person learns to be a leader, according to Bryson and Kelly, by serving as a leader. Promotions to higher levels of leadership occur as a result of this skill-building process.

Management

In an attempt to clarify and unify thinking about the activities, functions and basic elements of an organizational executive's job, Mackenzie (1969) explained that the management process begins with three basic elements with which a manager deals: ideas, things, and people. He emphasized the application of conceptual thinking and
its importance to these three elements. Mackenzie noted differences between being a manager and a leader. The former requires conceptual talents to plan and manage, the latter for inspiration and ability to lead others.

Permeating through the entire work process are three critical factors: (1) problem analysis, (2) decision-making, and (3) communication. Mackenzie stated that these factors are sometimes added to the other traditionally accepted managerial functions of planning, organizing, staffing, directing, and controlling. Mackenzie made special note of his emphasis on the behaviorist functions of management and his desire to see staffing and communicating elevated to the more formal level of functions of management.

What Keller (1983) called management in higher education had four major components. College presidents and their aides are expected to "minister" to the needs of faculty and students. Administration, then, is that provision and coordination of the "... thousand little things" (p. 122) like equipment, records, paychecks and libraries. While administrative activities focus on doing things right, the second component, management, concentrates on doing the right things. Keller viewed management as an entrepreneurial element, seeking effectiveness through change. Future vision and direction are the hallmarks of management, according to Keller, who saw this aspect as the most neglected part of the contemporary college and university president. Keller advised that the president cannot do this alone. "... the president needs to encourage and help develop management skills throughout the institution, strength-
Keller emphasized the emotional side of human behavior when he explained the third component, leadership. He urged that leadership was the ability to motivate or cause faculty and students to reach out for their full potential. He explained, "Leadership is that intangible ability to touch people's nerve endings and cause them to act" (p. 126).

Governance, according to Keller (1983), enunciates the reality of the political arena in which the management of a college or university occurs. He stated that these institutions are like republics and that faculty are political partners in the conduct of the enterprise. He wrote, "Whatever the means, campus management must be tied somehow to acceptable governance procedures. A university is a quasi-political body. Faculty have been known to vote, like parliaments, no confidence in their president" (p. 127).

Keller (1983) recognized that interdependence of these four factors and the concurrence of their processes. Those processes are vital in the achievement of institutional direction and change. Keller pointed out the importance of people involvement, communication of information and planning when he wrote, "Planning should ooze out of meetings and encounters almost unnoticed; and parts of any strategy should be championed by the very people who will need to implement it" (p. 129).

In discussing how the best corporate executives manage change, Keller referred to James Brian Quinn, who found they "artfully,
blend formal analysis, behavioral techniques, and power politics," and they "consciously and proactively move forward incrementally" (p. 129). Those corporate managers, according to Keller, establish effective formal and informal networks, get and give accurate information, good and bad. They consistently seek out new approaches, greater efficiencies, and attend to the quality of their organizations.

**Education and Leadership**

In his exhaustive work Stogdill (1974) noted that educational administration was among those social systems making wide use of leadership training. Eaton (1979), in addressing the subject of preparation for academic leadership roles, also noted the value of formal business training and corporate experience. She stated that leadership needs in community colleges should be a blend of appropriate managerial training, style and skills with an informed, and flexible concept of the academic process. Further, that preparation should include an appreciation and understanding of the academic world: its values and reason for being.

Leaders, according to Eaton (1979), provide initiative and direction by which things get done. In dealing with the difficult issues which lay before community colleges, Eaton acknowledged the importance of administrators taking responsibility for action by making decisions which affect the very purpose of the college, its academic program and standards of achievement.

She further expressed the need for effective balance of special...
interests and concerns. Strong interpersonal skills, and political astuteness are required to achieve decisions which mesh with institutional purpose within the framework of stated goals and objectives. Eaton declared that the determination of clear purpose is enormously difficult. She described attempts to determine institutional purpose as being "enmeshed in a network of influences and power from a variety of sources" (p. 9).

Recognizing the need for colleges and universities for management development and training, the Higher Education Management Institute (HEMI) launched a program to provide assistance to these educational institutions. Kest (1982) stated that HEMI was created in 1976 with a grant from the EXXON Education Foundation for the purpose of designing a comprehensive management development and training programs for staff in higher education. The critical need for this service was supported by Baldwin (1982) who remarked that the people who typically have managerial responsibilities in higher education are usually amateurs who have worked their way up through the academic ranks because of other skills like research or teaching. Heald (1969) purported a probable cause of contemporary management shortcomings in education when he delineated the function of "supervision" in academia. He stated that the main thrust of academic supervision dealt with a staff support relationship in pursuit of a strong quality curriculum. Leadership, on the other hand, while it seemingly is closely allied to the supervision function, is often found lacking in administrative position holders.
Women and Leadership

Gordon and Strober (1975) suggested that women are as capable as men in developing competencies in organizations. They contended that leadership skills such as realistic goal setting, planning, organizing, persuading, conciliating and conveying enthusiasm are not exclusive to men.

Josefowitz (1980) in her book, Paths to Power, written with the purpose to aid women to succeed in society, maintained that recent research findings are just beginning to report that the nature and psychology of women, "those feminine qualities," are compatible to and intrinsic with power.

She maintained that the scarcity of women in leader positions is due in large part to the socialization factors addressed elsewhere in this study. Josefowitz referred to Jean Baker Miller (1976) who wrote that society undervalues women's attributes and therefore underrates their contributions. In making her point, Josefowitz used Rosabeth Moss Kanter's argument that structural elements in the work environment does not allow opportunities for women and thereby prevents their advancement. Kanter (1976) makes the point that all people, men and women, react the same in situations of low opportunity. The high affiliation need of women reported by many researchers is not necessarily different than those of men who turn to peers for support in similar situations. Josefowitz instructed, "Whatever the reason for women's powerlessness, whether it is our socialization or men's, the consequences of it are our reality.... So it is up to
us to overcome our socialization in order to help men overcome theirs" (p. 196).

Josefowitz (1980) emphasized that leadership, authority, power and influence are all interconnected terms. She defined leadership as the process or act of influencing and power as the capacity to influence. Authority contains power in the sense of the leader being "authorized" to exercise leadership as previously agreed to by two or more parties. Josefowitz held that, "A leader has (1) the authority to decide what should happen and who should do it; (2) the responsibility to make it happen; (3) the accountability for what does actually happen" (p. 199).

Josefowitz made the point of differentiating between two concepts of power. The traditional, finite idea of power is the notion of forcefulness. It is vertical in nature, going from top to bottom with the strategy to get it by climbing to the top of the hierarchy. This writer introduced the term effectiveness as a basic idea of power. This concept has power as more elastic, sharing and enabling rather than coercive; a view consistent, in part, with the thoughts of French and Raven (1959).

Josefowitz (1980) declared:

The negative connotation of forcefulness relate to furthering your own ends at the expense of others or taking pleasure in their domination, either through sexual exploitation, verbal or physical aggression, or the threat thereof. This coercion and manipulation is considered to be "bad" power. On the other hand, "good" power is seen as helping people formulate their own goals and providing them with the means to achieve them. It is a concern for others .... Generally, however, "good" power makes both you and others feel more powerful. (p. 4)

Hersey and Blanchard (1982) agreed with Josefowitz (1980) when
they wrote, "it appears that dynamic and growing organizations gradually move away from reliance on power bases that emphasize compliance and toward the utilization of power bases that aim at gaining influence with people" (p. 190).

Josefowitz (1980) reminded her readers that a leader can lead only if the followers agree to be led. In this precept, she emphasized two considerations: the "led" must follow or want to follow. She maintained that those who must follow do so because of necessity and those who want to follow do so for potential gain or achievement of a superordinate goal. She proposed that "The effective leader is one whose subordinates want to be led as opposed to feeling coerced to do so." (p. 200)

Hart's (in Bass, 1981) work reinforced some of Josefowitz's contentions. He designed and evaluated a training program in leadership for adult women based on the Hersey-Blanchard Life Cycle Theory. Compared to a control group, the experimental group perceived themselves as more active, more in control of their lives, and more knowledgeable about listening skills. He attributed these results, in part, to an emphasis on training in interpersonal skills, leadership theory, life style, and motivation to be a leader.

Though concentrating his research on the differences in conflict resolution between men and women, Champion (1979) reviewed literature of the growing managerial role of women in organizations. Among several recommendations suggested by Champion was an emphatically stated need for training women in management practices.

Acquiring knowledge about management and leadership concepts was
declared to be necessary to the professional and career development of managers by many writers on this subject. The review of literature on this particular component did not offer any explicit findings that suggested it would differ from other variables in this study. Indeed, some evidence existed that challenged the effectiveness of the delivery of training on this subject. But there was present enough support to overcome this negativism to suggest that one could assert a more effective leader role with this knowledge and training.

Based upon the preceding discussion and rationale and because of the potential positive impact that increased knowledge of this component could have on the career development of the subjects in this study, it was hypothesized that knowledge of the management and leadership concepts would differ in importance from the other five components in this study. In order to add to the research on this matter, it was further hypothesized that knowledge of management and leadership concepts was perceived as more important in their contribution to career development by those women who reported career advancement and those who did not.

Networking

Henning and Jadim (1977) lamented about the plight of managerial women when they complained about the slow progress being made into higher level positions. They pointed to the strength of the male-dominated informal system of relationships and saw it as perpetuating force which kept capable women from advancing in organizations. These authors emphasized that men founded and developed most organ-
izations and, thus, were dominated by a male culture especially in the higher ranks of management. Hennig and Jardim saw this dominance as a threat to the future of women in management. To counter this resistance to women's progress, they proclaimed that:

...women must believe they are, and in fact must be, as competent as their male counterparts. In-depth competence in their chosen field has traditionally been one of women's outstanding strengths... but competence as a manager requires understanding and skill at working in and with the informal system of relationships in which management jobs are embedded. Such competence represents a stage which most women in organizations have not yet reached, and the guarantee of equal opportunity is empty unless opportunities are created for women to acquire the knowledge and skill which will make it possible for them to understand, to enter and to compete within the informal systems of middle management. (p. xiv)

Hall and Hall (1976) viewed women seeking higher level management positions in a similar fashion. They contended that placement of women in non-traditional jobs, normally filled by men, without access to support systems such as the informal network and coaching, have made success elusive for these women.

Women managers, wrote Champion (1979), do not participate to the same extent as men in the informal group relationships with other managers. Champion drew attention to the effectiveness of these informal groups, as did Welch (1980) and Stern (1981), and referred to them as "old boy networks" (p. 233).

Networking is, according to Welch (1980), "the process of developing and using your contacts for information, advice and moral support as you pursue your career. It's linking the women you know to the women they know in an ever-expanding communications network" (p. 15). Welch emphasized that the result of participating in such a network is necessary for women to become more effective and successful.
in male-dominated environments. Stern (1981) presented an amorphous view of networking when she wrote:

Any group calling itself a NETWORK is a group involved in defining itself, rather than one obligated to fit into a pre-determined structure. . . . it provides a broad umbrella for various sorts of organizations. The flexibility is all to the good . . . . I think a good deal of the fuss over NETWORK definitions, precise structure, and formalities is unnecessary, since groups should feel free to call themselves networks without any need to establish a right to do so. (p. 17)

In a period of social transition, the removal of obstacles and barriers to women's progress was a powerful benefit of employing the networking concept (Stern, 1981). She wrote about the variety of help that could be found among career women. Some of this help included coping with a support system, professional advice, job vacancy sharing, and a sense of belonging with others who care. This assistance was consistent with that reported by Donohue (1983) who listed information exchange, increased contacts, friendship, support, and personal skills and knowledge as networking benefits.

Twenty-eight executive women, interviewed by Davis (1983), also gave credence to networking. Among a variety of factors cited as helpful, developing support systems and staying active in networking were identified as important contributors to their success.

Donahue's (1983) study of 90 randomly selected members of a horizontal women's professional and managerial network (n=451) indicated a direct relationship between the extent of involvement with network activities and career assistance; the higher the involvement, the higher the likelihood of career effects. Her findings indicated that 54.7% of the population found their current job through personal contact, a form of networking.
Stern discussed with some amazement, that goals of the many networks forming across the country were virtually the same. Using her own network as an example, Stern revealed that peer support was the first articulated goal of the group. The second goal was career advancement which emphasized, "the best jobs are gained through contacts and connections, the who do you know method" (p. 45). The third was educational outreach; the effort to find and develop other promising women. Peer support was selected by Stern as the goal overriding the other two in their importance. "We reach out to share experiences and to create common bonds on a professional level, and to find out what others are doing and how they are handling decisions we all have to face" (Stern, 1981).

Welch (1980) wrote of her networking experiences and identified a sampling of 25 success stories. She also contrasted a few unsuccessful experiences with an inference that if effective networking principles were employed, the outcomes might have been quite different. Dziech (1983) concurred with the potential of networking. In her concern for female educators, she proposed the building of communication and support bases comparable to those that have worked so well for men. She identified networking and an informal system among women as necessary for advancement. The building of such support groups was advocated as part of the survival dynamics for women in educational administration by Gordon and Ball (1977). When women faculty were asked to name the most valuable outcome of their leadership training program, White (1983) reported that they mentioned sharing, support systems, networking, shared problem
solving and feelings of fellowship.

Capek (1982) reported findings on career patterns sponsored by Princeton University in cooperation with the American Council on Education. He stated that women in higher education seemed to have learned how to promote their own careers in ways similar to men, and that both men and women effectively used contacts to advance their careers. Capek added that the research team which conducted the study reported that women used each other as resources and women's networks appeared to be useful.

Not all the literature supported networking as a positive force resulting in career progress. Vaudrin (1982), in her study of the upward mobility of women managers, which included higher education administrators, reported only negligible help attributable to networking as a mode of career advancement.

Similar data was reported by Odendahl (1982). She studied the development of a women's employment network in a large financial corporation. Odendahl's conclusion was that the network did not promote the career advancement (the primary purpose) of a majority of its members. However, she did say that the women were positively served by the provision of moral and personal support and by increasing the amount of relevant information to the members.

Barnier's (1981) synthesis of literature and research on mentoring as it pertained to adult and career development resulted in her assertion that women are hindered in their advancement because of the homogeneity of the "informal/old boy" system. She linked the informal system and access to mentoring which she believed was beneficial, if not necessary, to career development.
The literature on networking as a career development component suggested that it was influential in the career development of managerial aspirants. One suggestive element contributing to the support of this component resulting from the literature lies in the old adage of "it's not what you know, but who you know". The growth of women's networks and the understanding of how they can be used to enhance the chances of improving one's career serves a foundation for the opinion that the women in this study would see this component as potentially important to them.

The research on networking does little to reveal the degree or directional differences this component will have when compared with other variables in this study. But, it was hypothesized that networking would be viewed as differing in importance by the participants in this study when compared with the other components. Based upon the rationale found in the literature, it was also hypothesized that networking would be perceived as more important by those subjects who reported career advancement than those who did not.

**Mentoring**

A review of women's training programs by Touchton and Shavlik (1978) resulted in the opinion by these authors that skill-building emphasis in such programs was not adequate to improve the numbers of women reaching academic leadership positions. Touchton and Shavlik identified mentoring as an on-the-job training method which could be effective in helping upwardly mobile women administrators.

Nolan (1982) understood mentoring to be the interpersonal rela-
tionship that occurred when a more experienced person introduces a less experienced person into the norms and culture of an organization. Nieva and Gutek (1981 p. 59) wrote of mentoring similarly. They referred to the mentor system as that special case of the general social networks through which a new promising employee gets assimilated into the work system. McNeer (1983) was impressed with Jennings' view of mentoring when he stated his definition, "as winning couplet, the teaming of a senior and a junior executive who advanced through the corporate ranks together" (p. 8).

The Woodlands Group (1980) differentiated the term "mentor" with two other related terms, "coach" and "sponsor." The group defined the "coach" in the more formal context of organizational practices such as, performance appraisals, career planning and assessment centers. The "sponsor" discovers and fosters enhanced placement in the organization. According to the Woodlands Group, the "mentor" is the most significant of the three roles, "... a trusted counselor and guide" (p. 920). Often self-appointed, the mentor possesses genuine generosity, compassion and concern; caring is the core of the relationship.

Lester and Johnson (1981) maintained mentoring was helpful in progressing in one's position. These writers described mentoring as a form of education for human development. They emphasized the holistic, yet individualized, approach to learning. Lester and Johnson described mentoring as experiential learning and saw it contributing to the growth of one's sense of intellectual competence, sense of purpose, feelings of autonomy and personal integrity.
Research reported by Bova and Phillips (1984) disclosed what and how proteges learned from their mentors. The ten findings from the study were able to be grouped into four categories. As a result of role modeling and experiential conditions, the proteges learned: (1) risk-taking behaviors, (2) communication skills, (3) political skills, and (4) skills related specifically to the profession of the mentor.

An organization that has formally introduced an exemplary mentoring system into its management practices was the Jewel Tea Company. Collins and Scott (1978) interviewed three successive chief executives who pointed out the value of their personal mentoring relationships and how each new trainee at the Jewel companies is now assigned an officer to act as mentor. However, this formality of organizational assignment appeared incompatible with the spirit of the mentoring process (Woodlands Group, 1980). The Group advised, that mentorship is more effective when "informally volunteered and executed" (p. 920).

The overall value of mentors was recognized by Roche (1979) when he reported that, of the nearly two-thirds of the 1,250 executive level respondents (31%) having a mentor relationship, the majority were likely to earn more money, were more likely to follow a career plan and experience job satisfaction. In turn, they would sponsor or mentor others more often than those who themselves had no previous mentors. Of particular note in Roche's study was his agreement with Henning and Jardim (1977) that the women needed father-like sponsors to reach top management positions.
Women as Protégés

Nieva and Gutek (1981) declared, however, that women are rarely sponsored in this manner, citing men find it difficult to accept a woman as a protégé. These authors stated that a mentor usually wants assurance of continuity that is dependent on career commitment and personal drive that involves long term professional involvement. The predominant view of women and their commitment to their careers, stated Nieva and Gutek, was that of unreliability. The Woodlands Group (1980) suggested a different reason for this condition as did Fitt and Newton (1981). The reluctance of men to participate as a mentor was the result of the implied intimacy of the mentor-protégé relationship. The Group wrote, "But the intimacy... may discourage even the highest male risk-taker. ... His motives may be questioned with snide comments which cause tension in both office and home" (p. 921).

White (1970) wrote of the difficulties for women to advance in science because they were left out of the informal, male dominated sponsorship system. White cited a number of reasons for this situation:

He may be delighted to have her as an assistant, but he may not see her as a colleague. He may believe that she is less likely to be a good gamble, that she is financially less dependent upon a job. Because of subtle pressure from his wife, he may temper his publicly expressed enthusiasm or interest. (p. 414)

Loring and Wells (1972) also wrote of this difficulty and added that women mentors are also sparse. They lamented that women find few female mentors available to help, and agreed with others that it was rare for a man to choose a woman as a protégé. These authors
insisted that men as well as women executives should take on mentoring roles. They believed that male managers should be expected by their superiors to coach aspiring women toward managerial preparation.

Nieva and Gutek wrote that many women are not as active as men in participating as a sponsored individual in an organization. This condition was also noted by Barnier (1981) and Hennig and Jardim (1977) who reported that the women they studied originally thought that superior competence and technical ability were the real determinants of advancement. They waited to be chosen, an observation also reported by Stern (1981), relying on their belief in the formal structure caring for their best interest. Nieva and Gutek (1981, p. 58) noted Schreiber's opinion of a contrasting difference in men who concern themselves with informal ties of loyalty and dependence; a critical difference in an individual's life and movement at work.

The more limited opportunities for women to be a protege suggested by this literature was buffered by Keele's and DeLaMare-Schaefer's (1984) perspective that career benefits can come from participating in this process by being the mentor. They stated, "That being a mentor has positive effects on one's own career development seems not to have been communicated to women with the same force as the benefits of having a mentor" (p. 37).

Men vs Women as Mentors

In contrast to the literature which maintained that men were not available as mentors, several writings did surface revealing men as
willing mentors for women. In Villani's (1983) study of female educators, which included both male and female mentors, she suggested that a positive correlation existed between success in overcoming internal and external barriers of the subjects and the mentoring relationship. Consistent with much of the literature on this topic, her in-depth interviews revealed that male and female mentors contributed to increased confidence and belief of the subjects succeeding in educational administration. Villani added that some mentors did not fully comprehend the extent to which they could contribute to the advancement of the mentees. She suggested that potential mentors become more knowledgeable about the mentoring process. It was the more knowledgeable and committed mentors who had the greatest influence with the mentees in her research.

Another field study by Dickson (1983) contrasted the opinions that men were not active in mentor roles. This researcher reported that with a return rate of 59% (258 subjects), women comprised 16.4% (n=68). Just over half of the sample of 258 reported having a mentor (53.5%) and being a mentor (54.7%). Dickson indicated that women did not receive less mentoring than men nor were they less likely than men to be mentors (p > .05). Other findings reported by Dickson included no significant difference in the relationship of salary and mentorship (p > .05), and over half (56.0%) thought that the mentoring process reduced time that it took to improve administrative level.

**Effects of Mentoring.** Much of the literature of mentoring professed to have positive influences on the career development of the
participants. Mentoring as a means of administrative position attainment was thought to be effective in a study of California community College male and female administrators (Nolan, 1982). Besides finding that top level administrators who had mentors entered administration earlier than those who did not, Nolan reported that the relationships were both meaningful and satisfying.

From a national sample of 501 doctoral credentialed nurses, Spengler (1982) revealed that a majority of subjects (57%) had mentors with 64% of this number having two or more mentors. The comparisons made by the researcher showed that those subjects mentored followed more frequently a definitive career plan (p < .01) than those subjects who had no mentoring. The mentored group also experienced greater satisfaction with career progress (p < .004) and had a greater sense of accomplishment related to career goals (p < .007). Spengler went on to state that the mentor-protege relationship was supportive, intellectually stimulating by an overwhelming majority (99.2%) of the subjects.

Vaudrin (1983) reported that 75% of 230 women business managers and higher education administrators she surveyed reported having one or more mentors during their careers. The (97%) who reported the instrumentality of at least one "significant other" to their career advancement. There were multiple individuals, according to Vaudrin, that provided other substantial support to the professional and personal development of the subjects. They possessed varied positional authority and used a variety of formal and other available power to promote careers of subjects. Vaudrin suggested that this array of

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supportive relationships had implications for career development models that incorporates mentoring as a key component.

**Negative Impacts.** One rare contrast to the positive side of mentoring was revealed in an impressive study by Blotnick (1984). Blotnick revealed that after tracking 3,000 mentor-protege pairs over the past 25 years, in more than 2,000 cases, there was an adverse effect on the personal growth of the mentee. These pairs were drawn from the original sample of five thousand young adults, 2,900 men and 2,100 women who were randomly selected from colleges and companies across the country. The subjects were interviewed at least twice a year during the 25 years, as most aged to their late thirties and forties.

Of the 3,000 mentor-protege pairs, 1,500 of the mentors were male and 1,500 were females. Blotnick's study stated that in 40% of the cases where mentor and protege are boss and subordinate, the relationship ended with the protege being fired by the mentor. The reason given by Blotnick was the degree of intensity of the relationship. He claimed:

> The psychological demands placed on both parties are too great to be sustained. The balance of power shifts radically when boss and subordinate are mentor and protege with the protege gradually assuming a false equivalence in the mentor's mind. . . . the mentor gets tired of the constant inner tension. Something's got to give-and it's usually the protege. (p. 44)

Other factors identified by Blotnick adversely affecting the relationship included an increased level of scrutiny, a large work load, and a complicated and misleading stunting personal and professional relationship. In addition to increased tension caused by
overwork, Blotnick reported evidence of undermining the feelings of self-worth and independence.

Intensity of Mentoring. Blotnick's work suggested a relationship between intensity and psychological involvement and effectiveness in the protege's career development. Shapiro, Haseltine, and Rowe (1975) discussed job mobility and sponsoring in academe and suggested that a continuum of relationships existed from lesser to greater intimacy and importance. Similar to the Woodlands Group, Missirian (1980) concluded that there existed different kinds of supportive relationships and referred to the conceptual model of Shapiro et al. (Figure 1), which placed these on a continuum ranging from peer (low support) to mentor (high support). Missirian also detailed related elements in the mentoring process on this continuum: (a) degree of power, (b) level of identification with mentor, and (c) intensity of emotional involvement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(low)</th>
<th>Peer</th>
<th>Coach</th>
<th>Sponsor</th>
<th>Mentor</th>
<th>(high)</th>
</tr>
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Figure 1. A Conceptual Model of a Continuum of Supportive Relationships Suggested by Shapiro, Hazeltine & Rowe (1978).

Others presented varying views of segmented mentoring concepts. Ryan (1983) wrote of altruistic and self-oriented reasons for mentoring and Phillips (1977) distinguished between primary and second-
ary mentors. Primary mentors were considered "significant others" who have been crucial in assisting the protege in achieving life goals. Secondary mentors played a less crucial role in the protege's career development.

Moore (1983) also reported findings partially endorsing this condition. She found that California Community College women administrators ranked having a sponsor or mentor sixth among factors helpful in the development of their careers (being competent and having drive were the most helpful). Moore said that an average of 2.7 people influenced the development of the subjects' careers as trainer, teacher, role model sponsor or mentor. Deans had significantly more people influence on them than the other two groups in the study, presidents and associate deans.

Other findings reported by Moore included 89% of the mentors having two or more proteges. Associate deans helped significantly fewer proteges than their superiors and 48% of the respondents reported acting as mentors at least once. Fewer presidents mentored others than deans and associate deans. These latter two groups reported helping women over men, three to one.

The review of literature suggested that mentoring would often help a person in developing and advancing a career. While mentoring was more identified and readily recognized as a career development technique successfully used in the private sector, there was a fair amount of literature about the value of mentoring in higher education circles. Also, there was limited empirical evidence found that suggested that mentoring was effectively used specifically in
community colleges as an aid to enhancement of female careers.

The literature reviewed relative to this component suggested a tentative condition in the use of mentors for career development in higher education. The range of use intensity of the mentor system also appeared to influence its effectiveness. This created a condition of uncertainty of its effect on career development. However, the increased awareness of such a factor might well result in its increased use and contribution to career development.

Thus, it was hypothesized that mentoring would be different in its importance when compared to the other career development factors identified in this study. Further, the rationale put forth by the literature supported the position that mentoring could help a person acquire job promotion or job advancement. Another hypothesis suggested, then, was that those women in this study who experienced upward job movement would view mentoring as more important than those who did not.

**Special Work Project**

Special work assignments are commonly used in organizations as ways of developing the potential of employees (Heneman, Schwab, Fossum and Dyer, 1980). Often used in conjunction with a coach or mentor, this training practice involves assignment on special committees, projects or tasks, usually on a temporary basis. Heneman et al. stated that the purpose was to give the employee opportunities to work on special problems to which they otherwise would not become exposed. Within this framework for employee development, Heneman et
al. emphasized the effectiveness of using these special assignments as "on-the-job" training experiences.

*Business Week* (1975) reported that short-term special assignments were among the methods many companies used to hasten the learning process of promising managers. Reference was made to Thomas C. Theobold, head of Citibank World Corporation Group, who inferred that these special assignments provided opportunities for those up-coming managers to use the assignments to demonstrate sensible judgment and decision-making ability.

Sears Roebuck and Company was another company cited by Wellbank, Hall, Morgan, and Hammer (1978) utilizing special job assignments within the framework of its career development and human resource program. Wellbank explained that these assignments were made in accordance with several key principles. These principles included:

1. The most important influences on the employee occur on the job.
2. Different jobs demand development of different skills.
3. Development occurs only if a person has not yet acquired the skills demanded by a particular job.
4. Identification of a rational sequence of job assignments can reduce the time required to develop skills in a particular job.

The technique of assigning special projects for the purpose of training and employee development was also mentioned by Kaye (1983) and Schein (1964). Kaye suggested that use of the special projects technique was a practical training option requiring only moderate
organizational structure and involvement for its implementation. She listed this option as one of a number of potential effective techniques available to organizations. Kaye believed that a person could gain valuable experience by taking on temporary projects outside the normal work routine. Schein proposed a plan for introducing new employees into the workplace. Among a number of suggestions, he advocated apprentice-type experiences, where the new employee's special assignment is carried out with the help of a coach who provides guidance and support.

The use of special projects and assignments need not be limited to new employees. Nolan (1982) more recently commented that job enriching activities can be a valuable career development practice for middle and upper level administrators, especially when used in conjunction with a mentor. In his study of supervisory selection procedures, Rendero (1980) referred to selection guidelines formally presented to supervisors of the Quick Chek Food Stores company. Five major training techniques were cited, which if employed would increase chances of supervisors achieving promotions. Other literature suggested that the use of job enriching experiences has become more common in recent years with some impressive arguments about its potential effectiveness (Lyles, 1983).

Miller (1979) wrote of strategies to achieve change in organizations by job redesign. Though his job redesign ideas suggested rather comprehensive changes in job tasks, inherent in its application were the implications of resulting gains in new knowledge and skills, recognition, and opportunities for personal development.
Hall and Hall (1976, p. 113) suggested a way of enhancing one's career through job enrichment activities. They advocated adding more responsibility, increasing authority and working on special assignments. These authors cited American Telephone & Telegraph Company's (AT&T) practice of training supervisors of certain new employees in the skills of job enrichment as a way of making initial jobs more of a "stretching experience." Ford's (1972) account of AT&T's efforts in this area verified this reference and attested to its wider application throughout the company in a variety of work locations and job levels.

Wexley and Yukl (1977) presented job enrichment as primarily an approach for increasing intrinsic motivation and job satisfaction. They wrote that it served to fulfill growth needs such as achievement, competence and self-actualization. The enriching experiences mentioned by Wexley and Yukl resulted from a person assuming more responsibility, self-direction, and providing the opportunity to perform interesting, challenging and meaningful work.

Special job assignments were identified by Digman (1980, p. 161) as a means of executive development that utilize new skills after training occurred. A form of this specialty assignment was reported by Oster (1975). He detailed the Claremont woman administrator's program, a three year pilot program offering practical experience [internships] in academic administration, as an effort to meet the need for more women in administrative positions in higher education.

One theoretical model involving job enrichment was tested by Giles (1977). While determining that locus of control and intrinsic
motivation were moderators of the relationship between higher-order need satisfaction and volunteering for job enrichment, Giles was able to support the proposition in Lawler's expectancy theory that job enrichment was affected by the valences of the outcomes associated with an enriched job.

One of the more impressive theories suggested for the support of job redesign and job enrichment efforts found in the literature was attributed to Herzberg (1968). Szilagyi and Wallace (1980) pointed to Herzberg's (1966) two-factor framework for job redesign efforts aimed at increasing worker satisfaction and performance. Szilagyi and Wallace's application of the "motivators" from the two-factor theory focused on vertical expansion of the job assignment. Specific to the research variable in this study, the tasks of this job expansion were those which would result in increased responsibility, decision-making, feedback, accountability, personal growth and development and achievement.

Paul, Robertson, and Herzberg (1968) referred to Herzberg's (1968) work as a pioneering effort applying principles of job enrichment. According to Paul et al., Herzberg held that the purpose of job enrichment attempts to improve task efficiency and human satisfaction. This is done by building into jobs a "greater scope for personal achievement and subsequent recognition, more challenging and responsible work, and more opportunity for individual advancement and growth" (p. 145).

This component of the dissertation, the special work project, represented a form of job enrichment and/or enlargement, two tech-
niques which have been receiving increased attention as career development techniques in many organizations. The literature review suggested that experiences gained by this component could provide impetus for career development and job promotion. It was uncertain if this component would differ in perceived importance from the other variables in this study. Because of this uncertainty, a hypothesis was presented that this variable, the special work project, differed in importance when compared to the other components in this study. Also, much of the contemporary view expressed in the preceding writings supported the use of this variable to gain needed experience as managers. This broadened work experience was thought to have high potential in advancing managerial positions. Based upon that support, it was hypothesized that this component would be perceived as more important by those women who experience job advancement than those subjects who did not report any advancement.

Training of Women in Higher Education

The following section reviewed several programs conducted in recent years which were thought to be consistent with the purposes of the training program focused in this investigation. Evaluative attempts were made by writers who were interested in determining the impact of some programs. It was thought that by detailing the description of these programs, the reader would gain some background and understanding which would help put the "Leaders for the 80s" (the training program in this study) in perspective.

One call for effective programs to assist women in moving into
senior administrative positions in higher education was made by Andre and Edwards (1979). They expressed concern that despite affirmative action programs, women are not achieving an appropriate number of positions in higher level positions in universities. Their call for an increase in training programs for women was coupled with the concern for evaluation of the effectiveness of existing programs.

Program Reviews

Andre and Edwards identified six female training programs that have been developed since 1973. They included programs that were weekend conferences intended to assist in career pathing to full-time comprehensive internships of up to ten months. These writers studied various elements of all but one of these programs which were conducted from 1973 to 1977.

The earlier programs emphasized compensatory education because it was thought that women had been excluded from formal and informal training experiences which would contribute to male preparation for senior administrative positions.

The more recent programs had an emphasis on managerial skills and fiscal knowledge. The latest program studied (1976) stressed the creation of professional networks and used of the case study method of instruction. It also added a three career exploration component.

Of 250 women surveyed by Andre and Edwards from these six training programs, 90 returned questionnaires. They ranged in age from 23 to 57, with a median age of 34. The doctorate was held by 53%, the masters by 35%, and the bachelors by 10%.
Thirty-six percent of the respondents reported positive effects on their careers. Positive effects included being asked to assume greater responsibilities and being offered higher level positions. Thirty-four percent reported no career change as a result of the training. The remaining 31% may have experienced job changes but did not explicitly attribute them to the training. This latter group did, however, report changes categorized by Andre and Edwards, less substantive. These included assertiveness, self-confidence, and self-determination.

Andre and Edwards also reported in their study the relative "usefulness" between components of the six training programs. Components most often reported "very useful" included information on university structure, budgets, and the experience of sharing the training with women. Other factors of "usefulness" included personal friendships, professional contacts, information about state and federal relations, public relations, and legal issues.

When asked about whether or not training should be designed exclusively for women, 58% said yes, 18% had mixed feelings, and 24% said no. A reason in support of the exclusiveness mentioned by Andre and Edwards was the need women have for special help to compensate for the absence of an "an old girl system" (p. 16).

Andre and Edwards offered several suggestions for the planning of future programs. The placement success of the only program of the six in this study which served all degree levels (bachelors, masters, doctorates) suggested that a market for managerial training existed and that it included young women who wish to enhance their
administrative skills. While not rejecting the need for mixed training programs [men and women], Andre and Edwards, however, stated that their data indicated support for programs designed specifically for women.

In making this recommendation, Andre and Edwards implied that a more cooperative atmosphere existed in such a "female only" setting. The authors contrasted that cooperative environment with one of competitiveness and stated, "If a female management style exists, it is probably to be found in the ability and tendency to create more cooperative structures. Constituency of sex promises to continue to be a lively and important issue in program design" (p. 17).

Andre and Edwards' summary remarks cautioned that training programs are not panaceas. However, they supported these special programs and highlighted their potential in making or modifying career plans. They provide access to female role models and contribute to a sense of professional identity. They can increase a woman's visibility and provide access to important professional networks which can ultimately lead to more tangible rewards such as monetary raises, increased responsibilities, and new opportunities.

Institute in Higher Education

Another activity preparing women for advancement in higher education was reported by Secor (1984), who detailed a summer training program originally funded from the William H. Donner Foundation in 1976. The program, now fully self-supported and operating in its ninth year, is the Institute in Higher Education.
Administration co-sponsored by Higher Education Resource Services (HERS), Mid-America and Bryn Mawr College. The Institute was designed for female administrators who might advance their careers by gaining new skills which would enhance their performance in their existing positions and give them other insights about moving ahead in organizations.

Secor's overview of the Institute's history detailed that the original proposal to the Donner Foundation emphasized the training of women in administrative and management skills. However, it also identified as a principal goal the development of a women's network which would eventually serve to improve the employment condition of other women in higher education.

The blending of ideas from the several co-sponsoring agencies resulted in a beginning that emphasized planning as the curriculum focus. Secor disclosed that the Institute began its first year with attention to governance and institutional planning and end with attention to life career and life planning. Sandwiched between were six other major areas: (a) financing, (b) the academy as employer, (c) computers, (d) planning, (e) professional networks, support systems and mentor relations, and (f) decision-making and economics. Curriculum refinement over the years has resulted in the development of a core curriculum for the Institute which highlighted six major components:

1. Professional development - focus was on individual career mapping, professional networks, and the analysis of institutional environments; also covered were public policy issues, new technology, future of higher education, an array of minority concerns, and social
and professional variables that have potential for divisiveness among people;

2. Academic governance - emphasis was on the decision-making process, policy implementation, and constituent groups; attention was given to the complex mixture of collegiality, bureaucracy and politics; also included were multi-campus systems, research universities, private liberal arts colleges, church-related institutions, and community colleges; finally, the role of the trustee was explored and leadership was presented as the primary challenge facing administrators;

3. Human relations - dealt with group behavior and dynamics, conflict management and motivation of self and others; a theoretical base was provided for affective as well as cognitive learning and an emphasis was given to situational leadership and gender socialization for administrative and leadership styles;

4. Finance and budgeting - focus was on accounting, budget procedures, and politics of budgeting; assessment of money and its flow, acquisition and allocation taught along with management information systems, ratio analysis, cash management and long-range planning;

5. Administrative use of the computer - emphasis was on practical experience with various software and hardware; thrust was to demystify a complex technical area;

6. Management and leadership - skill development in basic concepts of planning, organizing, staffing and communicating was emphasized; legal issues and labor relations were also studied;
organizational structure of higher education was viewed in terms of functional areas (i.e., academic affairs, administrative services, public relations, development, personnel and student services);

**The Administrative Skills Program**

A companion Administrative Skills Program was initiated by HERS, New England and Wellesly College in 1977. With the identical purpose of helping women advance in their careers, an evaluation of the effects of this training program was undertaken. This research, reported by Speizer (1984), dealt with the longitudinal assessment of a series of five weekend seminars funded in part by a grant from the Fund for the Improvement of Post-Secondary Education (FIPSE).

The specific goals of this training program, which, if achieved, were intended to help the participants advance their careers, were three in number: (1) provide technical skills that can upgrade performance, and help in achieving promotion, or both, (2) establish a professional support network among women in the same geographic area, and (3) assist in acquiring the professional development tools necessary for advancement.

Six detailed skill areas were also identified: (1) fiscal management, (2) organizational behavior, (3) management skills, (4) information management, (5) government and university relations, and (6) professional development.

Speizer also explained the importance of visibility and networking in the program. Visibility of the women was assured by the steps which were taken to make known the participants in the training
program. Select individuals of the home institutions were made part of the application process. Their involvement was intended to gain a sense of commitment and support to this endeavor. Networking was seen to be a valuable component in improving contacts that could promote support and information about jobs and communication among those with common interests and similar problems.

In assessing this training effort, evaluators gathered information by means of a questionnaire from the 83 participants in the 1978 seminar. In a follow-up questionnaire mailed in 1980, 79 (95%) provided comparative information. The control group in this evaluation included those women who had inquired about the training but did not apply. Speizer stated that 70% of those inquiring about the program returned the original 1978 questionnaire. Of the 184 which that percentage represents, 167 (91%) supplied usable data from the follow-up questionnaire mailed in 1980. That 1980 follow-up questionnaire was designed to assess the impact of the skills taught in the training program on job promotion.

One additional element in the evaluation process was a second questionnaire which was mailed only to the 83 participants in the training program. That special one page questionnaire was intended to determine if the participants used skills taught in the program on the job and to ascertain what other aspect of the program had proved useful.

Findings. The stated purpose of the evaluation "was to assess the effect of participation in the program on promotion and job change" (p. 38). Speizer's account of the data revealed that 24
participants (30%) in the skills training program and 34 (20%) non-participants reported a promotion. Data from the second questionnaire (the 1980 follow-up only to participants) revealed that 53% thought that skills in the program had been helpful in job changes. Speizer remarked that the study did not specify what aspects of the skills training were most useful for promotion.

Amidst the numerous and detailed cross breaks of data comparing the two groups, Speizer declared that in spite of the short time period of two years in which to measure job promotion, participants in the Administrative Skills Program "... were found to have experienced a faster promotion rate than those who did not" (p. 42). She claimed that such a training program "... can be recommended as a technique for hastening the advancement of women" (p. 42). Speizer concluded by describing how increased visibility gained by the participants and network contacts that were reported provided new and increased opportunities in setting career goals and career advancement. She stated, "The evidence ... indicates that the Administrative Skills Program strategy appears to work" (p. 45).

Analysis. An analysis of the literature about women's managerial career development indicated that reduction of access and discrimination in organizations has not ended the barriers to female aspirants. Previous research has placed a reliance on stereotypes as explanations as opposed to broad psychological theory (White, Crino, and DeSanctis, 1981). Legislation has not reach the level of effectiveness originally intended. As Farley (1979) suggested, it may be
easier to change laws than to change the habits of behavior learned early in life.

The literature uncovered a multitude of self-help, personal and professional development programs. Many of these programs designed for women have the underlying assumption that women have unique problems that cannot be met by traditional training programs. However, evidence existed (Alpander and Guttman, 1976) that the training needs of men and women were essentially the same.

Others took a different view. Larwood, Wood and Inderlied (1978) claimed that women have special problems in the work environment. They advocated training programs for women which were custom designed to address these problems; programs which Hay's (1980) review of 121 management training programs highlighted a short supply.

White et al. (1981, p. 240) listed four main focii upon which training of women should be built:

1. Career awareness education.
2. Behavioral skills and strategies needed in organizations.
3. Ability to identify and remove stereotyped behavior in organizations.
4. Emphasis on mentoring, coaching, leadership development and positive role-modeling.

The Leaders

The Leaders for the 80's project, the focus of this dissertation, grew out of interest in advancing women's careers in higher
education. Bulpitt and Desjardins (1983) showed concern for women aspiring to administrative positions specifically in community colleges. They initiated action that addressed the career and management development needs of these women within the context of the social and educational mission of the community college movement in this country. They expressed their concern by stating:

It was felt that if women and minority women administrators did not increase in some ratio to women and minority women students, institutions of higher education would continue to function from a model developed to meet the needs of young male students and large portions of the nationwide college populations would be short changed in their educational experiences. (p. 2)

It was on this premise that the "Leaders for the 80s" was founded.

Hypotheses

The preceding literature review has provided insight and background for seven research hypotheses. These were previously identified in the body of the literature review but are repeated here to succinctly group them to assist the reader in focusing on the variables contrasted in this study. The research hypotheses were tested against the null hypotheses which are also presented in the following paragraphs:

1. With regard to the contribution made to career development, there are differences in perceived importance among the six major components of the training program: (a) self-esteem, (b) knowledge of community college issues, (c) management and leadership concepts, (d) mentoring, (e) networking, and (f) a special work project. Of these differences, it is conjectured that self-esteem would be perceived as more important than each of the other five components.
In contrast, the null hypothesis states that with regard to the contribution made to career development, there are no differences in perceived importance among the six major components of the training program: (a) self-esteem, (b) knowledge of community college issues, (c) management and leadership concepts, (d) mentoring, (e) networking, and (f) a special work project.

2. There is a difference in the importance attributed to self-esteem between those participants who have reported career advancement and those who have not. The null hypothesis states that no difference exists between these two groups with regard to the perceived importance of self-esteem.

3. There is a difference in the importance attributed to knowledge of community college issues between those participants who have reported career advancement and those who have not. The null hypothesis states that no difference exists between these two groups with regard to the perceived importance of knowledge of community college issues.

4. There is a difference in the importance attributed to knowledge of management and leadership concepts between those participants who have reported career advancement and those who have not. The null hypothesis states that no difference exists between these two groups with regard to the perceived importance of knowledge of management and leadership concepts.

5. There is a difference in the importance attributed to networking between those participants who have reported career advancement and those who have not. The null hypothesis states that no
difference exists between these two groups with regard to the perceived importance of networking.

6. There is a difference in the importance attributed to mentoring between those participants who have reported career advancement and those who have not. The null hypothesis states that no difference exists between these two groups with regard to the perceived importance of mentoring.

7. There is a difference in the importance attributed to the special work project between those participants who have reported career advancement and those who have not. The null hypothesis states that no difference exists between these two groups with regard to the perceived importance of the special work project.

Summary

Concentrating on the changing role of women in society, this chapter has presented a review of literature that focused on managerial training and career development. The writings on this subject reflected the changing economic and societal conditions as time has passed. The factors which contribute to career development, consequently, are also evolving and expanding, and parallel these changing conditions.

The latest of these conditions includes the expansionist activities of many different types of organizations that have involved themselves directly or indirectly in training of managerial talent. Much of this attention was attributable to the changing role of women in the workforce and their increasing aspirations to advance in
organizational managerial positions.

The thrust to add numbers of women in higher level administrative positions in post secondary educational institutions has resulted in increased training activities for women. The elements which made up one particular training program entitled, "Leaders for the 80s" were reviewed. The founders of this program thought these components would enhance the professional and career development and help advance the careers of its participants.

Six major components were reviewed: (1) self-esteem, (2) knowledge of community college issues, (3) knowledge of managerial and leadership concepts, (4) networking, (5) mentoring, and (6) a special work project. While all received considerable support as contributors to career development, the self-esteem component appeared to be especially valuable. The importance of each will be explored as stated in the previously stated hypotheses.

The following chapter describes in detail the procedures and methodology that were used for data collection and analysis in this investigation.
CHAPTER III

DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Background of the "Leaders"

During the three academic years, 1980-81, 1981-82, and 1982-83, the League for Innovation in the Community College and the American Association of Women in Community and Junior Colleges conducted a federally funded project called, "Leaders for the 80s." In each of the three years, a different group of women (the subjects in this study) were selected to participate in a managerial training program designed exclusively for "two-year college" professional women. A review of Bulpitt's (1981) initial grant request to the federal agency, Fund for the Improvement for Post Secondary Education (FIPSE, 1981), indicated that women made up a small percentage of the total number of administrators in community colleges. It further emphasized that these women tended to be clustered at the lower levels of management.

Dziech (1983) noted this condition and reported that in 1981, there were approximately 11,849 males and 5,887 females holding administrative positions in community colleges. She explained that the 2 to 1 ratio was much more inequitable than it appeared because of the large number of lower level positions which women held.

In addition, Bulpitt and Desjardins (1983) pointed out that only 6.8% of all college presidents were women. They argued for increased numbers of female community college administrators to serve the
changing community college clientele, the majority of whom (54%) were women.

The Institute for Leadership Development (now the formal name of this project) which grew out of the FIPSE (1981) grant served 305 women in entry level and mid-management positions, some with faculty status. Professional community college women were invited to apply to this professional development project after it was publicized through the League for Innovation in the Community College, the American Association of Women in Community and Junior Colleges and special mailings to approximately 1,200 two-year colleges. Women were invited to apply on their own, to nominate others, and college officials were encouraged to nominate potential participants.

Holzmiller (1983) detailed the selection criteria:

(1) three years of employment in a two-year institution; (2) the support of the applicant's college (the application form provides for a sign-off by a supervising administrator to attest to this commitment); and (3) an outline of a proposed project addressing a specific area in which the applicant felt she needed training to advance within the administrative structure. Other factors in the selection process were geographic distribution, institutional size and type, and ethnic representation. (pp. 38-39)

The participants represented community colleges from throughout the country. Each participant developed a work project which included the involvement of a mentor at her college. The project was one that lasted for the full year of the program and was intended to expand the participant's horizons and to emphasize new skills rather than existing ones.

The program also included an intensive week-long workshop in which each of the subjects of this study was required to attend. The
workshops were conducted in various parts of the country and were organized to accommodate sub-groups of those selected for that particular year. The primary factor in the make-up of any sub-group was the geographic location of their work site. The workshops were designed to relate educational issues to a variety of leadership and managerial topics. The major concepts covered in the workshops served as the variables in this study.

Purpose and Desired Outcomes

The components of the training program were identified by reading the objectives as stated in the FIPSE grant proposal (Bulpitt, 1981), and other unauthored documentation about the "Leaders for the 80s." Several discussions (Bulpitt and Dejardins, 1984) with the program organizers also contributed to this student's understanding of the program's overall design and purposes.

The specific purposes of the training program were found in an undated and unauthored evaluation summary document entitled, Leaders for the 80's Project. Among the purposes was the identification of community college women who showed potential for moving into management positions. It was further intended to provide these women with comprehensive training, a mentor relationship, a campus project, and support and networking for their career goals. Proposed outcomes included:

1. Increasing the number of community college women with specific administrative skills required for leadership positions.
2. Increasing the number of women in community colleges
who understand the critical new educational issues for the 1980s.

3. Increasing the number of identified mentors who are willing to assist aspiring women administrators.

4. Establishing a national support and career network for women administrators.

Research Design

As stated earlier in Chapter I, the purpose of this investigation was to determine the perceived importance of the concepts identified through the training program as perceived by the participants. It was also intended to determine the differences in those perceptions of the components between two groups, those women who experienced career advancement and those who did not. In gathering data, questionnaires were used to obtain a quantitative measure of the perceived importance for each component by the program participants.

The literature reviewed in the previous chapter emphasized the need for women to overcome socialization factors that have served as deterrents in the pursuit of managerial careers. Recent training efforts, specific to women educators, (Andre and Edwards, 1979; Secor, 1984; Speizer, 1984) were revealed that dealt with some of these factors. These efforts also implied that training in various managerial related topics could enhance the probability of success. The reviews of these programs were evaluative in nature and were similar to what Borg and Gall (1983) referred to as causal comparative or ex post facto research, since the causes influencing the subjects have presumably had some degree of effect.
This investigation is another such effort. It sought to explore the degree of influence each of the variables had in the career development in the minds of the participants, several years after their training experience. The nature of this research design can be described as an ex post facto field study. A period of one and a half to three and a half years has passed since the subjects experienced the training. No treatment and/or manipulative controls were within the investigator's province, often a criticism of this type of design.

Kerlinger (1973), while he cautioned against sacrificing scientific value for practical solutions, defended the use of such designs when he pointed out that they are strong in realism and have large social significance and heuristic qualities. While ex post facto field studies lack the precision of laboratory conditions, they do recognize that concomitant variables exist in real life settings and often provide an improved potential to generalize findings beyond the bounds of the laboratory setting. Campbell and Stanley (1963) addressed this situation when they referred to the common presence of decreasing external validity when laboratory techniques are employed to increase internal validity.

Kerlinger qualified his support for ex post facto research to those employing hypotheses testing. He was concerned because of the plethora of variables and variance usually present in a field situation. The circumstances to which he alluded often contributed to lack of precision in measurement and, thus, he advised that investigators should, "always treat the results and interpretations of the
data of ex post facto investigations with great care and caution" (p. 392).

**Design Considerations**

Because people, as research subjects in the behavioral sciences, possess large differences in experience and background, Winer (1971) noted that human responses to experimental treatments may show large variability. He stated, "In many cases, much of this variability is due to differences between people existing prior to the experiment" (p. 261).

Dayton (1970) identified a procedure that addressed this concern. He pointed to the use of the same group (as in this study) of subjects under all treatment levels. He maintained that this situation would contribute to a high degree of comparability (and high homogeneity) among subjects. The strategy he recommended is referred to as "repeated measures" analysis of variance. Dayton stated that one of the major purposes for the use of this design was the need to account for the passage of time in the application of the "treatment variables" and the desire to assess effects which develop over this time period.

The components being investigated in this study are of such a nature; one major group of subjects with treatment variables being assessed over time. Because they are dynamic in the sense of potentially affecting the subjects in a highly irregular and intermittent fashion, some caution is needed. In longitudinal type research, the time passage may alter the general environmental conditions which could adversely alter the one or more treatment combinations.
Dayton also cautioned against the condition of carry-over effects (multiple treatment interference) of one treatment level to another. However, he promptly dispelled his own concern when he pointed out that these effects can be balanced across all treatment levels which then allows meaningful treatment comparisons.

The application of the views of Winer (1971) and Dayton (1970) on handling this variability and time lapse considerations recognized that the same subjects observed under each of the treatments, provided a control on the differences between subjects. Winer stated:

"treatment effects for subject \( i \) are measured relative to the average response made by subject \( i \) on all treatments. . . . In this sense each subject serves as his own control - responses of individual subjects to the treatments are measured in terms of deviations about a point which measures the average responsiveness of that individual subject. Hence variability due to differences in the average responsiveness of the subjects is eliminated from the experimental error. (p. 261)"

Perceptions. Fein (1982) called attention to the criticism given by some authorities for using perceptions as a means of data collection in this type of research. Perceptions, however, while not always relating to reality and objectivity, do reflect a person's reaction to what is thought to be reality. To that degree, what is perceived to be real is in fact affecting behavior and opinion. In the case of this study, it was deemed vital to know how the subjects perceived their experiences in order to gauge the feedback about degree of importance to the subjects themselves.

Being sensitive to the criticisms of this type of research design and to gain scientific credence for what Kerlinger called the "scientific weak cousin of laboratory and field experiments"
(p. 408), the investigator of this field study took a careful and systematic approach to the details of its design and subsequent development.

**Procedures and Data Collection**

Procedures in this study included preliminary interviews with six participants of the training program (Leaders, 1984). These queries proved valuable in guiding this investigator's thoughts and helped in the understanding the scope of the project. They also provided a more in-depth appreciation of the need for such a program. Several telephone conversations (Bulpitt and Desjardins, 1984) with the Institute's founders who are employed with Rio Salado Community College in Phoenix, Arizona, and a personal visit with Bulpitt and Desjardins (1984) in Phoenix resulted in the identification of the variables in this study and the subsequent development of the research questions and hypotheses.

**Questionnaire Development**

The questionnaire used in this study was designed to obtain a quantitative measure (the dependent variable) of the perceived importance for each component (the independent variable) of the training program. After the early discussions with those familiar with the "Leaders," this investigator decided to formally meet with the principals involved in the creation of the program and review its content. It was believed that an orderly process of reviewing all available related documentation would identify and focus the major
concepts which could be organized into a research design and appropriate data could then be collected.

This review included an in-depth look at the week long workshop program schedules. Criteria used to develop the questionnaire items included the stated objectives of the "Leaders Project," the subject matter and concepts included in the year long program, and selection of those items to which all participants over the three years were exposed.

With regard to the workshops, a matrix was structured that illustrated the topics covered in each of nine sessions over the three years covered in this study. After each topic was related to the sessions, a grid was developed that revealed the consistency of topics throughout the sessions (Appendix A). This procedure and the interaction with Bulpitt and Desjardins (1984) resulted in a mutual agreement between this student and Bulpitt and Desjardins of the contents in each major concept.

**Limitations.** It should be noted that while many of the speakers and presenters at the workshops were the same for all sessions, some were not. Limiting the study, then, could be the discrepancy and the inconsistency of the actual presenters. Another could be the quality of delivery in either content or style of presenters. A third limitation involved the periodic introduction of isolated topics and the sporadic inclusion of others. However, for the purpose of this validation, the items selected were thoroughly reviewed and were thought to represent the essence of the training program.
Content Validity. Thus, the founders of the "Leaders" were integral to the establishment of the questionnaire and its content validity. In order to establish formal content validity, a rating document was prepared which included the earlier agreed upon contents of the program (Appendix B). The document paralleled the questionnaire which had been developed for a pilot study. Bulpitt and Desjardins were asked to rate the content in the document as to its appropriateness and validity.

The procedure followed was similar to that suggested by Hampleton and Associates (cited in Borg and Gall, 1983) for establishment of content validity. It was a domain-referenced technique that advised: (a) selection of two content experts, (b) provision of specific definitions of the domain content, (c) independent item relevance ratings by each expert using a 4 point scale, and (d) computation of a measure of inter-rater agreement to create an index of content validity.

The first nine items in this instrument were background and demographic items. The decision to include them was influenced by a desire to profile the subjects, the literature review and discussions with Mildred Bulpitt and Carolyn Desjardins the founders of the "Leaders for the 80s." Items 10 through 14 covered information about career advancement and resultant increased compensation. The remaining numbers, 15 through 20, dealt with the essence of this investigation, the contents representing the major concepts in the training program and the domains in the content validity scheme.

The domain definitions, then, rather than being defined and
given to the validation team for consideration, turned out to be those representative topics within each component (domain) as determined by the validators in conjunction with this researcher. This effort at achieving understanding of terminology first resulted in tentative and informal validation of the topics included in the questionnaire. Subsequent and formal validation of the questionnaire items was obtained several weeks later when Bulpitt and Desjardins who comprised the validation team, responded to the validation rating scale (Appendix B).

The questionnaire, then, had two sections: one for background and demographic data about the respondents and the other for choosing numeric values that represented the perceived importance of the concepts. The quantitative measures were to result from the respondents selecting numeric values of from 1 to 7 on a Likert-type scale (7 being high) from the representative topics within each component. The selection of this scale was influenced by Bali an (1982) who recommended its use for more mature subjects who were being asked complex questions and where a wide response of attitudes was expected.

The questions which were to collect the quantitative measures of perceived importance of the components were carefully and systematically formulated to help the respondent recall the experiences and intentions of the training program. Recognizing the time which elapsed from the formal exposure to the components, the selection of the words and phrases, as suggested by Sudman and Bradburn (1982), was intended to help the respondents in their recall. The final wording was determined after systematic review of the program.
documentation for each of the three years of the program and modified, where appropriate, after analysis of the pilot-test.

Pilot. Before the questionnaire (Appendix C) was mailed to each of the subjects, it was pilot-tested. The pilot-test was conducted using a random sample of 30 women who participated in the 1983-1984 class of 133 "Leaders." These women, who were not part of the original FIPSE funded project and not subjects in this study, represented the fourth year of operation of what is now known formally as, the "Institute for Leadership Development."

These women were asked through a letter by this investigator, with support in an accompanying letter from Bulpitt and Desjardins, to assist in the study by completing and returning the questionnaire. Twenty-five of the 30 (83%) women responded. An analysis of the responses of the pilot-test resulted in changes in the wording of some questions to assist in recalling the time period of the training (Sudman and Bradburn, 1982). It also changed the set of questions (originally 10 through 14a) which dealt with location of employment and increased earnings due to career advancement.

Mailings. After the pilot-test the questionnaires were mailed first class through the United States Postal Service. The contents of the mailings also included a letter of introduction from this investigator and explained the purpose of the study (Appendix D). An endorsement letter from Bulpitt and Desjardins was also included with a request for cooperation and participation (Appendix D).

An original mailing list of 308 program participants, reduced to
305 subjects due to duplicates, was obtained from the Institute's headquarters. With the thought in mind of achieving the highest possible percentage return, the final questionnaire (Appendix D) was designed to minimize the time demands made of the subjects. Each mailing also included a return addressed and stamped first class envelope. Identity of the respondents was not sought, but to facilitate data management, questionnaires were coded and returns were recorded so that the non-respondents could be identified. Three weeks after the initial mailing, non-respondents were contacted again by mail which included a second questionnaire. This second mailing contained another letter (Appendix D) from this student appealing for participation in the study. Return addressed and stamped first class envelopes were again supplied.

Data Analysis and Hypotheses

The components of the training program were identified as the independent variables in the study and were treated as nominal data. The averaged scores resulting from the selection of 1 to 7 values of the representative topics of the components were the dependent variables and were treated as interval data.

Two principal data analysis techniques were used in this study: (1) repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) in a one dimensional design and (2) the standard t test for independent groups. To test the first hypothesis, the repeated measures in a one dimensional design was used. The null hypothesis stated that no differences existed among the six major components identified in this study:
(a) self-esteem, (b) knowledge of community college issues, (c) knowledge of management and leadership concepts, (d) networking, (e) mentoring, and (f) a special work project.

With alpha level set at the .05 level, an alternative hypothesis was offered that stated the mean scores differed; specifically, at least one mean will differ from the rest. A corollary hypothesis to the set of means scores thought to be different was that one variable, self-esteem, was directionally different. It was conjectured to be of more importance than the other variables.

The Bonferroni (Dunn) post hoc test was used to determine if differences existed among the pairs of variables. Because the computer printout of this test did not specify the mean scores of the variables, the Duncan post hoc was employed to identify the exact means of each. Dependent $t$ tests were then calculated to provide additional information regarding the corollary hypothesis, that self-esteem would be more important than the other components.

In comparing the respective mean values of the six measured components, the $t$ test for independent means was used to determine the differences between those participants who reported career advancement and those participants who did not. The results were compared against each of the six null hypotheses that stated there were no differences in the mean scores of the six components between the two groups.

Alternative hypotheses were developed that were directional and stated that the mean scores of the group of women who have reported career advancement were higher than those women who reported no
advancement.

The alpha level of each comparison was set at .05. Data from the returned questionnaires was codified, compiled into a computer file and analyzed statistically using the Statistical Analysis System (1982) computer program.
CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

This chapter reports the quantitative results of the questionnaires and also includes some demographic information which depicts a profile of the respondents. These results are analyzed through procedures specified in Chapter III and includes testing of the seven hypotheses, developed and presented previously in Chapter II.

The Population

Profile of the Respondents

The population for this study consisted of a group of professional female educators who participated in a professional development program entitled, "Leaders of the 80s." At the time of their leadership training (1981, 1982 and 1983), women in each of the three groups were employed primarily in community colleges. Most worked in lower or middle management and some held faculty positions. All had expressed interest in higher level administrative and leadership positions. Of the 305 women identified as participants in the program, 251 (82%) returned usable questionnaires.

Age and Education

The subjects were asked to provide specific demographic data in order to shape their profile. As Table 1 indicates, the respondents fell predominantly into two age ranges, 30-39 (36%) and 40-49 (45%).

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Table 1

Age of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Range</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>29 &amp; under</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 - 39</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>36.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 - 49</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>45.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 &amp; over</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>16.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. N = 250.

Table 2

Educational Attainment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Current Study</th>
<th>Holzmiller Study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelors</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>58.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specialist</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctorate</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>38.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup>N = 250.

<sup>b</sup>N = 128.
Table 2 categorizes the educational attainment of the women. Of particular note is the percentage reporting completion of the doctorate degree. Holzmiller (1983) studied the same population and her data suggested that 25% of her respondents possessed this degree and that another 26.5% were in-progress. Two years later, as shown in this study, that percentage has increased to 38%. Obviously, a large number of the doctorate in-progress completed their studies.

Ethnic and Marital Status

Information about ethnic origin was collected and is presented in Table 3. An overwhelming majority of the respondents, 221 (88%) were white. Sixty-four percent were married and living with their spouses with another 21% indicating they were divorced at the time of this study (Table 4). The marital status of the group is similar to that reported by Holzmiller (1983) whose study emphasized the profile of this same group of women. A comparison with the Holzmiller study

Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnic Background</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>221</td>
<td>88.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>6.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian/Pacific Islander</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American Indian/Alaskan</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. N = 250.
indicates more recent, though small, movement in marital status
toward marrying and living with spouse.

Table 4
Marital Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Status</th>
<th>Current Study</th>
<th></th>
<th>Holzmiller Study</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N^a</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N^b</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>Never married</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married/living with spouse</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>60.5</td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married/living apart from spouse</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>Separated</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widowed</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>Widowed</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>No response</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a^N = 248.
b^N = 228.

Children

It appears, as Table 5 illustrates, that the respondents had few children in their households, especially children 12 years old and younger. As could be expected with a majority of respondents exceeding 40 years of age, the highest category of children reported was the 13 to 18 year olds. Sixty four respondents (25%) reported a total of 96 children in this age bracket living at home with only five respondents stating they had more than two children.
Table 5
Number of Respondents and Children in Age Categories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age category</th>
<th>Current Study</th>
<th></th>
<th>Holzmiller Study</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Respondent</td>
<td>Children</td>
<td></td>
<td>Respondent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>N(^a)</td>
<td>N(^*)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under 1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 to 6</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>38</td>
<td></td>
<td>Birth to 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 to 12</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>36</td>
<td></td>
<td>6 to 12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 to 18</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>96</td>
<td></td>
<td>13 to 18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>173(^c)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Totals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No children</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td>No children</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(\text{\textsuperscript{a}}\text{N} = 251.\)
\(\text{\textsuperscript{b}}\text{N} = 228.\)
\(\text{\textsuperscript{c}}\text{Average} = 1.32 \text{ children per respondent having children.}\)
\(\text{\textsuperscript{d}}\text{Average} = 1.29 \text{ children per respondent having children.}\)

*Total number of children in category.

A comparison with Holzmiller’s (1983) data affirms the logical trend one might expect as time passes; increasing numbers in the older age group especially when the average age of the respondents, as Holzmiller found, is around 40. That age bracket (18 and older) had an increase of child-rearing respondents from Holzmiller’s data of 39.1% to 48.9% in this study. In summary of this data, this population was not prolific when it came to child-rearing. Table 5 indicates that 131 respondents reported a total of 173 children, 18
years and under living at home or an average of 1.32. Holzmiller's data showed a comparable 138 respondents with a total of 178 children 18 years and under living at home and a similar average of 1.29. The data presented here suggests that at this point in their careers, respondents appear to be more free of the responsibility of rearing younger children (those under 13 years) but there remains the need to care for the older child, 13 to 18 years old.

Table 5 also displays the number between those respondent in both studies who reported rearing children 18 and under and those who did not. These rather high numbers (120 and 90) reflect relative freedom in child-rearing, especially in the data gathered in this study (120 responses). That percentage shift in the two studies increased from 39% (Holzmiller) to 48% in this study. This shift has implications for career mobility reported later in this chapter.

Job Titles

In her study of these women, Holzmiller (1983) classified positions by 13 major job titles. The data in this study revealed over 240 distinctly different job titles. An attempt to classify this larger number into Holzmiller's scheme is shown in Table 6. Though the total number of respondents varied between the two studies (228 to 251), and may distort those categories with small numbers, percentage gains can be highlighted in several key areas, dean level or higher. The six vice presidents grouped in this category represent a gain of four with the category of executive dean increasing by three. The largest gain is at the dean level where the net
Table 6
Distribution of Job Titles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Holzmiller Study</th>
<th>Current Study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Entry position</td>
<td>1983</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>President</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vice President</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Executive Dean</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dean</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate Dean</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant Dean</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coordinator</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chairperson</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faculty, Counselor &amp; Librarian</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>44.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff [support]</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff (professional)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Executive Assistant the President</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant to an Administrator</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>25.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[a_{N} = 228.\]
\[b_{N} = 228.\]
\[c_{N} = 251.\]

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Increase was nine. The aggregate increase at the top level titles, dean up to president, represents 16 job title changes.

A comparison of other titles between the Holzmiller study and this study revealed an inconsistent shift in numbers. This may be due in part, to the difficulty in the interpretation and codification of the titles reported in this study to that of Holzmiller's. Despite this difficulty, one category in particular was worth noting. Holzmiller appeared to have treated the "staff" category as less than professional level. Her scheme of titles is traditional in an educational hierarchy sense. However, this researcher looked at a number of reported titles (Appendix E) that did not neatly fit this scheme. The diversity of titles such as planning consultant, community services specialist, training administrator, and telecourse specialist suggests a movement to professional staff positions. While these could be conveniently classified as coordinators or directors, that specific nomenclature did not appear in the titles.

Table 6 shows an aggregate number in this study of 17 such titles. These titles may indeed represent new responsibilities and experiences which appear supportive and consistent with new directions many community colleges are taking in meeting their missions. The comparison of the data does, however, indicate job movement; mobility which, as Table 7 illustrates, is viewed by 142 of the respondents as career advancement.

Job Advancement and Mobility

Of those responding (247) to the question of job advancement,
142 (57%) reported at least one career advancement (Table 7), and 105 (43%) stated they experienced no job advancement. Of those reporting career advancement, 16 said they have career advanced twice and four stated they have experienced such advancement three times. Table 8 tracks mobility by illustrating four varied possibilities: (1) job advancement DURING the training period with either the SAME organization or (2) a DIFFERENT organization, (3) job advancement AFTER the training period with either the SAME organization, or (4) a DIFFERENT organization.

Of the 142 reporting job advancement, 138 provided mobility

Table 7
Number of Reported Career Advancements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>One advance</th>
<th>Two advances</th>
<th>Three advances</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>142</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. N = 247.

Table 8
Organizational Job Mobility Relative to Time Period of Training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organization</th>
<th>Career advanced during training</th>
<th>Career advanced after training</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Same organization</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Different organization</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. N = 238.
information. Twelve respondents reported job advancement DURING their participation in the training program, 11 with the SAME organization with whom they had been employed, and one who moved to a job with a DIFFERENT organization. The vast majority 101 (73%) career advanced with their college AFTER the conclusion of their training experience. However, 25 women (18%) were particularly mobile and took positions with DIFFERENT organizations AFTER their training experience.

**Salary Increases**

Table 9 shows the dollar amount of increase due to job advancement. One hundred and thirty one of the 142 who career advanced reported salary increases. Salary increases ranged from $0 in 11 cases to $20,000 in one instance (promotion to a vice-presidency). The average increase was $3,735.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number career advanced</th>
<th>Number reporting increase</th>
<th>Dollar range of increase</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>142</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>$0 - $20,000</td>
<td>$3,735</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Type of Organization and Geographic Region**

Ninety per cent (222) of the respondents were currently employed in public supported community/junior or two-year technical institu-
tions (Table 10). These colleges tended to be geographically located in the West (38%) and the North Central parts of the country (Table 11). If one assumes that all program participants were employed in this type of institution at the time of their training experience (this was a major criterion selection item), then it would appear that about 10% of the respondents have made changes in the type of organization in which they now work.

Table 10
Current Employment Type of Institution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Public supported community/junior/technical college</th>
<th>4 Year college/university</th>
<th>Private Sector</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>222</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. N = 246.

Table 11
Geographic Region of Employment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>West</th>
<th>North Central</th>
<th>South</th>
<th>Northeast</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>37%</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hypothesis Testing

The data analyses procedures used to answer Question 1 and its subsequent hypothesis were a repeated measures in a one-dimensional design of analysis of variance and appropriate follow-up tests.
repeated measures of analysis of variance technique tested for statistical differences between the means of the six major components of the training program which were treated as six levels of a treatment variable. In addition, the Bonferroni post hoc and the Duncan post hoc were used to determine where the differences existed. Dependent *t* tests were used to test if self-esteem was perceived more important than the other components.

The remaining six questions and their respective hypotheses were also tested for statistical differences between means. The test statistic used was the standard *t* test for independent groups. The alpha level selected to determine significance was .05.

Prior to evaluating the *t* tests for significance, an *F* test of variance was applied to determine which variance assumption (equal or unequal) to use in selecting the *t* test. The alpha level used in the *F* test was set at .25. This level was selected to guard against making a Type II error; that is failing to reject the null hypothesis that the means were equal when, in fact, there were not.

Findings

**Descriptive Statistics**

The summarizing of the numerical data with the use of descriptive statistics for all six components is detailed in Table 12. It shows that 251 questionnaires were returned and that each of the components had a very high percentage of usable responses. Only the component, a special work project, shows missing data in excess of three responses and that was only four responses. The mean scores
ranged from a low of 4.37 (networking) to a high of 5.72 (self-esteem). Self-esteem also showed the lowest dispersion of scores about the means (1.00) and mentoring showed the highest (1.67).

Table 12
Summary of Descriptive Statistics for Six Components

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-esteem</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>5.72</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of management &amp; leadership concepts</td>
<td>249</td>
<td>5.65</td>
<td>1.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special Work Project</td>
<td>247</td>
<td>5.18</td>
<td>1.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of community college issues</td>
<td>248</td>
<td>4.91</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentoring</td>
<td>249</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td>1.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Networking</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>1.53</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. A total of 251 questionnaires were usable.

Hypothesis 1 and Its Corollary Hypothesis

The hypothesis developed to address the first research question in this study examined the probability of the existence of different perceptions among the participants in a leadership training program on the importance of six components which comprised the program: (a) self-esteem, (b) knowledge of community college issues, (3) knowledge of management and leadership concepts, (4) networking, (5) mentoring, and (6) a special work project.

The null hypothesis stated that no differences would be found
among the six variables as perceived by the program participants. Non-directional alternate hypotheses were offered for all the components except one, self-esteem. This alternate hypothesis conjectured that self-esteem would be viewed more important than the other variables. It was stated in a positive direction and anticipated to be statistically significant at an alpha level of .05.

The data shown in Table 13 indicate that the $F$ value of 59.43 reflected a probability of .0001 which was less than the .05 level and, thus, the null hypothesis was rejected in favor of the alternate which stated that there were differences among the mean scores of the six components.

### Table 13

**Hypothesis 1 - Repeated Measures Analysis of Variance of Differences between Means of 6 Components**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of variation</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>$F$</th>
<th>$p$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Components</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>70.98</td>
<td>59.43</td>
<td>.0001*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjects</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction</td>
<td>1237</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05.

To determine where those differences were, a Bonferroni post hoc test was used. Table 14 displays those differences that existed and were significant at the .05 level. It can be seen that all but three pairs were significant: (1) self-esteem and knowledge of management and leadership concepts, (2) knowledge of community colleges issues...
Table 14
Test of Differences between Pairs of Means

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Self-esteem</th>
<th>Knowledge of management &amp; leadership concepts</th>
<th>Knowledge of community college issues</th>
<th>Mentoring</th>
<th>Networking</th>
<th>Special work project</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-esteem</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of management &amp; leadership concepts</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of community college issues</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentoring</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Networking</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special work project</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. yes = rejection of null hypothesis.  
no = fail to reject null hypothesis.  
Alpha = .05.
and mentoring, and (3) knowledge of community college issues and a special work project.

Table 15 illustrates the differences between self-esteem and the other five components (the corollary hypothesis). Of particular note is the mean score (5.72) of self-esteem. It was the highest of all the components. The calculations of dependent t tests showed that self-esteem was significantly different than the other components except for knowledge of management and leadership concepts. The probability of the mean scores of self-esteem and the those four components (with the one exception) occurring by chance if they were, in fact, equal was less than .05.

Table 15
Differences between Self-esteem and Five Individual Components

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of Community College Issues</td>
<td>4.91</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>-10.25</td>
<td>.0001*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of Management &amp; Leadership Concepts</td>
<td>5.65</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>-0.85</td>
<td>.3978</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentoring</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>-9.80</td>
<td>.0001*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Networking</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>1.53</td>
<td>-13.90</td>
<td>.0001*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Special Work Project</td>
<td>5.18</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>-6.34</td>
<td>.0001*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. All the above were compared with self-esteem which had a mean of 5.72 and a standard deviation of 0.97.

*p < .05.
Differences between Groups

Self-esteem

This investigation addressed a second research question by examining the subjects' perceptions of the importance of self-esteem to career development between those subjects who experienced career advancement and those who did not. The null hypothesis stated that no difference would be found between the mean scores on the self-esteem by those who career advanced and those who did not. The alternate hypothesis was directional and stated that a significant difference existed in the direction of those who career advanced.

The data shown in Table 16 reveal that the probability of $F (.004)$ in determining the homogeneity of variance was less than the alpha level of .25. Thus, considering the difference in sample size of the two groups and the violation of the homogeneity of variance assumption, the unequal variance estimate was used for the $t$ test. Observing that the probability associated with $t (.0004)$ was less than the .05 alpha level, the null hypothesis of no difference between means was rejected in favor of the research hypothesis.

Participants in the training program who career advanced and who had a mean score for self-esteem of 5.91 attributed to that value the importance of self-esteem to their career development. Those participants who did not career advance and who had a mean score of 5.44, perceived a lower importance of self-esteem with regard to their career development. The difference between the two means was large enough to support the research hypothesis at the .05 alpha level.
### Table 16

Hypothesis 2 - t Test for Difference between Means of Self-esteem

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
<th>F** Value</th>
<th>Prob.</th>
<th>t Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Prob.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Career Advanced</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>5.91</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.70</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>-3.74</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>.0004*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Career Advanced</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>5.44</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05

**This F value tested for variance between groups.
Those who career advanced viewed self-esteem as more important to career development than those who did not.

**Knowledge of Community College Issues**

The data collected relative to the third research question addressed in this investigation is detailed in Table 17. In response to the question, an examination was made of the probability of there being different perceptions concerning the importance of knowledge about community college issues to career development between those persons who career advanced and those who did not. The null hypothesis proposed that there was no difference between the two groups. The directional alternate hypothesis indicated that a significant difference would exist in favor of those who experience career advancement.

Analysis of the data as shown in Table 17 indicates that the probability of the two groups having the same variance ($F$ is 0.56) was greater than the .25 alpha level. This $F$ value influenced the decision to assume equal variances and thus, the $t$ test was based on that estimate. The $t$ test resulted in a probability of .875 which was greater than the .05 alpha level. The null hypothesis of no difference cannot be rejected.

The perceived differences in importance of the two groups (those career advanced and those who did not) regarding knowledge of community college issues to career development were represented by the means of the two groups. Those women reporting career advancement had a mean of 4.96; those who did not average 4.84. This ob-
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
<th>F** Value</th>
<th>Prob.</th>
<th>t Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Prob.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Career Advanced</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>4.96</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Career Advanced</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>4.84</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*P < .05

**This F value tested for variance between groups.
served difference of 0.12 between the means was not sufficiently large enough to support the research hypothesis at an alpha level of .05.

**Knowledge of Management and Leadership Concepts**

Similarly, perceived differences in importance of knowledge of management and leadership concepts (the fourth question) to career development was examined between the career advanced and those not career advanced (Table 18). The null hypothesis stated that there was no difference between the two groups. A subsequent alternate research hypothesis in the direction favoring the career advanced was conjectured.

Table 18 contains the data upon which analysis of this variable is made. The $F$ test that variances were equal showed a probability of .0026 which was less than pre-set level of .25, thus, the unequal variance estimate was used to select the appropriate $t$ test. That $t$ test resulted in a probability of .0346 which was less than the alpha level of .05. Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected and the alternate research hypothesis was held as tenable.

The mean score (5.80) of the participants in the leadership training who career advanced was statistically significant when compared to the mean score (5.45) of those participants in the training program who did experience career advancement. The analysis of the data supported the contention of the research hypothesis that the perceived importance to career development expressed by those career advanced was greater than the perceptions of importance to career development expressed by those who did not career advance.
Table 18

Hypothesis 4 - \( t \) Test for Difference Between Means of Knowledge of Management and Leadership Concepts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
<th>F** Value</th>
<th>Prob.</th>
<th>t Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Prob.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Career Advanced</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>5.80</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.73</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>-2.40</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>.035*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Career</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>5.45</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05

**This F value tested for variance between groups.
development expressed by those who did not experience career advancement.

**Mentoring**

Examining the fifth question, the degree to which mentoring was perceived as important to career development between the two groups (career advanced and not career advanced) resulted in testing the null hypothesis of no significant difference between the two perceptions. Testing the null was done against an alternate which was in the direction of the career advanced.

An analysis of Table 19 illustrates the data which influenced the decision of failing to reject the null hypothesis. The $F$ probability of .683 for evaluating homogeneity of variance was greater than alpha and, thus, the equal variance estimate was used for determining the $t$ test. Since the probability associated with $t$ (.0846) was greater than the alpha level, the null hypothesis of no difference between means was not rejected.

A review of the means (Table 19) shows that the career advanced group scored 4.86 and the group not career advanced averaged 4.42 relative to their respective perceptions about the importance of mentoring to career development. The difference between these means was not sufficiently large enough to support the research hypothesis at an alpha level of .05.

**Networking**

The sixth research question addressed in this investigation
Table 19
Hypothesis 5 - *t* Test for Difference Between Means of Mentoring

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
<th>F** Value</th>
<th>Prob.</th>
<th>t Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Prob.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Career Advanced</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>4.86</td>
<td>1.64</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td>-2.04</td>
<td>243</td>
<td>.085*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Career</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>1.70</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05

**This *F* value tested for variance between groups.
proposed the examination of the self-perceived importance of networking as a contribution to career development by two groups; one which represented career advancement and the other no career advancement. A null hypothesis stated that no difference would be found between the perceptions of the two groups. The directional alternate hypothesis indicated that a difference would be found favoring the career advanced group.

An evaluation of the $F$ test for homogeneity of variance resulted in a probability of .637. This probability was greater than the .25 alpha and consequently, the assumption that the two groups had equal variances was made. Accordingly, the $t$ test resulted in a probability (.204) that was greater than alpha which supports the contention of no significant difference. The null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

Table 20 details the data which shows that those career advanced persons under investigation perceive the importance of networking to career development to a level represented by a mean score of 4.51. Those comprising the second group (not career advanced) perceived the importance of this variable to career development with a comparable mean score of 4.20. But, the observed difference between means (0.31) was not sufficiently large enough to support the research hypothesis at the .05 alpha level.

**A Special Work Project**

Table 21 illustrates data concerning the last question dealt with in this study; a special work project which all participants had
Table 20
Hypothesis 6 - *t* Test for Difference Between Means of Networking

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
<th>F** Value</th>
<th>Prob.</th>
<th>t Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Prob.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Career Advanced</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>4.51</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Career</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>1.42</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>-1.64</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>.20*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05

**This *F* value tested for variance between groups.
Table 21
Hypothesis 7 - t Test for Difference Between Means of a Special Work Project

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
<th>F** Value</th>
<th>Prob.</th>
<th>Equal Variance Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Career Advanced</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>5.30</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td>-1.63 241 .21*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Career Advanced</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>5.02</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05

** This F value tested for variance between groups.
to complete as part of their training. It sought to determine the probability of there being a difference in perceptions in the degree of importance between the group which career advanced and the group which did not. An alternate hypothesis was offered against the null hypothesis. While the null stated there would be no significant difference between the two groups, the alternate conjectured that there would be such a difference in the direction of the career advanced.

The data analysis results shown in Table 21 indicates that the probability associated with the $F$ test for homogeneity of variance (.921) was greater than the alpha level and, thus, the use of the equal variance estimate was made with $t$ test. The probability associated with $t$ (.210) was larger than than alpha and the null hypothesis for this last question was not rejected.

A review of these results shows that those who career advanced perceived their special work project important to career development to a level that was represented by a mean score of 5.30. The second group, those not career advanced, viewed the importance of their work project to career development with a comparable mean score of 5.02. The difference of 0.28 between the two means, however, was not large enough to be support the research hypothesis at the .05 alpha level.

Summary

Two major presentations were made in this chapter. The first developed a demographic profile of the 251 (82%) respondents and
included some comparisons of summary data with a previous study of the same population. The second was a report of results of the statistical testing for each of seven hypothesis which were developed to answer the major questions of the study.

The results of an analysis of variance repeated measures test revealed that differences existed (.05 alpha) among the six components. At that same alpha level, a post hoc test further revealed that differences existed between all combinations except three of the pairs: (1) self-esteem and management and leadership concepts, (2) knowledge of community college issues and mentoring, and (3) knowledge of community college issues and a special work project.

In addition, it was also found that except for the component of knowledge of management and leadership concepts, self-esteem was viewed as more important to the participants in the leadership training program than the other components (knowledge of community college issues, mentoring, networking, and a special work project).

In the comparison of two groups, those who career advanced and those who did not, differences were found in two of the six hypothesis involving the components in this study. Those who career advanced perceived self-esteem and knowledge of management and leadership concepts as more important in their career development than those who did not career advance.

No differences were found between the two groups with regard to the remaining four hypotheses which postulated that the measures of perceived importance of the other components (knowledge of community college issues, networking, mentoring, and a special work project)
would show differences favoring the career advanced group.

The next chapter provides an overview of the entire study. In doing so, it discusses conclusions, implications and suggests further areas of study.
CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of the entire study. It develops conclusions as a result of data analysis, suggests some implications of the findings and identifies other concerns with recommendations for further research in selected areas.

Summary

The purpose of this research was to determine the perceived importance of the concepts which comprised the major components of a leadership training program designed for female community college managerial aspirants. Also, it was intended to determine if there was a difference in the importance attributed to the concepts between those women who career advanced and those who did not.

The major components of the training program included: (a) self-esteem, (b) knowledge of community college issues, (c) knowledge of management and leadership concepts, (d) mentoring, (e) networking, and (f) a special work project. Seven questions were raised relative to these components. The first question asked if there was a difference in the importance between the six factors as perceived by the participants in the training. The remaining six questions asked if this importance would be perceived differently between those who have advanced their careers and those who had not.

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These questions were studied in detail after consideration was given to expressed concerns in the literature (Loring and Wells, 1972; Gordon and Strober, 1975; Fraker, 1984) for women who aspire to achieve higher level administrative and managerial roles in organizations and in particular, post-secondary educational institutions (Andre and Edwards, 1979). These aspirations were framed within the broader context of career development theory which Hennig and Jardim (1977) claimed has not kept pace with the changing role of women in society.

This contention revealed other concerns about the opportunities for female advancement. These included sex stereotyping, biases, prejudices, and socialization influences (Nieva and Gutek, 1981). Literature reviewed also included forces in society yielding more positive results for women. Affirmative action, increasing numbers of female workers, changing life-styles and career training and development programs being conducted by different types of organizations were among those forces.

Through the literature review, seven hypotheses were developed which addressed the questions raised in this study. An impressive amount of literature identified self-esteem as an especially critical element in the success and achievement of any human venture, particularly for women. Self-esteem was thought to be the most important component among those emphasized in the training of the subjects in this study. While the literature also provided support for the other concepts received by the subjects as positive training influences, they were either not well grounded in research or received mixed
reviews about their effectiveness for management training. This produced unclear direction when trying to gauge their relative importance but generated sufficient evidence to suggest that they might differ in this regard.

The methodology in this investigation used the questionnaire as the primary means of data collection. It was an ex post facto study that surveyed three groups of women who participated in a leadership training program in each of three corresponding years, 1981, 1982 and 1983. The population totaled 305 female educators from throughout the country who expressed aspirations to career advance in an administrative capacity.

The questionnaire was validated by a panel of two experts and pilot-tested with 30 random sampled subjects. A mailing with one follow-up yielded a response rate of 82% (251 subjects). The questionnaire produced quantitative measures for each of the six factors under investigation which were used in the hypotheses testing.

Research hypotheses were developed for seven questions. The first was tested against a null hypothesis of no differences in means between the six components relative to the contribution to career development as perceived by the participants. The one-way repeated measures analysis of variance was used to measure if any statistical differences existed against an alpha level of .05. The Bonferroni post hoc test was employed to determine which combinations had significant differences. A corollary hypothesis that stated the self-esteem component would be perceived as more important than the other five was tested with the use of dependent t-tests. The
remaining six hypotheses were directional and conjectured that the mean scores attributed to each component by those women who career advanced would be higher than the mean scores of those who did not career advance. The statistical procedure used in these cases was the t-test for independent groups.

Additionally, data was collected from the subjects to enable the development of their profile. This information provided a context for some comparison with a study that included the same population (Holzmiller, 1983).

Population Profile Overview

The profile represented a white (88%) married woman living with her spouse (60%) and rearing one child. The typical respondent was over 40 years of age (61%) who possessed a master's degree but displayed some movement toward acquiring a doctorate degree. This population was relatively job mobile and received job advancements (58%) that averaged $3,735.00 with 10% of the population moving to different organizations.

Of particular note, the population in this study averaged about 40 years of age. Their expressed interest in career development provides support for those (Super, 1957; 1963; 1984; Miller, 1979; Ginzberg, 1984) who advocate career development as a life-long process. Responsibilities for child-rearing were light. This may have allowed for risk-taking in changing jobs as evidenced by 10% advancing to different organizations (18% of those reporting career advancement) in the short period of time since the formal training.
This occurrence runs somewhat counter to that reported by Holzmiller (1983) who alluded to the tendency of women to stay with the same organizations. However, no data was analyzed that included geographic re-location in any of the aspects of job mobility.

Conclusions

For the most part, the participants in this study held differentiated views on the importance of the components with regard to their career development. While differences in importance were found between 12 of the 15 pairs of components, knowledge of management and leadership concepts surfaced as a companion variable with self-esteem in making the strongest positive contributions to career development of the women in this study.

On the strength of the statistical probability resulting from the testing of the hypotheses, particularly the corollary hypothesis, the self-esteem component was thought to be the most important factor enhancing career development. It was found to be more important by all the respondents with regard to the other components—except no difference in importance was found with knowledge of management and leadership concepts—and it was perceived as more important among the career advanced group.

Because knowledge of management and leadership concepts was perceived by the population not to be different in importance with self-esteem, but was viewed as differing in importance with the other components, and was also found—like self-esteem—to be more important to the career advanced group, it was coupled with self-
esteem as the two most important components contributing to career development.

The finding that self-esteem was perceived as a dominating component was consistent with what much of the literature indicated. Nieva and Gutek's (1981) impressive review of socialization influences solidly set the background for the barriers women experience in attempting to advance to responsible and leadership positions in the world of work. Bartol (1974), Terborg (1977) and Terborg et al. (1977) among others identified and conducted critical research that was necessary in defining the problem for aspiring females.

The cycle of perpetuating stereotypical women who possess low self-confidence, low achievement motivation, and low self-expectations can be altered (Hennig and Jardim, 1977; Nieva and Gutek, 1981) by improving one's psychological adjustment, self-concept and self-esteem. The ingredients necessary to break the cycle of female oppression in a male-dominated culture (Sanford and Donovan, 1984) require development of correlative aspects of the inner self and principles and concepts of management and leadership.

Holzmiller (1983), in her findings with the same population as in this study, reported a high level of confidence and self-esteem among the subjects. She stated, "the respondents ... see themselves as persuasive, highly motivated, competent. ... They feel successful in their jobs and find a high source of self-esteem within themselves" (p. 111). Even though she attributed (and it may well be true) such positive self-esteem to this population of women, significant differences were still found between the subjects who reported
career advancement and those who did not. Self-esteem was a critical element in the contribution to their career advancement.

It should be noted that this inference is qualified by the time interval between this study and the time of the formal training experience. The range of one and a half to three and a half years since conclusion of the formal training program may be related to the opportunities which have presented themselves for advancement and the subsequent rating of the importance of self-esteem.

Self-esteem would appear to be a foundation upon which aspiring female managers (or any achievement oriented individual, including men) might build the necessary repertoire to achieve goals set in any context, including career development and organizational advancement. Knowledge of leadership and management concepts is a logical extension of that base; a base upon which one's inner source builds the dependable, steady, and secure self (Kroll et al., 1970), resulting in the competence and confidence necessary for a realistic self-concept (Super, 1957). With a wholesome self-esteem and realistic self-concept present, the effective application of other processes is improved and success in one's chosen field becomes more likely.

The literature review uncovered only a few comparable training programs for women educators in higher education (Andre and Edwards, 1979; Secor, 1984; Speizer, 1984). It did not find any standardized training topics which allowed for direct comparison to the factors in this study. However, those which were identified did provide some basis for discussion.
In further consideration of self-esteem, the results of this investigation were more positive than those of Andre and Edwards (1979) who reported as "less substantive," some related elements to self-esteem; those elements being assertiveness, self-confidence and self-determination. Items of more importance and reported as "very useful" in the Andre and Edwards study were topics analogous to those in this study which made up a portion of the knowledge of community college issues component, university structure, and budgets. Considered "useful" were governmental regulations, legal issues, and ingredients of the knowledge of community college issues component.

While it was concluded that differences in perceived importance existed between the other four components, it appeared that they could be described as applications of these processes or subsidiary concomitants of self-esteem and knowledge of management and leadership concepts. Knowledge about community college issues (or issues in general) serves as expert power and communication power (Raven, 1965) which is useful in the leadership process and interaction with others. The importance of knowledge about issues is related to understanding the specifics of what one's organization is about. It contributes to career development in another related way. By being knowledgeable, one can better set direction or assume a leader role by being able to confidently and competently interact and persuade others.

Results of this study revealed that networking differed in its importance with some other components. While it deviated to a large extent with self-esteem, the degree to which it differed with other
components was not clear. This suggested a concern that the effectiveness and importance of this component and its results in this study may be influenced more by time than other components. The time factor of one and a half to three and a half years since conclusion of the formal training was thought to be limiting when judging this component. In spite of this constraint, the results did not tarnish the arguments about the value that this component possesses.

Networking gives credence to the popular "who you know" metaphor. The added increased personal contacts result in additional information and assistance to help achieve personal goals. The more recent establishment of "women's networks" (Welch, 1980; Stern, 1981; Dziech, 1983) have been created because of the exclusiveness of the "old boy's" network. In turn, the advocates of women's networks appear to be creating another exclusive network system. The continuation of this approach may have its limitations. Perhaps Henning and Jardim (1977) said it best when they stated that a competent manager "requires understanding and skill at working in and with the informal system or relationships in which management jobs are embedded" (p. xiv). While the exclusiveness of women's networks has value, efforts to integrate into existing networks should be accelerated. The degree to which this could be accomplished would appear to be most helpful to women aspiring to managerial careers.

The mentoring component in this study possessed an artificial flavor which perhaps did not do it justice in trying to determine its importance. Mentors were identified and selected by the subjects as part of the formal training. According to Missirian (1980) and
Blotnick (1984), one does not just happen to become a mentor. Over
time, the relationship between mentor and mentee develops a psycho-
logical involvement and an intensity that cannot simply be made to
work by formalizing it. Because evidence existed that showed men-
toring was perceived as differing in importance, further study,
specifically of its importance to job promotion, may be warranted.
However, like networking, it should be viewed over time to determine
its relative effectiveness and contribution to career development.
Both networking and mentoring lend themselves to longitudinal stu-
dies to gauge their worth.

The literature revealed the special work project component to be
a derivative of job enrichment (Schein, 1964; Herzberg, 1968; Hall
and Hall, 1976; and Kaye, 1983). This rather common practice in
organizations also was perceived by the subjects in the study to
differ in its importance between some other components. Some of the
evidence gathered suggested that this component was either very help-
ful and important or was a disappointing experience to the partici-
pants. As with mentoring, the greater the degree to which serious-
ness of purpose and commitment occurs in taking advantage of the
positive potential of job enriching assignments, the greater the
importance to career development which may be attributed to it.

Recommendations

The results of this study showed that differences existed
between factors thought to be important to the career development of
women. Continued pursuit of understanding these differences would
appear to be warranted. While it was shown that perceived differences existed, little was revealed in the measurement that dealt with the correlative aspects of training factors used in this career development program. It would be enlightening if subsequent researchers investigated with greater precision the strength of the relationship among these and/or other factors.

In another general sense, future studies of this kind would be strengthened if a comparison group could be located and utilized. The failure in the attempt to locate applicants not selected to participate in the "Leaders" program eliminated a comparison which would have enhanced this study. The report by Speizer (1984) typifies the value of more scientific rigor in the design methodology of measuring such training programs. Recognizing there are parameters which sometimes are limiting to design considerations, future research in these areas should strive for this comparative feature.

More specifically, two areas for further research have already been mentioned. They are networking and mentoring. Both are longitudinal in their nature, but their continued and expanded use requires additional understanding. There is the question about the value of different kinds of networks. What is the value to career development of an existing internal network to another type, such as a professional network? Can networks be classified according to type and measures be made of their contributions to both men and women's careers? The determinants of specific measures, alone, of this amorphous process (Stern, 1981) would prove challenging.
Missirian's (1980) work provides a solid base for generating further research on mentoring. One additional thought would be to consider organizational size more carefully. The opportunities for experiencing such a relationship may be limited depending on institutional size. Blotnik's (1984) work also deserves further scrutiny. His findings contain rather strong inferences about the potential danger inherent in the mentoring process, particularly to the mentee. While some writers and organizations have astutely treated the mentoring process in the delicate manner it deserves, other careless and expanded use and treatment could have harmful effects. Missirian (1980) alluded to this possibility and Blotnik (1984) reported it.

The implementation of this process in practical settings must be well understood. Additional research would be helpful. In a methodological consideration, it would be valuable to be able to measure the degree of intensity identified by Missirian (1980). Could a measurement instrument be developed which could more accurately classify the relationship between mentor and mentee? If so, subsequent questions as to the effectiveness of this factor could be more scientifically assessed.

Also, it must be said that the context within which women are functioning in society is, in essence, part of a cultural transformation. The opportunities for research in this change process appear endless. If, however, the strength of the external influences (White, Crino, and DeSanctis, 1981 and many others) results in the socialization processes which either perpetuate or advance stereotypes, knowledge and understanding is needed about how to change...
these views, especially those of men. Schein (1973) provided some direction that should generate additional questions. Her findings were encouraging to the concerns of women. Modifications of stereotypical perceptions can and do occur in organizational settings. Her research provides the base for additional research which could link training efforts and actual change in the work environment.

There exists an abundance of management development programs for women, ranging from pop paperback cookbook approaches to expensive retreats and other extensive efforts such as the one focused in this study. In all of these, the underlying assumption is that women have unique problems which need special attention because traditional professional and organizational development programs are not effective in resolving their situation (White, 1981).

However, Alpander (1976) reported that the perceived training needs of the two sexes were essentially the same. The limited empirical investigation of management development programs for women found in the literature does little to address this issue. A number of questions come to mind which warrant further inquiry. To what degree should differentiation occur between men and women with respect to managerial training? What are the criteria to be used in establishing various training programs? What ingredients exist in women's training programs that should be available to men? One natural extension of this exploration is to ask, to what extent are men used as trainers in these development programs? Would the plight of aspiring females be lessened if men were more sensitized through management training programs or are women better off to go it alone?
Finally, since the objectives of the "Leaders" training included long-term concerns about increasing the number of women in community college management positions, particularly executive level, it is recommended that additional study of this population occur, perhaps even a replication. A facsimile of it would be enlightening to see what changes occur over time in subsequent findings when compared to those in this study.

One indication of the perpetuation of the existing culture which inhibits change can be seen in the work of Liebert et al. (1982). While dealing with only one societal communication medium, television the essence of the change that many women seek is revealed in the research reported in their book, *The Early Window*. The effect of achieving cultural change which ultimately could contribute to the achievement of the goals of women who aspire to managerial careers, resides in large part on how society inculcates related values in the children and youth. This will take generations.

In the meantime, the variables contained in this investigation could have some more immediate impact on the career progress of some women. The results of this study reinforced previous findings about the importance of self-esteem and demonstrated that factors used in formally designed training programs can differ in their perceived importance to the participants. This information should prove useful, in a practical sense, for the developers of the "Leaders."
Appendix A

Workshop Topics
### WORKSHOP TOPICS
#### LEADERS FOR THE 80S

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Workshops</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SESSION #</td>
<td>1 2 3 1 2 3 1 2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mgt/Leadership process</td>
<td>x x x x x x x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finance/Budget (global)</td>
<td>x x x x x x x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legal Issues</td>
<td>x x x x x x x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Federal Mandates (EEO)</td>
<td>x x x x x x x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personnel Mgt</td>
<td>x x x x x x x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collective Bargaining</td>
<td>x x x x x x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interviewing</td>
<td>x x x x x x x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suggestions from the top</td>
<td>x x x x x x x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(telling it like it is)</td>
<td>x x x x x x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational Issues 80's</td>
<td>x x x x x x x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Alternative Mission by Pat Cross)</td>
<td>x x x x x x x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Change</td>
<td>x x x x x x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emerging Technologies</td>
<td>x x x x x x x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student Demographics</td>
<td>x x x x x x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional Advance (top job)</td>
<td>x x x x x x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional Planning and Budget</td>
<td>x x x x x x x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of Power</td>
<td>x x x x x x x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Where to go from here? and NETWORKING)</td>
<td>x x x x x x x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leaders' Panel (past)</td>
<td>x x x x x x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leader Presentations</td>
<td>x x x x x x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Project Improvement (Individual help)</td>
<td>x x x x x x x</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Appendix B

Content Validity Rating Scale
with
Inter-rater Results
The following represents the formal rating scale for the content validity and appropriateness of each questionnaire item:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questionnaire Item</th>
<th>low relevancy</th>
<th>high relevancy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td># 1 Age</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td># 2 Race</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td># 3 Marital Status</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td># 4 Academic Degrees</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td># 5 No. of children</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td># 6 Title of position</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td># 7 Current employer</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td># 8 Employer's address</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td># 9 No. yrs. in position</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#10 Have you experienced career advancement after participating in the &quot;Leaders?&quot;</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#11 If yes, with which organization did this career advancement occur?</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#12 Did you experience career advancement during the &quot;Leaders?&quot;</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#13 If yes, with which organization did this career advancement occur?</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#14 Employment history</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#14a Salary information</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
#15 **KNOWLEDGE OF COMMUNITY COLLEGE ISSUES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Low relevancy</th>
<th>High relevancy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legal issues about community colleges</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational issues of the 80s</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personnel management &amp; collective bargaining</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial issues</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional planning</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#16 **KNOWLEDGE OF MANAGEMENT & LEADERSHIP CONCEPTS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Low relevancy</th>
<th>High relevancy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding and utilizing power</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to initiate action</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal relations</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal goal setting</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### #17 MENTORING

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Low relevancy</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Increased visibility</td>
<td>1  2  3  4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Importance by association</td>
<td>1  2  3  4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introductions to key people</td>
<td>1  2  3  4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coaching</td>
<td>1  2  3  4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Convinced others of your capabilities</td>
<td>1  2  3  4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to role model</td>
<td>1  2  3  4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### #18 NETWORKING

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Low relevancy</th>
<th>High relevancy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Peer contacts &amp; involvement</td>
<td>1  2  3  4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shared job vacancies</td>
<td>1  2  3  4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shared inside job information</td>
<td>1  2  3  4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shared information about techniques for innovative programs</td>
<td>1  2  3  4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introductions to key people</td>
<td>1  2  3  4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receiving encouragement &amp; giving support</td>
<td>1  2  3  4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### #19 Emphasis on Self-Esteem

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Low Relevancy</th>
<th>High Relevancy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Confidence in most work areas</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not as easily discouraged</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Important contributor to my organization</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reach out &amp; mentor others</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Set career goals &amp; work toward them</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### #20 Working on the Special Project

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Low Relevancy</th>
<th>High Relevancy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gained new contacts</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developed new skills &amp; expertise</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gained organizational insights</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achieved institutional visibility</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acquired new knowledge</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achieved institutional recognition</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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### Questionnaire Content Validation

#### Inter-rater Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question Item</th>
<th>Bulpitt</th>
<th>Desjardins</th>
<th>Average</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td># 3</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td># 4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td># 5</td>
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<td>4</td>
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</tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td># 7</td>
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<td># 8</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td># 10</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td># 11</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td># 13</td>
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<td>4</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td># 14</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td># 14a</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td># 17</td>
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<td># 18</td>
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<td># 19</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td># 20</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>84</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average</strong></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix C

Pilot Test Documentation with Letters and Questionnaire
September 22, 1984

Dear Leader:

The "Leaders for the 80s" program has attracted national attention. It is being viewed as a model of management training for women aspiring to leadership positions in higher education.

Dr. Mildred Bulpitt, Project Director and Dr. Carolyn Desjardins, Project Coordinator have agreed to lend their support to my dissertation concerning the "Leaders" project. Enclosed is a letter of endorsement and encouragement to participate. Your address was provided by Drs. Bulpitt and Desjardins.

The study attempts to determine the differences in importance of the various components to the participants of the "Leaders" program and the contribution made to the professional development of the participants. The findings have potential value to the future of the "Leaders" program and, thus, your participation would be most appreciated. Your effort in helping me achieve my objective is also appreciated.

You are among a select group of the 1983-84 Leaders who are being asked to help pilot test the questionnaire which has been developed. Your completion and return of the questionnaire will provide helpful information for this study.

The questionnaire is enclosed. Please complete all the applicable questions and return it within 7 days, if at all possible. Instructions are part of the questionnaire and it should take no longer than 15 minutes to complete. To facilitate quick response, the questionnaire is pre-addressed and postage-paid. If you desire to critique the questionnaire please feel free to do so. Write comments and suggestions if you feel so inclined.

Your response will be handled professionally and I assure you confidentiality. Please respond promptly so that the next phase of the study can proceed.

Your assistance is sincerely appreciated.

Sincerely,

Dan Jaksen

Uldis Smidchens, Ph.D.
Dissertation Chair
Dear Leader:

This letter expresses our support for a dissertation study which is being written by Dan Jaksen who is completing his doctorate at Western Michigan University. Dan is the Director of Planning and Evaluation at Macomb Community College in Michigan and has been interested in the activities of the "Leaders" since its inception in 1981.

The purpose of the study is to measure the differences in the importance among the various components of the Leaders Program as the participants perceive the contributions made to their professional development and career advancement. This research promises to provide some empirical evidence on the effectiveness of concepts around which the Program was designed.

We encourage you to complete and return this pilot questionnaire. The 1983-84 Leaders are serving as the pilot group to gain feedback about the questionnaire design. The continuing interest in the efforts of the "Leaders" speaks well for its purpose. This study when combined with the others with whom we have cooperated is contributing to a foundation of knowledge which can help validate programs such as the "Leaders" as you and other women prepare for upward mobility.

Please do respond in a timely fashion and we will forward to you an abstract of the results in a future newsletter as soon as Dan completes the study.

Sincerely,

INSTITUTE FOR LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

Mildred Bulpitt
Project Director

Carolyn Desjardins
Project Coordinator

Rio Salado Community College
Myrtle Harrison President
A MARICOPA COMMUNITY COLLEGE
Equal Opportunity/Affirmative Action
LEADERS FOR THE 80'S QUESTIONNAIRE

Section I

1. Age (circle one)
   a. 29 under
   b. 30 - 39
   c. 40 - 49
   d. 50 over

2. Race (circle one)
   a. White
   b. Black
   c. Hispanic
   d. Asian or Pacific Islander
   e. American Indian or Alaskan Native
   f. Other _________ (specify)

3. Current Marital Status (circle one)
   a. Single - never married
   b. Married - living with spouse
   c. Married - living apart from spouse
   d. Divorced
   e. Widowed
   f. Other _________ (specify)

4. What is the highest academic degree you have completed? (circle one)
   a. Bachelor
   b. Master
   c. Specialist
   d. Doctorate
   e. Other (specify) _________

5. How many children in the following categories are living with you now? (write in the appropriate number)
   _____ None
   _____ Children under 1 year
   _____ Children 1 to 6
   _____ Children 7 to 12
   _____ Children 13 to 18

6. Title of current position ________________________________

7. Name of current employer ________________________________

8. Address of current employer ________________________________
   city state

9. Number of years and/or months in this position _________
CAREER ADVANCEMENT

The purpose of this section is to determine whether or not you have experienced job movement which represents advancement in your career. Career Advancement is defined as that change in job assignment or duties that reflects an increase in level of responsibility, status, or salary.

This change may have occurred in the organization you were with at the time of the "Leaders" experience or in a different organization, and either during or after your experience as a leader.

The following questions are designed to obtain information from these possibilities. If you believe additional information is necessary to clarify your situation please add your comments on the back of the last page of the questionnaire. Thank you.

10. Have you had any career advancement AFTER participating in the year long "Leaders" experience? yes no (circle one)

11. If yes, did it occur within the same organization with which you were employed during the year of the "Leaders"? yes no (circle one)

12. Have you had any career advancement DURING participation in the year long "Leaders" experience? yes no (circle one)

13. If yes, did it occur within the same organization with which you were employed during the year of the "Leaders"? yes no (circle one)

14. Employment before - during - after the "Leaders" participation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organization</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Your Title</th>
<th>Year(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>19_ to 19_</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(BEFORE being accepted as a leader)

|              |          |            | 19_ to 19_ |

(DURING-if same, write same)

|              |          |            | 19_ to 19_ |

(AFTER-if same, write same)
14a. Correspondingly, your salary may have increased over this time period. Please list the annual amount earned in each year which corresponds to the position you held in your organization. It is the intent of this section to collect data that will show relationship of salary to career advancement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Academic Year in which Position was held</th>
<th>Title of Position</th>
<th>Annual Salary of Position</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1979-80</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980-81</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981-82</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1982-83</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>1983-84</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1984-85</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Section II

The purpose of this next section is to ascertain how valuable the various components of the "Leaders" experience have been to you. Please circle the appropriate response.

15. The following are topics/concepts you experienced as part of the week long workshop of the "Leaders". To what extent do you credit KNOWLEDGE ABOUT COMMUNITY COLLEGE ISSUES with contributing to your development with regard to the factors listed below?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>low</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
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<tr>
<td>Legal issues about community colleges</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational issues of the 80s</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personnel management &amp; collective bargaining</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial issues</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional planning</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
16. The following are some additional topics to which you were exposed as part of the week-long workshop. To what extent do you credit KNOWLEDGE ABOUT MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP CONCEPTS with contributing to your development with regard to the factors listed below?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>low</th>
<th>high</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Understanding and utilizing power</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to initiate action</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal relations</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal goal setting</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

17. A concept you experienced while participating with the "Leaders" was MENTORING. To what extent do you credit MENTORING with contributing to your development with regard to the factors listed below?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>low</th>
<th>high</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Increased visibility</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Importance by association</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introductions to key people</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coaching</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Convinced others of your capabilities</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to role model</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
18. Another concept to which you were exposed was that of NETWORKING. To what extent do you credit NETWORKING with contributing to your development with regard to the factors listed below?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>low</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Peer contacts &amp; involvement</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share job vacancies</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share inside job information</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share information about techniques for innovative programs</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introductions to key people</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receive encouragement &amp; given support</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

19. The "Leaders" experience included efforts to enhance your SELF-ESTEEM. To what extent do you credit the EMPHASIS ON SELF-ESTEEM with contributing to your development with regard to the factors listed below?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>low</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Confident in most work areas</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not as easily discouraged</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Important contributor to my organization</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reach out &amp; mentor others</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Set career goals and work toward them</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
20. Please recall the SPECIAL PROJECT you worked on as part of the "Leaders" experience. To what extent do you credit your WORKING ON THE SPECIAL PROJECT with contributing to your development with regard to the factors listed below?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Medium</th>
<th>High</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gain new contacts</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developed new skills &amp; expertise</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gained organizational insights</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achieved institutional visibility</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acquired new knowledge</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achieved institutional recognition</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thank you for helping me in this field test. If you have any suggestions please feel free to make comments below.
Appendix D

Final Questionnaire with Letters
October 27, 1984

Dear Leader:

Congratulations on being part of the "Leaders for the 80s". It is a program that has attracted national attention and is being viewed as a model of management training for women aspiring to leadership positions in higher education.

Dr. Mildred Bulpitt, Project Director and Dr. Carolyn Desjardins, Project Coordinator have agreed to lend their support to my dissertation concerning the "Leaders" project. Enclosed is a letter of endorsement and encouragement to participate. Your address was provided by Drs. Bulpitt and Desjardins.

The study attempts to determine the differences in importance of the various components of the "Leaders" program and the contribution made to the career development of the participants. The findings have potential value to the future of the "Leaders" program and, thus, your participation would be most helpful and appreciated. Your cooperation in helping me achieve my personal objective is also appreciated.

A questionnaire is enclosed. Please complete all the applicable questions and return it within 7 days. Instructions are part of the questionnaire and it should take no longer than 15 minutes to complete. To facilitate quick response, the questionnaire is return addressed and postage paid.

Your response will be handled professionally and confidentially. Thank you for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Dan Jaksen

Uldis Smidchens, Ph.D.
Dissertation Chair
Dear Leader:

This letter expresses our support for a dissertation study which is being written by Dan Jaksen who is completing his doctorate at Western Michigan University. Dan is the Director of Planning and Evaluation at Macomb Community College in Michigan and has been interested in the activities of the "Leaders" since its inception in 1981.

The purpose of the study is to measure the differences in importance among the various components of the Leaders Program as the participants perceive the contributions made to their professional development and career advancement. This research promises to provide some empirical evidence on the effectiveness of concepts around which the Program was designed.

We encourage you to complete and return the questionnaire. The continuing interest in the efforts of the Leaders speak well for its purpose. This study when combined with the others with whom we have cooperated is contributing to a foundation of knowledge which can substantiate programs such as the "Leaders" as you and other women prepare for upward mobility.

Please do respond in a timely fashion and we will forward to you an abstract of the results in a future newsletter as soon as Dan completes the study.

Sincerely,

INSTITUTE FOR LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

Mildred Bulpitt
Project Director

Carolyn Besjardins
Project Coordinator

Rio Salado Community College

Myra Harrison, President
A MARICOPA COMMUNITY COLLEGE
Equal Opportunity/Affirmative Action
November 21, 1984

Dear Leader:

Three weeks ago, I mailed you a questionnaire that was intended to gather data for my research regarding the Leaders Program. The response rate has not reached expectations and thus, I am again asking for your cooperation to complete and return the questionnaire. If you have mailed the questionnaire in the last few days please disregard this request and accept my appreciation for participating in this research.

I realize your busy schedule may not have allowed you to complete the first questionnaire but I remain hopeful that you can find 15 minutes to do so. Your participation will help in the development of this investigation which has the promise of becoming a useful study to the Leaders as well as myself. Please reconsider this as a priority and return the questionnaire within the next week so I can begin to process the data early in December, 1984.

In working with Drs. Bulpitt and Desjardins, I have promised to share the results with the Institute for Leadership Development. This is another major reason why we are anxious to obtain as high a percentage return as possible. The results will be shared through your network with the Institute.

If for your personal reasons you must insist on anonymity feel free to discard the code number listed on the questionnaire and complete only those items with which you are comfortable. Thanks for reconsidering the completion of the questionnaire and bearing with me on this second request.

Approved by,

Uldis Smidchens, Ph.D.
Professor

Sincerely yours,

Dan Jaksen
LEADERS FOR THE 80'S QUESTIONNAIRE

Section I

1. Age  (circle one)
   a. 29 under  
   b. 30 - 39  
   c. 40 - 49  
   d. 50 over

2. Race  (circle one)
   a. White  
   b. Black  
   c. Hispanic  
   d. Asian or Pacific Islander  
   e. American Indian or Alaskan Native  
   f. Other ___________________(specify)

3. Current Marital Status  (circle one)
   a. Single - never married  
   b. Married - living with spouse  
   c. Married - living apart from spouse  
   d. Divorced  
   e. Widowed  
   f. Other ___________________(specify)

4. What is the highest academic degree you have completed?  (circle one)
   a. Bachelor  
   b. Master  
   c. Specialist  
   d. Doctorate  
   e. Other (specify) _____________

5. How many children in the following categories are living with you now?  (write in the appropriate number)
   (specify)
   None  
   Children under 1 year  
   Children 1 to 6  
   Children 7 to 12  
   Children 13 to 18

6. Title of current position ______________________________

7. Name of current employer ______________________________

8. Address of current employer ______________________________
   city state

9. Number of years and/or months in this position ___________
CAREER ADVANCEMENT

The purpose of this section is to determine whether or not you have experienced job movement which represents advancement in your career. Career Advancement is defined as that change in job assignment or duties that reflects an increase in level of responsibility, status, or salary.

This change may have occurred in the organization you were with at the time of the "Leaders" experience or in a different organization, and either during or after your experience as a Leader.

Correspondingly, any career advancement may have resulted in salary increases. If you have received any increases DUE TO ADVANCEMENT IN POSITION please include the amount of INCREASE.

The following questions are designed to obtain information from these possibilities. If you believe additional information is necessary to clarify your situation please add your comments in the spaces provided on the bottom of this page. Thank you.

10. Have you had any career advancement during or after your experience with the "Leaders"? yes no (circle one)

11. If no to question 10 proceed to question 12.

If yes to question 10 please circle the appropriate descriptor and complete the salary differential amount, if applicable:

I received an advancement with (the, a)........SAME DIFFERENT organization (then, where) I was employed (circle one) when I began my year with the "Leaders" and the advancement occurred ...................... AFT ER B E F O R E concluding my experience. The salary (circle one) differential I received because of the advancement was .........................$ .................. (If more than one advancement occurred please note this with appropriate details as requested above and with corresponding salary differentials in the space provided below)
Section II

The following questions deal with the major components which were contained in the "Leaders" program. It is important in responding to these questions that you understand you are being asked to rate the importance of these components as concepts contributing to your career and professional development. You are not being asked to evaluate how well the "Leaders" delivered its training. Please circle the appropriate response.

12. The following are topics/concepts you experienced as part of the week long workshop of the "Leaders". To what extent do you credit KNOWLEDGE ABOUT COMMUNITY COLLEGE ISSUES with contributing to your development with regard to the factors listed below?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Legal issues about community colleges</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Educational issues of the 80s</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Personnel management &amp; collective bargaining</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial issues</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional planning</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13. The following are some additional topics to which you were exposed as part of the week long workshop. To what extent do you credit KNOWLEDGE ABOUT MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP CONCEPTS with contributing to your development with regard to the factors listed below?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>low</th>
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<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Understanding and utilizing power</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to initiate action</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal relations</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal goal setting</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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14. A concept you experienced while participating with the "Leaders" was MENTORING. To what extent do you credit MENTORING with contributing to your development with regard to the factors listed below?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Increased visibility</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Importance by association</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introductions to key people</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coaching</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Convinced others of your capabilities</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to role model</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

15. Another concept to which you were exposed was that of NETWORKING. To what extent do you credit NETWORKING with contributing to your development with regard to the factors listed below?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Peer contacts &amp; involvement</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share job vacancies</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share inside job information</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share information about techniques for innovative programs</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introductions to key people</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receive encouragement &amp; given support</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
16. The "Leaders" experience included efforts to highlight the importance of SELF ESTEEM. To what extent do you credit SELF ESTEEM with contributing to your development with regard to the factors listed below?

<table>
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<tr>
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<th>4</th>
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<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Confident in most work areas</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not as easily discouraged</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Important contributor to my organization</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reach out &amp; mentor others</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Set career goals and work toward them</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

17. Please recall the SPECIAL PROJECT you worked on as part of the "Leaders" experience. To what extent do you credit such job enrichment experiences with contributing to your development with regard to the factors listed below?

<table>
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<tr>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gain new contacts</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Develop new skills &amp; expertise</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gain organizational insights</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achieve institutional visibility</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acquire new knowledge</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achieve institutional recognition</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

THANK YOU FOR YOUR HELP
PLEASE RETURN ONLY THE QUESTIONNAIRE
Appendix E
Job Titles
LEADERS FOR THE 80S

Titles of Current Position

1981-1982 Leaders

101 - Director Community & Student Relations
105 - Dean
104 - Division Chairperson, Health & Human Services
106 - Director, Campus Center
107 - Director, Continuing Education and Self-Supporting Programs
108 - Dean of Administration
109 - Administrative Assistant
110 - Chair, Dept of Speech & Theatre Arts
113 - Director, Business/Management Div.
114 - Senior Instructor
115 - Coordinator of Counseling Services
117 - Training Administrator
116 - Professor of Math
118 - Community Services Specialist
119 - Executive Assistant
120 - Professor of Psychology
121 - Vice President - Student Services
123 - Dean
124 - Associate Dean of Instruction
125 - Director, Management
126 - Professor
127 - Dean
128 - Division Chairman,
129 - Director of Counseling
130 - FIPSE Project Director
131 - Executive Director
132 - Dean
133 - Dean - Regional Campus
134 - Associate Dean Occupational Education
137 - Director, Institutional Advancement
138 - Resource Specialist, Instructional Services
139 - Self-employed
141 - Dean of Students
142 - Counselor
143 - Assistant Professor of Psychology
145 - Assistant to Executive Dean
146 - Instructor & Voc. Prog Coordinator
148 - Instructor (40%); Public Information Technician (50%)
149 - Academic Program Officer
146 - Instructor & Voc. Prog. Coordinator
150 - V.P./Dean of Instruction
152 - Director of Personnel
151 - Associate Dean Humanities Division
153 - Dean Learning Resources
154 - V.P. Academic Affairs
155 - Asst. to the Provost
156 - Instructor / Coordinator
157 - Chair for, Family & Consumer Educ. Dept.
159 - Coordinator, Student Services
160 - Division Chair, Instructor
161 - Executive Dean Alternative Learning /Learning Resources
162 - Dean of Student and Community Services
163 - Director of Public Affairs & Development
164 - Instructor Content Specialist (Telecourses)
165 - Assistant to the President
166 - Planning Consultant
167 - Administrative Assistant to the Vice President
168 - Personnel Specialist
169 - Dean of Student Services
170 - Counselor/Register
171 - Director Nursing Education
172 - Instructor
173 - Dean, Instruction
174 - Director of Institutional Advancement
175 - Academic Asst to Chancellor
176 - Associate Dean for Curriculum Services
179 - Director, Business Department

1982-83 Leaders

201 - Department Head, English/Humanities
202 - Executive Asst. to the President
203 - Associate Dean
204 - Dean
205 - Assoc. Dean for Student Development
206 - Director, Business Division
207 - Division Chair, Fine & Applied Arts
208 - Director of Development
209 - Training and Development Manager
210 - Instruction
211 - Counselor - Coordinator
213 - Staff Assistant
214 - Director Benton Center
215 - Director of Student Services
216 - Counselor
217 - Special Assistant to the President
218 - Educational Services Supervisor
219 - Director of Disabled Student Services
220 - Director, Grants & Planning
222 - Program Officer
223 - Program Coordinator
225 - Dean
224 - Dir of Continuing and Developmental Education/Community Services
228 - No response

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229 - Niagara County Community College Relations
230 - Asso. Dean for Instruction
233 - Chair, Humanities Division
234 - Division Head
235 - Chairperson of Communicative Arts Division
236 - Chairperson, Counseling Services
237 - Supervisor of Guidance
238 - Unemployed
239 - Director of Development and PSI Math, Asst Professor Math
241 - Dean of Continuing Education
242 - Associate Dean, Liberal Education & Learning Services
243 - Associate Dean of Instruction
245 - Director of Support Services
246 - Dean, Administrative & Student Services
247 - President of the College
248 - Professor English/Staff Development
250 - Chairperson
251 - Division Chairperson, Humanities
253 - Director of Development (Professor of English)
254 - Instructor
255 - Curriculum Specialist
256 - Assistant Dean for Instruction
258 - Coordinator, Personnel Development
259 - Dean of Communication & Fine Arts
260 - Instructor
261 - Dean, Humanities Division
262 - Interim Director of Educational Resources
263 - Assistant to the Chancellor
264 - Division Chair
266 - Associate Dean of Instruction
267 - Supervisor
269 - Faculty
270 - Currently unemployed
271 - Executive Head, Special Education Division
274 - Asst. Dean of Academic Affairs
273 - Dept. Head, Allied Health Ed.
277 - Instructor
279 - Associate Dean Instruction/ Special Programs
280 - Division Chair
281 - Assoc. Prof
282 - Manager, Employee Development & Education
283 - Business Instructor
284 - Division Chairman
285 - Learning Center Chairperson
286 - Coordinator of Master Teacher Project
287 - Chairperson Business Division
289 - Chairman of Division of Special Programs
290 - Associate Academic Dean
292 - Dean Educational Services
293 - Director Ambulatory Service
295 - Doctoral Student on Fellowship
298 - Ass't Dean, Grad Studies, School of Nursing
296 - Graduate Student / Research Asst.
297 - Campus Director
299 - Director of Library Services
2100 - Assoc. Dean, Student Development
2101 - Dean for Academic Affairs
2102 - Dean of Student Services

1983-1984 Leaders

301 - Assistant Dean
302 - Coordinator
304 - Director, Productivity Center
305 - Director of Institutional Planning & Research
306 - Professor
307 - Director of Campus Planning
308 - Ph D Candidate
309 - Learning Resources Director
310 - Counselor
313 - Owner / Manager
315 - Assistant Director for Minority Affairs
316 - Executive Director, Foundation
317 - Assistant to the Chancellor
318 - Coordinator
319 - College Registrar
320 - Campus Director
321 - Registrar
322 - Department Head Evaluation & Testing
323 - Director of Financial Development
324 - Special Project Administration
325 - Director of Development
327 - Consultant - Marketing Research & Instruction
329 - Director of Contract Instruction
330 - Associate Dean of Instruction
331 - Director of Counseling
332 - Director of Continuing Education
334 - Instructor
335 - Registrar/Director of Enrollment Services
337 - Program Director
338 - Associate Professor of Biology (Faculty)
339 - Coordinator Secretarial Education Legal Assistant Programs
340 - Professor of English
341 - Director Public Information & Development
342 - Department Chair
346 - Regional Supervision - Business Graphic & Applied Arts
347 - Dean of Community Education
348 - Dean of Instruction
349 - Dean Cont Ed/Community Service
350 - Dean, Cont. Ed. & Community Services
351 - Prof.
352 - Director of Nursing Programs
353 - Admin. Asst. To Dean of Allied Health
354 - Assistant Dean, Resource Development
355 - Dean of Special Programs
356 - Dean Student Support Services
357 - Asst. Director of a Satellite Campus
358 - Assistant Dean, Communication Arts
359 - Director of Instructional Services
360 - Associate Provost
361 - Dean of Instruction
362 - Director, Learning Assistance Center
363 - Assistant Dean / Learning Resources
364 - Director of Personnel & Affirmative Action
365 - Assistant Dean of Instruction
366 - Executive Asst. to Chancellor
367 - Instructor
368 - Human Resources Consultant
369 - Vice President, Academic And Student Affairs
370 - Division Chair
371 - Academic Dean
372 - Dean of Student Services
373 - Director
374 - Faculty
375 - Dept. Chr. - Counseling
376 - Dir of Career Planning & Advancement
377 - Department Chairperson
378 - Vice President Student Development
379 - Division Head
380 - Dean, Student Services Division
381 - Director: Special Projects / Contract Instruction
382 - Coordinator of Financial Aid
383 - Associate Dean
384 - Dean, Institutional Research & Mgt. Information Systems
385 - Associate Dean of Instruction
386 - Counselor
387 - Director of Employee Relations
388 - Associate Dean / Center Director
389 - Coordinator, Dental Hygiene Program
390 - Full Professor of English
391 - Library Director
392 - Chief of Treatment Services
393 - Behavioral Science/Anthropology Teacher
394 - Instructor
395 - Division Director, Communications / Fine Arts
396 - Dean of Occupational Education And Technology
397 - Director of Evening & Special Adult Programs
398 - Coordinator Developmental Education
399 - Dir. of Counseling / Chair, Human Development & Phy. Ed
400 - Assistant Dean, Instructional & Community Services
401 - Faculty
402 - Dean of Instruction
3113 - Dept. Chairperson, Professor
3115 - Associate Professor of Communication & English
3116 - Vice President for Student Services
3117 - Coordinator of Nursing Programs
3118 - Curriculum Planner
3119 - Counselor / Faculty
3120 - Instructor / Director
3121 - Director, Human Resources & Services
3122 - Dept. Head Dental Health
BIBLIOGRAPHY


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Keele, R. L., & DeLaMare-Schaeffer, (1984, Spring). So what do you do now that you didn't have a mentor? Journal of the National Association of Women Deans, Administrators, and Counselors, pp. 36-40.


