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CHARACTERISTICS OF NURSING HOME ADMINISTRATORS:
PERCEIVED INFLUENCERS ON OWN CAREER PATHS

by

Shirley L. Cornelius

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
June 1991

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**Characteristics of nursing home administrators: Perceived
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Cornelius, Shirley L., Ed.D.

Western Michigan University, 1991

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Shirley L. Cornelius

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Background of the Problem

The search for a career is important in all types of work. This is especially true in the increasingly competitive field of health care. Few who are beginning careers in the industry can afford to be indifferent toward career planning, and organizing the fundamental elements of a meaningful career plan is essential (Caver, 1989).

In the past, many health care managers have moved along career tracks that were quite similar, as careers progressed from a graduate program to residency, up through the ranks from resident to assistant to associate, and so on until a management position was reached. Many believed the changes in the industry and proliferation of new opportunities meant that there would no longer be routine steps to a specific position. Variations among career paths were typical, and career planning was becoming even more important for a successful career in health care (Caver, 1989).

Long-term care administration entered the decade of the 90s as one of the most challenging opportunities in the health administration field. This leadership opportunity resulted from the increasing number of older individuals and their families who demanded an efficient, high quality, responsive services system. By the year 2000,

it was expected that 15% or more of the population in the United States would be over age 65 (Kress, 1990). From the year 1980 to 2000, the 65 and older population in Michigan was expected to increase 34% from 942,898 to 1,264,280. One of the fastest growing segments of the Michigan elderly population was the 85 and older person who was also at the highest risk of needing nursing home care. This segment was projected to increase by 28% from 1980 to 2000 (Health Care Association of Michigan, 1989). This group of individuals, age 65 and over, was certain to increase the demand for service at each level of care.

Talented managers were in high demand as the number and variety of long-term care settings grew and their complexity increased. Individuals who were considering long-term care administration could select from among many types of service organizations. Long-term care insurers and payers wanted good service for their clients, and the expanding political block of the elderly was asking for increased benefits and coverage. With the trend of expanding service demand by the increasing number of older adults who needed nursing home care, the owners and directors of long-term care organizations were demanding higher professional standards and increased specialization for entry level administrators. Because it was essential for managers of long-term care facilities to respond to the unique problems of caring for the elderly, which required the administrator to balance the facility's financial needs with the residents' needs, both men and women leaders were beginning to prepare themselves with the specialized knowledge to build an optimal quality of care for older

residents (Kress, 1990).

The role of women in the field of administration was changing. Health care was a major employer of women in the United States in the 1980s; one of every six women who worked outside the home was employed in the health care industry. Women represented approximately 75% of the total health care labor force. While women have been in the majority of positions in health care, however, they are mostly under-represented in the management ranks. During the 1920s, a majority of United States hospitals were managed by women, but the number of women administrators had decreased dramatically by the 1950s. While many women entered the health care management ranks in the 1980s, top administrative positions were still held largely by men (Haddock & Aries, 1989).

A document, prepared by the Michigan Department of Public Health in 1988, listed approximately 54.9% men and 45.1% women who were actively practicing as nursing home administrators. During the same period of time, the Michigan Department of Licensing and Regulation recorded fewer men (41.6%) than women (58.4%) who held licenses to practice as nursing home administrators, yet a greater percentage of men were actually practicing in the field. That is, while there were more women than men licensed to be nursing home administrators, more men than women actually held the job.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to describe the positive and negative influencers perceived by men and women as having contributed to

their successful attainment of the position of nursing home administrator, focusing attention especially to any differences identified between male and female administrators. The study sought to explore the issue of under-representation of women in nursing home management positions from the perspective of career development. That is, is there some explanation to be found in career path data as to why men outnumber women in the administrator jobs? The survey was used to gather biographical data, academic backgrounds, and work histories of successful persons whose career paths have led them to administrative positions in nursing homes. The information collected from the survey may be used to assist individuals in their preparation to become nursing home administrators and for future studies in the field of health administration. Regardless of the level of management individuals want to achieve, the information from the study could assist them in learning from those individuals who had already succeeded.

The study was directed toward two major questions and several related questions. From these questions and other information gathered from a review of career development literature, a questionnaire was prepared to send to persons, each of whom had a nursing home administrator's license in the state of Michigan. The responses from these individuals provided self-reported data of their perceptions regarding their career paths toward the position of nursing home administrator or other management position. It was important to compare men and women for any differences, as there were more men than women practicing as administrators compared to the greater

number of women who held licenses to practice.

The following questions were representative of the information the survey instrument intended to gather and report. Two major questions were:

1. What were the self-reported positive and negative influencers which contributed to the career paths of persons who became nursing home administrators?

2. Did these self-reported influencers differ for males and females?

Other related questions in the survey form were intended to gather specific personal information about the respondents. These questions were pertinent to the following five career progress dimensions:

1. Circumstances: What was considered the most influential circumstance that helped an individual achieve the position of nursing home administrator? Was it luck? Was it being in the right place at the right time? Or was it the result of careful career planning directed toward the specific goal of administrator?

2. Influential persons: What persons were most influential in helping direct an individual toward a career of leadership, and how were these persons helpful? Were there personal contacts within the organization?

3. Academic preparation: How was the individual academically prepared? Were there seminars and other types of training? What kind of activities or experiences during high school and college years contributed to an individual's leadership qualities?

4. Parental influences: When these individuals were growing up, how were their parents employed? Were their parents influential in directing them toward leadership activities? What kind of encouragement did they receive from parents or other role models?

5. Barriers: Were there perceived barriers the individuals encountered along the way that slowed down their progress toward their management goals? How did they overcome these perceived barriers?

Research Design

The research design, a descriptive approach, was constructed to collect detailed factual information that described existing phenomena relating to the characteristics of nursing home administrators. The population for the study included all persons holding licenses in 1988 to practice as nursing home administrators in the state of Michigan. The researcher surveyed a random sample of these persons. The sample was drawn from a computerized printout prepared by the Michigan State Licensing and Certification Department. A questionnaire was sent to 26% of the persons listed, a total of 325. The final survey response rate was 60.6% or 197 respondents.

Significance and Rationale

As a result of the nursing home reforms incorporated into the Omnibus Reconciliations Act of 1987 (OBRA) (Health Care Financing Administration, 1989), there were many changes in the way long-term care facilities were managed. The period since 1987 was full of

turmoil, with many consequences for nursing home administrators. Although some changes had been implemented prior to 1990, the majority of the OBRA amendments became effective October 1, 1990. A revised survey and certification process was implemented by the Health Care Financing Administration's (HCFA) Office of Survey and Certification to assess nursing facilities' compliance with the new OBRA regulations.

OBRA reforms were designed to make changes in both the regulatory and the delivery sectors of long-term care. Most of the OBRA rules were designed to support a fundamental change in care expectations and practices with new tools, such as multidisciplinary resident assessment and care planning, new measures for quality of life and resident rights, and training for nursing assistants. Nursing facilities were required to maintain the highest practicable physical, mental, and psychosocial well-being of all residents. These changes increased the pressure and stress on the administrator whose responsibility it became to implement the OBRA rules.

Another change occurred in the late 1980s because of financial concerns in nursing homes. Smaller companies could not survive financially and therefore sold out to large corporations. Administrators were moving from one facility to another as a result of corporate changes. Some administrators were unwilling to accept the added stress due to these changes or became disillusioned with the business aspects of the system and left the field to take other management positions or return to former middle management positions.

Other financial concerns in Michigan homes included staffing

shortages caused by the unavailability of nurses and nursing assistants, as well as staffing shortages related to inadequate funding. These trends combined to produce additional stress factors for the administrator and other management staff of the facility. Many nursing homes were forced to contract with temporary nursing pools to meet staffing ratios, and these costs were at least 40% higher for nursing pool personnel than for facility employees. An additional cost to facilities was the turnover rate of nursing home personnel, as the annual turnover rate for Michigan was 76% for nursing aides, 42% for licensed practical nurses, and 40% for registered nurses. Because of the turnover rate and the use of agency personnel, nursing home managers found it increasingly difficult to provide continuity of care to the residents in the nursing home (Health Care Association of Michigan, 1989).

In addition to state inspectors, facilities were constantly being judged by family members and consumer advocate groups. With the increasing demands from the government and other groups of concerned individuals, it became increasingly important that administrators of nursing facilities be prepared with the specialized knowledge to meet both the specific needs of the resident and the financial and policy needs of the facility. At the same time, having the necessary background for the job, the administrator would be better able to handle the stress that was inherent in the management field of long-term care.

A major goal of the study was to determine what was happening to those persons who were nursing home administrators and those who

aspired to become nursing home administrators. The study sought to identify the influencers that were beneficial to those who achieved this level of management, and to discover what prevented others from reaching their goal. Data regarding academic preparation of current managers in organizations were limited (Kress, 1990); therefore, the information from this study would add to this body of knowledge.

Definition of Terms

Following are the definitions of influencers, experiences, and other dimensions that were explored in the study.

Career: Career is defined as the course of one's work over a period of time (Lewis, Lewis, & Radlauer, 1983) and as the individually perceived sequence of attitudes and behaviors associated with work-related experiences and activities over the span of the person's life (D. T. Hall, 1976). The term "career" refers to promotion and progression and expects people to plan ahead to achieve opportunities and status (J. Marshall, 1984).

Career choice is a process in which one not only chooses, but also eliminates and consequently stifles some interests and talents. Eventually, individuals give up the chance to develop talents and interests as they limit themselves on the narrow pathway leading to a career (Zunker, 1986). Thus, in this study, the career is viewed from the perspective of the series of events and experiences that influence progress.

Career planning: Career planning is the personal process of planning one's life work, entering a certain occupation, joining a

particular organization, and accepting or declining job opportunities. Individuals evaluate their abilities, interests, and career opportunities, and from this information they establish career goals (Walker, 1980). This study included assessment of choices and decisions made by respondents throughout their working lives.

Nursing home administrator: In this study, nursing home administrator was defined as a person whose name appeared on a Michigan state licensing list, whether or not that individual was currently practicing as a nursing home administrator at the time the survey was done.

Influencer: An influencer was defined as any force exerted over the minds or behaviors of persons that significantly shaped their leadership career. These influencers included parents, important people, circumstances during the individual's work history, activities and experiences during school and college years, and problems encountered during the pursuit of a leadership position.

Education and leadership training: Education was defined as formal training as a nurse or degrees obtained from a college or university. L.P.N. is a licensed practical nurse with 1 year of nursing education, probably from a community college. R.N. is a registered nurse with 2 years of nursing education from a community college or 3 years from a hospital diploma program. B.S.N. is an individual who has a bachelor's degree in nursing from a college or university. Leadership training was defined as any type of education directed toward leadership and available through seminars or workshops, on-the-job training from directors in the work place, college

level courses, or formal college degree programs.

Mentor: A mentor was defined by Levinson (cited in Swoboda & Millar, 1986) as "a generative father figure who grooms his protege to make a dramatic break and become his own man" (p. 9). Ochberg, Tischler, and Schulberg (1986) defined mentor as "senior colleague who takes a personal interest in the career of a junior" (p. 939). Mentors serve as advisors, counselors, or sponsors and facilitate entry and mobility for their proteges (Shapiro, Haseltine, & Rowe, 1978).

Barrier: Barrier, in this study, was defined as any problem respondents encountered that hindered their progress toward an administrative position. These perceived barriers included lack of experience or appropriate degree for the position, lack of advancement opportunities, lack of confidence, or little support from influential persons.

Limitations of the Study

This study was based on the belief that the private realities of those persons who have achieved the specific goals being explored is the best source of explanation for the questions raised (Hennig & Jardim, 1977). Because much of the data requested in the survey required the opinion of the respondents regarding their personal lives and how they felt about it, there was a possibility of bias toward the respondent's feelings of self. Respondents may intentionally give inaccurate information or may give inaccurate information unintentionally. Construction of the questionnaire, with a list of

choices for each question, was planned to assist the respondent in recollection of accurate information to help prevent potential bias.

A second limitation was nonresponse. Even well-designed sample surveys rarely succeed in achieving a 100% response rate (Hoaglin, Light, McPeck, Mosteller, & Stoto, 1982). Nonrespondents may differ from respondents as to their background or characteristics, thus, introducing bias. The study achieved a response rate of more than 60%; thus, nonresponse biases were reduced.

Sampling of the specific population used for this study was a third limitation. The survey participants were from the nursing home industry and did not represent the entire health care field. Further, responses were requested from these individuals at a certain point in their lives, and their ideas or needs may not have been representative of responses given over an entire career.

A fourth limitation also involved the specific population. The respondents were persons who had licenses to work as nursing home administrators but were not necessarily practicing as managers of long-term care organizations during the time this study was completed. A number of respondents were nursing home administrators prior to their present position, and several respondents allowed their licenses to lapse as they chose to pursue another career path.

A fifth limitation of a mailed questionnaire, discussed by Isaac and Michael (1981), is that there is no assurance the addressee actually was the one who completed the survey form. By appealing to the respondent's sense of responsibility and leadership, the formal request encouraged completion of the form by the intended individual.

Organization of the Study

Chapter II contains a review of the career development theories, as well as the more current literature on career planning. Selected influencers that bear on the career path of individuals are explored.

Chapter III contains a description of the development of the questionnaire and the procedure for data collection and analysis.

Chapter IV reports the findings of the study.

Chapter V contains a summary of conclusions and recommendations for further study.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to describe the positive and negative influencers perceived by men and women as having contributed to their successful attainment of the position of nursing home administrator, focusing attention especially to any differences identified between male and female administrators. The study sought to explore the issue of under-representation of women in nursing home management positions from the prospective of career development.

Chapter II consists of a review of related literature. The chapter is organized in four major sections: (1) formative influences relating to the world of work, (2) careers and career development, (3) influences on careers and career decision making, and (4) career study methodology.

Formative Influences

Ginzberg (1952, 1971) believed that occupational choice is a dynamic process that begins at birth and may remain open until death. Educational and career decisions require that individuals learn about themselves and the environment around them that provides the choices available in the educational and occupational world. The first

inputs into this process come from one's parents. Not only do individuals learn about their identity, but also they learn about the world of work through the attitudes expressed by their mothers and fathers or other care givers.

Formative influences include other adults, peers, books, television, movies, and other media; from these the child learns about the world of work. The preschool child soon begins to understand the need for work and reason to attend school. By now the child's self-image is developing and a style of behavior is forming to work with familiar and unfamiliar events in the environment. The differences in curiosity, initiative, and self-confidence emerge, and the child becomes an individual personality with interests and abilities. According to Ginzberg (1971), by the time children reach the age of 11, they begin to recognize they will eventually have to choose their future work.

Information about the world of work is communicated to children in numerous ways. They are exposed to many different adults as they attend school. The school is a powerful environment, a formal competitive setting where personal assessment continually takes place. In the early school years, a child becomes conscious of the family's style of living and how this compares to other classmates. The child may sense whether the family is rich or poor and whether or not the father's employment is respected. These early years of experience in school contribute to the child's perception of self (Ginzberg, 1971).

What is experienced in one's early years can become a negative as well as a positive influence in the child's future. A

considerable amount of information is internalized as the child moves from grade to grade and receives assessments and judgments from the adults in the school. The teacher's judgment becomes the child's self-judgment, and if a negative one, may become a barrier for future achievements in school as well as in the world of work (Ginzberg, 1971).

As children become young adults, they learn about their interests and capacities and continue to evaluate their strengths and weaknesses. Through their pursuit of an occupation, they learn that compromise is an essential part of their choice. They try to choose a career in which they can use their abilities and further their interests so that their goals can be realized. Ginzberg (1971) suggested that the critical challenge is to improve the informational process by facilitating both the exploration of self and external reality so that more effective career decision-making is assured.

London and Mone (1987), employee development managers, also emphasized the importance of interest as a major determinant of career choice. Career preferences are guided by interests, needs, and values, and individuals choose occupations that match their interest patterns. Some influences are fairly stable characteristics, but others, especially one's interests and preferences, can change because opportunities arise or more information becomes available.

The process of assessment regarding knowledge of one's self and one's environment continues as individuals strive to find their place in the world of work. Roe (1956) believed that one's occupation

plays an immensely important role in the life of the individual as there is no single situation that is potentially so capable of giving some satisfaction at all levels of basic needs as is the occupation. She used Maslow's (1954) hierarchical concept of basic needs to explain the aspects of behavior relating to the individual's occupation.

Roe (1956) continued her discussion of occupational choice by describing specific ways in which the occupation can meet the person's basic needs. The usual means for meeting the physiological needs of hunger and thirst is through the job that provides the money that is then exchanged for food and drink. The need for safety can be met with the certainty that certain provisions, such as shelter, clothing, and preventive health, will be available during the working period, as well as pensions and savings. The need to be a member of a group can be satisfied in part by the occupation, as can the need for self-confidence and feeling useful. Entering a job is generally seen as a symbol of adulthood and an indication that an individual has reached a stage of independence and freedom. The importance of the job can be expressed most clearly in the devastating effect upon the individual who is out of work. Perhaps, equally important, is the choice of the "right" job.

Even if all these basic needs were satisfied, individuals may develop a new discontent and restlessness unless they are doing what is right for them. "What a man can be, he must be. He must be true to his own nature" (Maslow, 1970, p. 46). Maslow calls this need self-actualization. He believed this higher need to be important for

occupational choice but also suggested it is stronger in some individuals than in others. Self-actualization is a relatively achieved "state of affairs" (Maslow, 1959, p. 130) in a few people. In most people it is a hope, a yearning, a drive, something not yet achieved, showing itself clinically as a drive toward health, creativity, and productivity, thus realizing the potential of individuals.

Different drives operate in different individuals to produce the choice of the same career, and the same or very similar drives could result in the choice of very different careers. In a study of university women, the women reported that the drives that influenced them in the selection of an occupation included social conformity, activity, independence, superiority, and social admiration (Vernon, cited in Roe, 1956).

In summary, the ideas of Ginzberg, Roe, and Maslow are alike in that they emphasize the importance of early influences on the choice of an occupation. Fulfilling the basic needs, discovering interests and capacities, and learning about the world of work are important aspects of a child's life. Children are dependent upon their parents or other significant persons to provide the basic necessities, to encourage exploration of interests and abilities, and to provide suitable role models. Early childhood experiences are important factors in the selection of an occupation and subsequent satisfaction with the occupational choice.

Career Development Theories and Models

The roots of career development theory can be traced to Parsons' (cited in Brown, Brooks, & Associates, 1984) work in career guidance. Parsons identified three major dimensions that shape career decisions.

In the wise choice of a vocation there are three broad factors: (1) a clear understanding of yourself, your aptitudes, abilities, resources, limitations and their causes; (2) a knowledge of the requirements and conditions of success, advantages and disadvantages, compensation, opportunities, and prospects in different lines of work; (3) true reasoning on the relations of these two groups of facts. (p. 1)

The three-part model of career guidance established the basis for trait-and-factor theory and represented the first structural model of occupational choice making. The key characteristic of this theory was the assumption that individuals have unique abilities or traits that can be objectively measured and correlated with the requirements of specific occupations (Zunker, 1986). The model included personal analysis, job analysis, and matching the individual's traits with the requirements of a specific occupation. According to this process, individuals gain a clear understanding of their personal attributes, including strengths, weaknesses, and interests. Individuals then study the conditions and specific requirements needed for success in a given occupation and apply true reasoning to make a choice (Brown et al., 1984).

Contributions regarding the trait-and-factor theory also came from sociologists who maintained that vocational development is accomplished by matching the individual's traits with requirements of

a specific occupation. They indicated that the deciding factor in the determination of the occupations of most workers is "accident," the accident of birth which established family, race, social class, and educational opportunities (Miller & Form, cited in Hewer, 1963). Both Caplow (1954) and Hollingshead (1949) agreed that class status was an important factor in career choice. It seems evident that the early theorists believed that the inheritance of specific traits and abilities were important in the selection of a person's future work.

The career decision process is, however, not a brief, one time event. Rather, career choice is shaped over a long period of time. Ginzberg (cited in Kroll, Dinklage, Lee, Morley & Wilson, 1970) defined "career development as a lifelong sequence and pattern of an individual's work-related behavior, including all work-relevant experiences and activities before and after entry into a formal occupation" (p. 11). Secondly, he considered career development as a continual process of working out a compromise between the self and the opportunities and limitations of the world (Ginzberg, Ginsburg, Axelrad, & Herma, cited in Kroll et al., 1970). Ginzberg (1952), like Parsons and other early theorists, believed that individuals chose a career in which they could use their interests and capacities to satisfy their values and goals; however, in seeking an appropriate choice, the theorists believed it was important that individuals consider the opportunities and limitations of the environment.

Zunker (1986) stated that the Ginzberg group (Ginzberg, Ginsburg, Axelrad, & Herma) was generally considered to be the first to approach a theory of occupational choice from a developmental

standpoint. Ginzberg (1952) and his associates found that the process of occupational decision-making could be analyzed in terms of three periods. The three distinct periods or stages in the occupational choice process were entitled fantasy (before age 11), tentative (early adolescence, 11-17), and realistic (middle adolescence, 17 to young adult). There were four stages within the tentative period during which time individuals are making choices based on interests, capacities, and values. Finally, at age 17 during the transition stage, the individual is looking forward to college or a job. During the realistic stage, individuals are seeking alternatives (exploration), determining their choices (crystallization), and finally deciding (specification) specifically what occupations they will pursue.

A continuation of the concept of occupational stages was formulated conceptually by Miller and Form (cited in Taylor, 1968) who sampled 276 individuals in terms of their occupational histories. The occupational career stages were marked by three phases. The initial work period (average of 3 years) included all part-time or full-time jobs held by individuals until their formal education was completed. The trial work period (6 years) included a few full-time jobs before individuals settled on specific occupations for their life work. The stable work period (18 years) was defined as that point in the occupational career when individuals remained for a period of 3 more years in the same occupation. For some persons, the stable period is never reached, and others alternate between the stable and trial stages (Taylor, 1968).

Schein (1975) also discussed career as a set of stages. A concept of career anchors emerged from a study of male alumni, from the Sloan School of Management of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (Cambridge), who completed their graduate work in the early 1960s. The anchor concept defined a career as a set of stages or a path through time that reflects the following:

1. An individual's needs, motives, and aspirations in relation to work.

2. Society's expectations of what kinds of activities will result in monetary and status rewards for the career occupant (Schein, 1975).

In a sense, one can speak of two sets of "anchors" for a career. A career is anchored in a set of job descriptions and organization norms about the rights and duties of a given title in an organization. Additionally, a career is anchored in a set of needs and motives which the individual is attempting to fulfill through the work that is done. The evidence suggested that these career anchors exerted strong influences on the career paths and career satisfactions of the individuals in the study (Schein, 1975).

Super (1957), in his theory of vocational development, expressed similar ideas to Schein's as he proposed the idea that individuals strive to implement their self-concepts by choosing to enter the occupations they believe will fulfill their needs and permit them self-expression. The particular behaviors persons use to implement their vocational choice are a function of the individual's stage of life development. Super's conception of career development was built

upon the framework of Buehler's (cited in Osipow, 1973) writings in developmental psychology, that life can be viewed as a series of stages. The first is a growth stage, starting at birth and ending around age 14. Following this is an exploratory stage, occurring between ages 15 and 25. The maintenance stage comes next, and covers the next 40 years, ending at about age 65, when the final stage, decline, begins. According to Buehler, life tasks vary according to the stage (Super, cited in Osipow, 1973).

The concept of life stages was not the only influence on Super's theoretical approach. He expanded the concept of career patterns (Miller & Form, cited by Osipow, 1973) and suggested that the career behavior of persons followed a regular and predictable pattern. The career patterns included (a) the stable pattern in which one chooses an occupation early in life and never changes, (b) the conventional pattern in which several jobs are tried before a choice is made, (c) the unstable pattern with the series of trial jobs, and (d) the multiple trial in which a person moves from one stable entry level job to another (Super, cited in Osipow, 1973). From the discussion of stages and patterns of occupational decision making, it is apparent that the knowledge of one's self and one's environment represents an important influence in the process of choosing an occupation.

Holland (1959), in his theory, identified several factors that indicated a relationship between individuals and their environment. He believed that individuals are the product of the interaction of their particular heredity and a variety of cultural and personal forces, including peers, parents, and significant adults; their

social class and culture; and their physical environment. These factors indicated how persons develop a hierarchy of habitual or preferred methods of accomplishing environmental tasks. According to Holland (1959), the person making a vocational choice searches for situations which satisfy this hierarchy of adjustive orientations. Each orientation represents a somewhat distinctive life style which is characterized by preferred methods of finding solutions to daily problems.

The social-learning-theory of career decision making, formulated by Krumboltz (1975), also emphasized the relationship between heredity and environment. In his theory, Krumboltz (1975, 1979) indicated there are combinations of factors that interact in different ways to produce different educational and occupational decisions. These influences included the interactions of genetic factors, environmental conditions, learning experiences, cognitive and emotional responses, and performance skills that help determine the decision a person may make regarding an occupation or career.

At each decision point in a career choice, the individual has one or more response or decision options. Internal (personal) and external (environmental) influencers (constraints or facilitators) shape the nature and number of those options and the way in which individuals respond to them. Krumboltz (1975) explained that sometimes individuals cannot make a decision because there are too many options, and other times options are so limited that persons believe there is only one choice available. He believed an individual, by making a decision, may increase or decrease options available for

future decisions; therefore, sometimes the best choice would be not to make a decision.

Krumboltz (1975) further explained his theory by specifying four categories of influencers that affect decision making.

1. Genetic endowment and special abilities: A person is born with certain inherited qualities that may set limits on that individual's educational occupational preferences, skills, and selections.

2. Environmental conditions and events: There are factors outside the control of any one individual, including (a) occupational opportunities only available in certain settings, (b) accessibility of training, (c) physical events such as earthquakes and hurricanes, (d) invention of new techniques (e) change in social policies and procedures, (f) neighborhood and community influences, and (g) family training experiences and resources.

3. Learning experiences: Educational and occupational decision making is influenced by the individual's past learning experiences. The patterns of stimuli and reinforcement are so complex that it is difficult to account for the infinite variations that influence the development of career preferences and the making of career selections.

4. Task approach skills: As a result of unexplained interactions between genetic and environmental influences, an individual brings to each new task or problem a set of skills, performance standards and values, work habits, perceptual and cognitive processes, and emotional responses.

As a result of the interaction of genetic factors, environmental

factors, and a complex sequence of learning experiences, individuals make a certain choice. As time continues, further events and learning experiences occur, and educational and occupational activities may change. These cumulative effects of many learning experiences are affected by various environmental circumstances and the individual's mental and emotional reactions to these experiences and circumstances, thus, stimulating persons to make certain decisions regarding future educational programs or occupational situations they may consider (Krumboltz, 1975).

Many contributions of research about vocational choice came from the work of psychologists. The dynamics of vocational choice were interpreted using Super and Bachrach's psychoanalytic theory, Super's self-theory, or Roe's need theory (cited in Hewer, 1963). Super (1957) made many contributions to the study of vocational behavior, specifically research on developmental theory. Super (1953) referred to a "final theory" more widely accepted by sociologists than by psychologists. This was the theory that "work is a way of life" (p. 206). According to Super, satisfaction in one's work and on one's job depends on the extent to which the work, the job, and the way of life enable one to play the kind of role that one wants to play. Adequate vocational and personal adjustment will result when both the nature of work and the way of life that goes with it (community, home, friends) are congenial to the aptitudes, interests, and values of the person in question.

Influences on Careers and Career Decision Making

Career Planning

Walker and Gutteridge (1979) defined "career planning as the process of setting individual career objectives and devising developmental activities necessary to achieve them" (p. 6). Using this definition, they suggested that individuals analyze their interests, values, goals, and capabilities. Persons then consider alternative career opportunities and establish a personal development plan that results in decisions to enter a certain occupation, join a particular organization, or accept or decline a certain job. Career planning is a private activity guided primarily by personal knowledge and impelled by personal initiative (Walker & Gutteridge, 1979).

Individuals begin their career planning by developing a program for professional development and using every opportunity to broaden their skills, knowledge, and abilities. An emphasis is placed on professional growth and dependence upon oneself to open doors for future development (Walker & Gutteridge, 1979). Career planning, however, is not followed by everyone.

According to an AMA (American Management Association) report of 225 organizations, in which respondents expressed their view of career planning, individuals generally lacked the skills or initiative to plan their careers (Walker & Gutteridge, 1979). A manager of a successful company, based on his experience and discussions with other associates, also found that many persons had not followed a specific plan nor established any long-range goals (Orr, 1975).

A number of businessmen, when interviewed regarding the role career planning played in their lives, indicated that they were divided on the merits of career planning. The majority of the men believed that some formal planning was necessary; however, since most people do not have complete control of their destinies, a career plan should be flexible in direction and in timing ("Is Career Planning," 1975). One director commented that a career is "a series of accidental changes of job and shifts of scenery. If individuals try too carefully to plan, the danger is that they may succeed in narrowing their options and closing off avenues of adventure that cannot be imagined" (Cleveland, 1972, p. ix).

"Barring outrageous misfortune, for most people, life is a self-fulfilling prophecy" (Davidson, 1987, p. 7). Davidson, consultant and author, indicated that playing it safe, not taking a risk, not going the extra mile, or accepting a poor living become one's fate. The longer an individual accepts this style of living, the more difficult it is to change it. Those who get ahead are natural born "career marketers" (p. 7); they implement strategies to market their own careers by setting goals to which they are committed and vigorously pursue these goals. Davidson writes that "the career professional who views his or her career as a long, unfolding journey has an edge over his or her colleagues who don't hold the same view" (p. 7). One can prepare for the journey by assembling the necessary resources, acquiring the necessary education or training, and making contact with key professionals in the field (Davidson, 1987).

Students also agreed that career planning is important. Based

on his personal involvement with the lives of university seniors, Buskirk (1976) recorded the experiences described by these students. Buskirk, a professor of management, defined "career management as all the decisions persons make that affect their ability to prosper and follow a calling that is satisfying to them" (p. xix). He suggested that individuals decide what activities they enjoy, research the career of choice, converse with persons in the field, get experience, and select a strategy for reaching the goal they have set. The students he interviewed indicated the need for career management and believed young people must take responsibility for their own careers. They realized there may be conflicting goals, that unexpected events may occur, thus necessitating the need to change plans, but believed such changes became opportunities to lead them down the road they had chosen to travel (Buskirk, 1976).

B. A. Hall, Mitsunaga, and deTornyay (1981) discussed how occupational career choices are made. School both sorts and socializes students for specific occupations. During one's education, the choice of occupations narrows as specific courses of study are chosen. Alternatives are considered, but chance events may occur that affect one's decisions. Career movement is dependent upon making the proper choices or decisions at critical points. Selecting the right college program or becoming a member of a particular group may mean the difference between one career route and another (B. A. Hall et al., 1981). For example, if an individual desires to become a dean of nursing, that person must plan to become educated as a nurse.

In a 1980 replication of a 1970 study, nearly two-thirds of 131 deans from accredited nursing schools had planned to become deans, whereas 10 years earlier, two-thirds had not considered the possibility until they were offered the position (B. A. Hall, deTornyay, & Mitsunaga, 1983). The opposite was found in a 1987 study of 12 nurses in top level executive positions. Eighty-three percent of the respondents indicated that they had not planned their career advancement, but had simply taken opportunities that had come their way (Price, Simms, & Pfoutz, 1987).

An opposite opinion was expressed as nearly all of the 13 women, interviewed in a study of women in health care management, agreed that a career strategy had evolved as their careers progressed and that this process was seldom at a standstill. Their aspirations, ambitions, and goals, as well as the paths that seemed to lead toward them, changed as their careers progressed. Most of the women believed they were moving toward their goals, although at times detours were taken (Haddock & Aries, 1989).

From the studies discussed thus far, it is apparent that the planning of one's career is a process that evolves over a lifetime. Zunker (1986) defined "career life planning as an ongoing process that allows for change of direction as individuals need to change or situational circumstances cause change" (p. 90). Career life planning assists in managing changes and thus allows greater opportunity for meeting one's occupational goals. The concept is a developmental process that includes the needs generated from work, family, home, and leisure (Zunker, 1986).

One of the main purposes of career life planning is to develop skills that will assist individuals with planning for their future. Through career life planning, individuals learn to center their attention on carefully laid plans and on those variables over which they have control. The dimensions of career life planning include the following:

1. Individuals learn to identify skills and plan to upgrade them through life-learning programs.
2. Individuals develop options and alternatives and effectively decide which to follow.
3. Individuals learn to make plans that they can change and revise as they change or as circumstances necessitate change.
4. Individuals must learn to be flexible and include realistic options from which effective decisions can be made to promote a fuller or more satisfying life (Zunker, 1986).

Career choices are tentative. Practically every choice involves some doubt about the credibility of it and the possibility that it can be successfully carried out over a lifetime. Uncertainty is compounded by career possibilities that have disappeared because of economic conditions or technological changes (Zunker, 1986).

Individuals choose their careers in a variety of ways. Each executive or professional male who took part in Oliver's (1981) research (94 participants in seminars conducted by Oliver) identified his initial career choice as Self-determined or Environmentally Determined. Using the definition of career as "the first general occupational field (e.g., business, education, law) to which they

committed themselves for at least 7 years" (p. 90), individuals were asked to choose the statement that best described the way they chose their original career.

Those who selected one of the first three choices were classified as Self-determined, an indication that they were involved in some way in their own choice of career. Those who selected one of the latter three were classified as Environmentally Determined, an indication that other persons were involved in the decision and that the individual had no sense of choosing a career. The hypothesis predicted that persons who entered their careers in a Self-determined way would be more satisfied than those who entered in an Environmentally Determined way, and this predictor was supported by the research findings (Oliver, 1981).

Making decisions regarding a change in occupations or positions is a part of career planning. Sixty scientists and engineers from two research and development divisions in the chemical industry were interviewed about their early career decisions. The study was designed to determine the informal career factors that affected their decision to move from a technical professional job to a technical management position. The individuals who chose to move into technical management positions had three factors in common:

1. A job structure that allowed for a technical contribution that increased an individual's visibility.
2. Access to management mentors who provided career guidance.
3. Demonstration of entrepreneurial initiative. Forty percent of the sample had these three factors in common. A second group, 23%

of the sample, were career technical professionals by choice, and a third group, 37% of the sample, were career technical professionals who believed they were denied an opportunity to move into management. Both non-manager groups were characterized by the absence of the factors that characterized the group of managers (Mainiero, 1986).

To conclude this section on career planning, two studies of school administrators are discussed. The first indicated that women administrators move through regular career paths to reach the superintendent post. The second study presented data that indicated the difficulties women may have as they pursue higher positions in education.

Data from a national sample of women superintendents, assistant or associate superintendents, and secondary school principals were used to examine the career patterns of women in higher status posts. From the findings, they concluded that these women administrators moved through relatively regular career paths: from staff jobs to the principal or assistant superintendent post, from the vice principal position to the principalship, and from the principalship or assistant superintendent's job to the role of superintendent. Those women who were superintendents appeared to have somewhat more complex career paths, most often taking out a year to attend graduate school and spending time as a principal before becoming a superintendent (Stockard, 1984).

A finding reported by respondents in Stockard's (1984) study of women administrators in education, was the common transition between the position of counselor and staff administrative posts or vice

principal positions. Counselors may be more likely than other non-teaching personnel to develop personal contacts with administrators who can aid their advancement.

In another study of 25 women school administrators, three stages of career development were identified. They began as Culturally Defined, that is, they molded their identities, behaviors, attitudes, and choices according to the expectations of society. Women administrators formed their career orientations in a career environment where the expectation was that they would remain as teachers and that administrators were male. They were filling many roles which they had learned as part of their female socialization. If they had supports and incentives, they may progress through Transition--a difficult socialization process--and become Self-Defined--comfortable, competent and placed in higher administrative positions. Nineteen women in the study were progressing through Transition or Self-Defined and were gaining support, incentives, competencies, changing their personal lives to manage female career role strain, and assertively seeking and finding higher positions. Seven women were in high positions with a sense of competence and satisfaction with life and career (C. Marshall, 1985).

The majority of the respondents in the studies indicated the need for some career planning but also found chance happenings changing their career paths. The managers generally agreed that certain requisites were important, such as selecting the right education or training and meeting the right people. Formal planning is necessary in careers that require specific degrees and licenses to practice.

The majority of the authors, cited in this section, believed the way to get ahead in one's career is to set goals and pursue activities that will meet these goals, allowing for some flexibility in choices.

Luck

A critical influence on a person's career development, despite all the planning they do, can be identified by the term "lady luck." Chance events often determine what jobs are open at a given time, when the demand for people in a certain field will pick up or drop off, or when a mobile superior enters a certain department. One can anticipate what might happen and develop contingency plans to deal with what might go wrong or take advantage of opportunities that may arise (D. T. Hall, 1976).

A number of studies (Buskirk, 1976; Kellogg, 1972; Kuyper, 1987; London & Mone, 1987) were done to determine the influences that affect a person's career development. The respondents indicated that individuals have some control over their vocational choices but also suggested that many people feel at the mercy of chance and dependent on the help of others. Many college seniors demonstrated little concern and little faith in their capacity to influence destiny and lacked the knowledge of how to develop a plan of personal career management (Buskirk, 1976).

Personnel experts at the Career Blazer's Agency in New York City suggested that persons forget about luck, as they believed there is no such thing. Those who appear lucky are aware of the changing needs in the local marketplace, especially those organizations and

industries in which they are interested. These so-called lucky persons are aware of their strengths and weaknesses and do not allow another person's evaluation of them to determine their career choices. They take control of their own careers and match what they have to offer with the available jobs (Lewis et al., 1983).

The results of a study (Bogenschutz & Sagaria, 1988) of 40 mid-level non-faculty administrators in one university suggested that slightly more than half the administrators would be considered non-planners. They worked without a defined career plan and perceived no control over choices. They often attributed their decisions to serendipity, describing their experiences as "falling into things" and "being in the right place at the right time" (p. 11). Among the non-planners was a small group (2%) who permitted other individuals to make career choices for them (Bogenschutz & Sagaria, 1988).

A study of 66 female public school executives was completed in the Texas Metroplex area (Funk, 1986). Ninety percent indicated they did not aspire to an administrative position when they entered the field of education as a teacher. Only 18% had done some long-term career planning, and 82% had done no career planning. Comments from respondents included: "No, my career just happened." "No, just rolled with the flow." "No, it was quite coincidental." "I didn't set my goals" (Funk, 1986, p. 9).

Listening to top executives, Caple (1987) heard repeated statements that there was a crucial connection between location--being at the right place at the right time--and success. Over 200 interviews (Caple, 1987; Cleveland, 1972) of CEO's were done, and many

executives expressed the opinion that a person needs the right skills but there is also a lot of happenstance. Cleveland (1972) described a career as "a series of accidental changes of job and shifts of scenery on which one looks back later, weaving through the story retroactively some thread of logic that was not visible at the time" (p. ix).

Yeager (1988) also discussed the subject of luck and the importance of chance events in an individual's career path. As a result of a process developed and refined in workshops, he designed a system to assist persons in the management of their careers. To manage a career successfully, Yeager suggested that individuals must confront their beliefs about luck and chance and develop an approach that enhances the likelihood of good fortune coming their way. When an individual focuses on an issue and uses skills directed towards finding a solution, something may happen and others believe it to be a result of luck. The point is that once individuals really focus on something, the information starts to flow into their thoughts and they are ready to receive and use the information (Yeager, 1988).

Fate influences careers because people allow it. Buskirk (1976) states that anything can happen when individuals have no career plan and allow whatever comes down the road to affect their lives; however, those with a career plan know the road they want to travel. Kellogg (1972) proposes that the recipients of good luck may use it to their advantage if they recognize the opportunity it provides and have the talent and flexibility to respond to it and capitalize on it. While luck can be a legitimate contributor to success, it is far

from sufficient. From Kellogg's personal poll of a dozen employees, she concluded that it is important that individuals observe what is going on around them, reflect upon its meaning for them, and develop insight regarding their positive personal qualities and experiences and the different ways in which they might be used.

Buskirk (1976), Bogenschutz and Sagaria (1988), and Funk (1986), agreed that "luck," or chance happenings, are important influences in the occupational decision making process. Individuals in several of the studies commented that they had not planned their career nor had they made leadership their goal, but a chance event had occurred that directed their path for them. From the studies presented here, it is evident that many individuals do not feel the need for planning nor believe it has much influence in their vocational lives.

Self-Knowledge

The self and self-concept are labels for "an individual's evaluation of self" (O'Hara & Tiedeman, cited in Kroll et al., 1970, p. 11). "Self" is defined as the content of an individual's knowledge about and accumulated reactions to self and "self-evaluation" as the dynamic processes and mechanisms involved in the production of such contact (Kroll et al., 1970).

The importance of one's occupation to one's self-concept (and to others' concepts of one) is indicated by the fact that in response to the question, "Who are you?", many people reply by stating their occupation. If they do not, the next question is likely to be "What do you do?" (Borow, cited in Kroll et al., 1970, p. 10).

Over 200 senior executives from three California cities were interviewed, and these leaders indicated that there is no power like the power of self-knowledge. Caple (1987) defined self-knowledge as the ability of people to know themselves and be alert to inner changes so they can focus the full impact of their abilities and personality on whatever task they undertake. Many of those interviewed had a keen sense of their strengths and abilities but were also aware of their weaknesses and vulnerabilities. They were actively willing to change and grow to overcome weaknesses. The executives indicated that self-knowledge does increase the chance of being qualified and prepared for whatever circumstances are encountered along the way (Caple, 1987).

Self-evaluation, according to Holland (1959), is a function of the life history in which education, socioeconomic origin, and family influences are major determinants. The factors of self-evaluation plus intelligence are assumed to determine level of choice. A major determinant in career choice is the comparison of self with the perception of an occupation and subsequent acceptance or rejection of the choice. Individuals are attracted to a certain career by their particular personalities and numerous variables that constitute their backgrounds. Congruence of one's view of self with occupational preference establishes an orientation referred to as "modal personal style" (Holland, cited in Zunker, 1986, p. 28).

Modal personal orientation is a developmental process established through heredity and the individual's life history of reacting to environmental demands. Holland (1959) explained that, at the

time of vocational choice, each individual has a set of adjustive orientations that correspond to six occupational environments. Each orientation represents a particular life style which is characterized by a specific way of reacting to daily problems. Individuals are attracted to a particular role in an occupational environment that meets their personal needs and provides them with satisfaction; therefore, self-knowledge in the search for vocational satisfaction and stability, as well as occupational knowledge, are important aspects of career choice (Holland, cited in Zunker, 1986).

A review of literature prior to 1971, and other studies in the field of human behavior, referred to the capacity of individuals to develop their own unique potential. A vital part of the study was based on personal observations and conversations with individuals and how they struggled to grow. McKain (1975) proposed that the most important element in the development of a person's potential lies in an understanding of self, a structuring of mental processes to realize one's own unique potential. The process of realizing one's unique potential is a concept based on self-motivation, self-discipline, and conscious growth.

An important element in the realization of potential is the capability individuals have to remove self-imposed obstacles (McKain, 1975). Knowledge of one's career weaknesses is vital to a successful manager's ability to continue on the road to success. A Dallas career counselor and other management experts identified three common factors that affect the direction of one's career path as personality problems, performance problems, and the inability to adapt at work.

The importance of understanding one's professional weaknesses was indicated in a 3-year study of women executives in America's manufacturing and service companies. They believed by tuning into one's professional weaknesses, an individual can avoid obstacles or prevent potential disasters (Dark, 1989).

From the discussions thus far, it appears that self-confidence and self-knowledge are vital ingredients in the occupational decision-making process. Based on their experiences, London and Mone (1987), employee career developers, differentiate between those individuals who make successful career choices and those who are most likely to make unsuccessful career choices. Individuals who are self-confident, willing to take risks, and have a need for achievement probably make long lasting job choices from which they gain a sense of satisfaction and fulfillment. Persons who lack self-confidence and depend on others for direction most likely make unsuccessful career choices.

Having an accurate picture of one's own skills and knowing what one wants from a career is helpful. People make temporary choices that may be risky; however, risk entails giving up something of known value for something of potentially higher value, and the new choice may prove to lead to even greater accomplishments. Failures that make persons aware of their limitations, without destroying confidence in their own abilities are beneficial, thus allowing them to explore career alternatives before establishing final career goals (London & Mone, 1987).

Self-development was also the key concept of Tiedeman's

(Tiedeman & O'Hara, cited in Zunker, 1986) approach to career development. A major contribution of the theory was the focus on self-awareness as important and necessary in the decision-making process. Career decisions are reached through a systematic problem-solving pattern that includes seven aspects: (1) anticipation or preoccupation, including exploration, crystallization, choice, and clarification; and (2) implementation or adjustment, including induction, reformation, and integration. Tiedeman and O'Hara (cited in Zunker, 1986) focused on ego development as a major component for the career decision process. Clarifying one's current status and projecting oneself into anticipated career environments is an example of self-development. Understanding of one's belief system is a product of the decision-making process and allows an individual to live a decision-guided life. Career decision making is a continuous process in which individuals will change their courses of career action caused by external factors or internal psychological drives (Zunker, 1986).

In summary, the concepts and theories discussed in this section illustrate and emphasize the importance of self-awareness as individuals seek and choose their life work. They learn to assess their strengths and weaknesses and to experiment with different career alternatives. Self-assessment is basic to career planning as individuals compare their interests and values to available occupations and make a choice that they believe will bring them a sense of satisfaction.

Flexibility and Risk-taking

A recurring theme among those at the top, reflected in their words and their lives, is the need for flexibility. They have learned to "bend without breaking" (Caple, 1987, p. 49) and to be flexible without abandoning their values and purposes. Those at the top take a wide range of opportunities to prepare themselves. They seek out activities that test and challenge them and force them to change. Caple (1987) suggests that flexibility is the core component of learning and living, a willingness to see things differently, to conceive possibilities beyond others' dreams.

Risk takers are a special breed. There are four distinct qualities that mark risk-takers:

1. They are willing to gamble and stake their careers on their own abilities.
2. They are not concerned about job security.
3. They are resourceful.
4. They have the strong proven ability to motivate others.

According to Challenger (cited in Winter, 1989), founder of the oldest outplacement company in the United States, a minority of job seekers (estimated at no more than one in every five) are willing to risk their career on a shaky company. The 20% who are willing to take a chance on a company whose future is uncertain may become corporate heroes. Women represented 10% of the sample, and only one out of eight fits the profile of the risk-taker (Challenger, cited in Winter, 1989).

There are those for whom the thrill that accompanies a risk is

so intoxicating that they welcome every opportunity to take a chance; however, there are others for whom the fear of losing is so great that they never venture forth at all. There is no such thing as a sure risk, but there are ways to minimize negative results and to prepare for survival if the risk backfires. Making decisions based on a full understanding of the risk that is involved and being aware of the possibilities and alternative actions may minimize the risk one is taking and ensure the results that one desires (Yeager, 1988).

The fear of making decisions prevents people from moving ahead with their lives. By not choosing, individuals make a choice and perhaps deprive themselves of opportunities to experience life in a new way. Jeffers (1989) introduced a win-win approach, a different mind-set, in which one looks at what lies ahead simply as two paths, each with nothing but rewards along the way. With this no-lose model, an individual has nothing to lose--only something to gain--whatever path is taken. The knowledge that one can handle anything that comes along is the key to taking risks, and the no-lose approach to decision making can move a person from a position of pain to one of power (Jeffers, 1989).

Successful people know they must take risks if they want to reap the rewards of their ambitions. They are willing to go out on a limb to maximize their opportunities and to learn new skills. Individuals can avoid the trap of waiting for other people or circumstances to propel them along if they manage their own career and job (Raudsepp, 1989).

Thus, it appears that risk is an active ingredient in the

pursuit of a manager position. Individuals realize there are challenging situations whenever there is change involved, but they also welcome the opportunity to advance in their profession and are willing to take the risk to accomplish their goals.

Influence of Parents

Parental discipline is clearly the most powerful influence before work begins.

In the childhood home of the National Urban League's John Jacob, "You could not tell Daddy that you couldn't do anything that anybody else could do." Act and result were rigorously linked in this household. In the home of Sara Westendorf, the message was similar as she was expected to be responsible for herself and for the completion of anything she undertook. (Harmon, 1989, p. 19)

As Research and Development Manager for Advanced Manufacturing Systems operations at Hewlett-Packard in Sunnyvale, California, at age 37 Westendorf was one of the highest ranked women there. "She attributed her aspiration to 'admiring my mother and what she had accomplished' as an engineer in World War II and then Dean of Smith College" (Harmon, 1989, p. 19). Westendorf learned "not to be afraid of success, because all the talent in the world isn't going to get you there if you don't believe that you can succeed" (Harmon, 1989, p. 20).

In Harmon's (1989) study, a 32-year-old publisher for Babcox Publications remembered that her father discussed business with her when she was a little girl. She remembered her father's advice: "Read the directions. If you don't know how to do it, then find out. If you don't know, there is somebody out there who does know and all

you have to do is find them" (Harmon, 1989, p. 21).

A 37-year-old president of a public relations agency, based in Cleveland, believed her parents set exceptionally high standards and expected she would excel at whatever she did. Her father believed if you weren't going to do it right in the first place, then don't bother getting involved. Even getting A's in school was not enough, as he expected her to go above and beyond with honor courses and college graduation. She grew up taking this kind of pressure for granted (Harmon, 1989). From Harmon's interviews of these leaders and others not quoted here, it was apparent that individuals considered parental guidance and support an important factor in their successful attainment of positions as leaders in successful companies or corporations.

Other women also indicated that they had strong positive identifications with their fathers, as well as some female model. Nearly all the women in a study of 25 married professionals with doctorate degrees spoke of the importance these female models had in stimulating them toward professional careers and in alleviating guilt incurred as a result of being a working mother (Walum, cited in Douvan, 1976). Baruch (1973) also indicated the importance of maternal attitudes and values regarding work and career. She recorded that women with mothers desiring a career, even if they did not work, had a positive influence upon their daughters' self-esteem.

In a study of college graduates in 1961, approximately two out of three men stated that their mothers had never worked after marriage. Between 20 and 25% of the men surveyed stated that their

fathers were professional men and presumably had a positive attitude towards their children pursuing a higher education. There was an additional group of parents who encouraged their children to get as much education as possible and prepare themselves for professional or technical work. Forty percent of the parents had financial circumstances that hindered their sons from pursuing graduate education (Ginzberg & Herma, 1964).

The studies discussed thus far have suggested a strong association between success and parental stimulation to encourage their children to do their best in whatever endeavor they chose to pursue. Some persons suggested that this perceived love and attention may direct an individual toward a specific career. A study of 94 men and women engineers and men and women social workers was done to determine if the degree of person-orientation in their lives was positively related to the perceived amount of love and attention received in childhood from parents. The men engineers reported generally affectionate early backgrounds which were the stablest and least stressful of any of the groups, and they were able to follow their own inclinations. The women engineers who had difficulties in their past also reported good relations with their fathers with whom they tended to identify. Their choice of occupation often related to this identification. Their persistence in the face of the difficulties due to being women in a predominantly male occupation may have resulted from the general toughness that they developed in response to earlier difficulties (Roe & Siegelman, 1964).

Both men and women social workers reported more stress and less

affection from parents than did the engineers and reported more personality and other problems in their parents. There were a few men who seemed to have identified with their mothers, but only one of the women was thought to have strongly identified with her father. Here, the choice of occupation seems to have resulted as part of a search for more satisfying personal relations. The women in this group were generally not seriously disadvantaged, and social work is culturally a very feminine occupation so that going into it did not require particular pressures. As was anticipated, it appeared that the farther from the cultural sex stereotype the occupational choice was, the more likely it was that there were particular pressures in the early histories which have predisposed to such a choice (Roe & Siegelman, 1964).

In summary, a foundation built by assistive loving parents or other supportive models seems to influence the development of self-esteem and instill an attitude that encourages success in the individual's chosen occupation. Two other studies are included here that describe the types of backgrounds reported by chief executive officers in the business world and women studying to enter the business world as leaders.

A study of the chief executive officers of America's largest corporations was done to provide a comprehensive profile of the nation's leaders. The data collected on the CEO's birth order confirmed most of the generalizations about birth order reported in earlier studies. Forty-four percent were only children of first-borns. Eighty-eight percent came from traditional two-parent

households. The executives came from families with an average of 2.9 children; 25% grew up with four or more children in the family. Only 12% were reared as only children, and one was reared in an orphanage. Many of the individuals reported they were inspired by a mother with high standards, perseverance, and a positive attitude. They indicated that their fathers practiced what they preached about work and extolled the value of getting a job done. In both direct and indirect ways, many fathers and mothers charted the business careers of their offsprings. The leaders in this study considered a stable marriage as important. Seven out of eight CEOs were still married to their first wives (Kurtz, Boone, & Fleenor, 1989).

In a study of the women enrolled in the M.B.A. program at Harvard Business School in the year 1963-64, there was a particularly strong and regular pattern to the family histories of the subjects. Twenty out of 25 were either eldest or only children; five were not first-born, but their experiences were similar to a first-born child. All the women had extremely close relationships with their fathers and had been involved in an unusually wide range of traditionally masculine activities. They had been given strong support by their families in following their own interests regardless of the sex-role attributes of those interests. The fathers of 22 of the 25 held management positions in business. The other three were college administrators. Twenty-four of the 25 mothers were housewives; however, their educational level was at least equal to the fathers or even superior to the fathers (Hennig & Jardim, 1977).

Education and Experience

For certain jobs or careers, there are certain qualifications, including licenses, that are necessary before individuals can enter their chosen field. A nurse must attend classes, attain clinical expertise, and pass a state exam. In many cases, an employer sets out a list of qualifications designed primarily to limit the number of applicants and weed out those who might be less serious about the job. In reality, it is not unusual to find that the person who gets the job does not precisely meet all the qualifications. These people possess the "hidden job skill, the ability to plan a strategic career move to get the job they want, and that skill is perhaps the most important one an individual will ever possess" (Lewis et al., 1983, p. 6).

In the Social Learning Theory of career decision making, Krumboltz (1975) attempted to explain how educational and occupational preferences and skills are acquired and how selection of courses, occupations, and fields of work are made. In the theory, Krumboltz identified the interactions of genetic factors, environmental conditions, learning experiences, cognitive and emotional responses, and performance skills that produced movement along one career path or another. Combinations of these factors interact in different ways to produce different decisions. Sometimes many options are available, and other times options are limited. A decision, the selection of an option from two or more alternatives, Krumboltz suggested, may increase or decrease options available for future decisions.

The attitudes of students toward learning, according to a study

(Project Talent) of high school students, are developed before they reach secondary school (Shaycoft, cited in Ginzberg, 1971). The results of the research indicated that the influence of values was pervasive and affected program choices, course selections, college plans, and commitment to the educational process, which together have a pronounced affect on career outcomes. Among young males in the upper 10% of ability distribution whose fathers had blue-collar jobs, the proportion who did not enter college was over three times higher than white-collar sons with similar ability. Upper income blue-collar families who have been able to achieve economic security without a college education were less likely to encourage children to plan for college than were college-trained white-collar workers with lower incomes (Ginzberg, 1971).

Ginzberg (1971) related that, according to information from a review of research, financial factors were less significant in influencing college attendance than were motivational factors such as peer intentions and family aspirations. Students with high ability and desire succeeded in college; however, sometimes poverty closed out many options to the poor that are available to those higher on the income scale. Even though college attendance is important, education alone will not completely determine a person's career. The relationship between educational attainment and career outcomes can be influential in shaping one's future and can be seen in the earnings of men who have completed different levels of formal schooling (Ginzberg, 1971).

The findings of a survey of more than 11,000 high-level

executives, promoted during the period 1967 through 1976, indicated trends that were developing. The most obvious change, compared to data from a 1960 study (Newcomer, cited in Swinyard & Bond, 1989), was in educational background. In the study there was a marked increase in graduate and professional education among corporate executives, a decrease in the number of those without college degrees, and continuing rise in the importance attached to the master's degree in business administration (Swinyard & Bond, 1989).

Women especially needed to gain more training and education. If discrimination existed against women, women's management training could at least help remove the argument that females lacked the knowledge, skills, and awareness to make it in management. The authors of several studies (Koff, Stull, & Woods, cited in Hay, 1980) emphasized that it was important that women, aspiring to promotion up the corporate ladder, must be competent and well-educated. A majority of the study participants (both men and women) from Wood's study (cited in Hay, 1980) advised young women to get a good education to reduce the reliance on "lucky breaks" (p. 34).

Women from two separate groups who achieved high status in federal agencies and in several different corporations also emphasized the importance of education. Without exception, education was stressed as a major contributing factor to their success, as well as keeping up with changing technologies and learning new skills (Fields, 1983).

Problems arising from lack of experience were discussed in a 3-year study of women executives in America's largest manufacturing and

service companies. Three-quarters of the women expressed concern because of lack of experience. Most of the top-level executives from Fortune 1000 companies, who were interviewed, said that "women who fell off the fast track either had failed to achieve what was expected of them or their performance and bad judgment had cost their companies money" (Morrison, White, & VanVelsor, cited in Dark, 1989, p. 50). Because they were so ambitious or climbed so quickly, they did not have the skills, experience, or power base to perform as expected (Morrison, White, & VanVelsor, cited in Dark, 1989).

A number of studies have been done to determine the emphasis leaders place on education and experience and the variables that have improved their chance of success in their chosen occupation. The majority of respondents agreed that education and experience strongly improve their chances for future employment as executives. The studies discussed below provide specific examples.

Leaders, in a study of 243 chief executive officers in America's largest corporations, emphasized the importance of experience and education. They exhibited early signs of career success. They worked at an early age, participated in sports, and held offices in college clubs and other organizations. The value of a college education was clearly illustrated as less than one in 100 CEOs failed to attend college. Business and engineering were the most popular majors. Many CEOs stressed participation in team sports because it was good from a health perspective but also because it taught the value of teamwork and the role of competition (Kurtz et al., 1989).

A study was done to collect data from 147 active members of the

National Association of Student Personnel Administrators at 4-year institutions. According to the respondents, the last job experience, the length and variety of experience, the quality and strength of references, and degrees earned were the essential ingredients to advancement. Although both degrees and experience were requisites, experience was considered the fundamental ingredient in promotion (Lunsford, 1984).

There was a growing awareness that administrators needed training in administration. In a study of 244 psychiatrist-administrators, the psychiatrists frequently felt unfamiliar with the administrative role. Although respondents in the study viewed administrative experience gained through on-the-job training as critical, trial and error may not be the most effective way for psychiatrists or other administrators to learn the administrative role. Those who participated in the study had received little formal administrative training but recognized the need to integrate administrative theory with their clinical backgrounds (Silver, Akerson, & Marcos, 1990).

Over 300 men who had received graduate fellowships during 1944-45 to 1950-51 from Columbia University and held professional, technical, or managerial positions, defined variables that helped shape their careers. The three major strands that helped to shape their careers were educational preparation, occupational choice, and early work experience. Running through these strands was the central element of time. Persons can reach an occupational decision early or late, can proceed straight through school, or can interrupt their studies to go to work. The question of whether one marries early or

late, and whether there are children, may affect margins of freedom with respect to career choices (Ginzberg & Herma, 1964).

A finding of Ginzberg's study, which had bearing on the stabilization of the respondent's occupational choices, was that 60% of the group pursued as their major subject in graduate school the subject which they had selected as their undergraduate major. Another 30% selected a major in graduate school that was related to their undergraduate major. Only 10% made a radical shift after college. Another indication of stabilization of interest, at least with regard to major field of study, was the relation between the respondent's major in graduate school and field of work. Five out of six maintained interest as indicated by their major in college (Ginzberg & Herma, 1964).

Other studies were done to determine the factors individuals perceived to be important in their career development. In a survey of 534 community college administrators, the majority considered committee appointments and prior teaching experience as the most important factors. They considered the informal male network, participation in a formal administrative internship, and prior administrative experience important. Other important factors included the amount of formal education, development of communication skills, and timing. The identification of timing as a key factor suggested that women perceived that chance substantially influenced advancement (Kuyper, 1987).

As part of a study on women in management, 15 midwestern, top-level female managers shared information about their career paths.

Leadership and management abilities were most often mentioned by these women as the attributes that helped them achieve their career success. They also emphasized the benefit of increased technical skills involving accounting, finance, and budget training (Rosenberg, 1987).

In a study of 394 education administrators at the dean and above level, the respondents did not differ significantly with the amount of education but did receive their degrees in different areas. Over two-thirds of those respondents who received degrees in the physical sciences were in academic administration. Less than half with the highest degree in education were in academic administration. This finding may illustrate that a significant barrier to higher administration is the area in which one receives a degree (Warner, Brazell, Allen, Bostnick, & Marin, 1988).

Many studies have been done in which people have suggested that the more education persons have the better they will fare in the labor market; however, there are other considerations. The personnel practices of employers, the power of labor unions, the pervasive racial discrimination, licensing regulations, locational considerations, and other factors largely unrelated to a person's educational achievement determine many job opportunities. The access of people to educational and training opportunities is without question a critical determinant of their vocational outcome, but the labor market has its own way of rationing opportunity (Ginzberg, 1971).

An additional element that is important to an individual's progress in a chosen vocation is personal drive and motivation.

Hopkins, sales trainer and best-selling author, states that "rarely does lack of ability prevent people from reaching their goals. More often the decision to pursue a goal was never made in the first place" (Hopkins & Leman, cited in "Fulfilling Your Dreams," 1988, p. 8). He believes many people have great reserves of untapped power, but the problem is finding out what they want. Leman, editor of the magazine Leadership Dynamics, said that "transferring these wants and dreams to paper is the first step. The act of recording them plants a seed, and suddenly these dreams demand time, attention, and nurturance. Many people then are prodded into action" (Hopkins & Leman, cited in "Fulfilling Your Dreams," 1988, p. 8).

In summary, the majority of respondents of numerous studies indicated the need for education and experience in their chosen field. In certain fields, there are specific degrees and licenses necessary as entry requirements; however, in other fields there are a variety of educational backgrounds that will allow entry. Other important factors that contributed to success included communication skills, informal network system, and technical skills in finance and accounting.

Influence of Mentors, Proteges, Role Models, and Peers

A mentoring role, based on the work of the late psychologist Carl Rogers, consisted of developing a problem-solving relationship with someone who does not solve problems but helps an individual solve them. Rather than offer advice, guidance, or solutions, non-directive helpers act as mirrors, reflecting one's thoughts about

one's dilemma, focusing on an individual's energy and resources (Yeager, 1988).

A mentor is defined by Levinson (cited in Thomas, Murrell, & Chickering, 1982) as "a generative father figure who grooms his protege to make a dramatic break and become his own man" (p. 49). Ochberg et al. (1986) defined mentor as "senior colleague who takes a personal interest in the career of a junior" (p. 939). Mentors serve as advisors, counselors, or sponsors and facilitate entry and mobility for their proteges (Shapiro et al., 1978).

Levinson, a prominent adult development theorist, explained adult behavior as moving through a set of different stages (early, middle and later adulthood). His conclusions, originally derived from an empirical study involving intensive interviews with 40 men (1978), have been augmented by research on women's lives (1986). One of Levinson's key concepts was that young people have a dream about who they will become as adults, that mentors help them realize a life structure for implementing these dreams (Levinson, cited in Leibowitz, Farren, & Kaye, 1986).

In a study of 400 professional women, the importance of mentors was emphasized. All of the women in the study reaffirmed their beliefs in the positive aspects of the mentor relationship. What was learned was what professional men have known for a long time, that having experienced persons guide their career gives them both the assistance and the connections necessary to get ahead. The professional women clearly saw the value of a mentor relationship, but many were unable to find a mentor who could make this outstanding

contribution (Collins, 1983).

Over three-fourths of the respondents in Collins' study replied that their mentors were men. The remaining sample had men and women equally as mentors. The mentor relationship was described as intense with mutual trust and respect, caring, confidentiality, and a willingness to share victories and defeats (Collins, 1983).

From Collins' (1983) research, the following five criteria emerged as necessary if one is to be defined as a mentor. The criteria include the following:

1. Mentors must be higher up on the professional ladder than the individuals they are to mentor.
2. Mentors must be recognized authorities in their field, ahead in authority and power.
3. Mentors must be influential and close to the lines of authority and power.
4. Mentors need to have a genuine interest in the personal growth and development of the persons they are to mentor.
5. Mentors should be willing to commit time and emotion to the relationship.

From the mentor research, Collins (1983) learned that role models do not function as mentors, but mentors can function as role models. Role models do not make a commitment; and there was not the give-and-take, close contact, or interface found in a mentor relationship. Even if individuals have mentors, Collins suggested that an opportunity to observe role models who are effective in their positions would be beneficial.

Yeager (1988) described two types of mentoring activities. The first included performance mentoring activities that help an individual do a better job and develop competencies. The second type of mentoring activities were personal ones that bring a person visibility and motivation to enhance personal development. Another performance mentoring activity is called stretching, an activity in which an area of need for growth is identified, and a mentor assists with creation of conditions that foster this growth. Often the mentored person will not realize the benefits of the experience until later (Yeager, 1988).

Numerous studies of the career paths of men and women administrators have been done to determine the importance of mentors in their lives. The great majority of individuals indicated they had one or more mentors who helped in some way to further their careers. In the following paragraphs, a variety of studies discussed different ways in which mentors, role models, and peers have guided an individual's career.

Two groups of women were interviewed to discuss how they climbed the career ladder to success. The first group had achieved a high level in federal agencies, and the second were managers in different corporations. In the first group, only two claimed never to have had a mentor. The second group of women said that they had used various networks when they were ready to make a career change. Having a network of people in the company who were supportive was emphasized (Fields, 1983).

Nearly two-thirds of 1,250 successful business executives

reported that they had a mentor or sponsor, and one-third had two or more mentors. Those with a mentoring relationship earned larger salaries, engaged in more formal education, and were more likely to follow a systematic career path. They were happier with their careers and derived more satisfaction from their work (Roche, cited in Fields, 1983).

Of 30 women interviewed, half in book publishing and half in retailing, 50% of the total sample made special mention of senior company personnel who, as mentors and sponsors, had shaped and facilitated their career progress. These individuals fulfilled a variety of roles, including coaching the manager in job performance, advising on career decisions, and nominating a woman (often in the face of opposition) for promotion (J. Marshall, 1984).

In a Columbia University study, more than 78% of the men singled out an individual who had exercised influence on their development; however, the influence was related to work adjustment rather than occupational choice. Teachers and employers were most frequently mentioned as role models (Ginzberg & Herma, 1964).

In a fifth year survey of Sloan School of Management (Massachusetts Institute of Technology) master level graduates, many respondents reported positive mentor relationships. Although contacts with these individuals were infrequent, they were important to Sloan graduates when making strategic decisions on their careers. A larger proportion of female than male graduates reported that they had a mentor. About 66% of the women who responded to the mentoring questions had mentors as compared to 45% of the men (Wallace, 1989).

A study of male executives and their mentoring experiences was compared with a study on women executives' experiences with the mentor relationship. About 77% of the women (compared with 90% of the male executives) had a mentor who influenced their career development. Some women respondents said that mentors can hurt a career. Other women noted that relationships with male mentors sometimes become sexual and warned that some invitations to help may be disguised sexual advances. Most women (90%) were mentors of other females; less than 5% of the men had chosen female proteges. Both men (87%) and women (99%) indicated they gained greater self-confidence through the mentor relationship, and it enhanced their awareness of their strengths (Reich, 1986).

The majority of the respondents from two studies of nursing service administrators indicated that others were influential in their career advancement and that having mentor relationships resulted in greater job satisfaction. In the first study, 50% of the administrators chose their former teachers or deans as mentors, while 33% of the educators selected former nursing service directors or supervisors as being most important (Price et al., 1987). In the second study, mentor relationships were present for 61% of the respondents, and 58% reported they had been mentors to others in the nursing profession (Larson, 1986).

Mentors were important in the lives of 83% of female public school executives who indicated there were persons who helped them enter the field of administration or helped them to advance within the administrative ranks. Only 18% indicated that they never were

helped by a mentor. Of the members of the sample who were helped by mentors, 47% stated that their mentors were males; 20% reported that their mentors were females; and 27% reported both male and female mentors (Funk, 1986).

A portion of the study of mental health administrators was conducted to determine whether mentors and proteges differ in the importance they assign to sponsorship, personal interest, and ideals. There was a consistent difference; mentors emphasized their function as sponsors while proteges gave equal or greater weight to role modeling (Ochberg et al., 1986).

Psychiatrist-administrators indicated that they believed that their past mentor relationships were important. Of the 200 respondents in the study population, 59% had had a mentor, and 68% reported that they had been a mentor to someone else (Silver et al., 1990).

At a conference in Wisconsin, women administrators in public and private educational institutions articulated the meaning and role of mentoring in their careers. According to the observations of the presenters and participants at the conference, women professionals do not engage in grooming-mentoring relationships but do have a different professional relationship known as networking-mentoring. This "networking model consists of an ever-changing series of dyadic contacts in which each person plays the role of mentor or mentee to differing degrees" (Swoboda & Millar, 1986, p. 11). Even though the conference participants suggested that networking relationships were less likely to move a woman up the hierarchical ladder, they did believe such relationships do foster self-reliance and a wide range

of contacts (Swoboda & Millar, 1986).

Networking was discussed by senior women managers in engineering, manufacturing, and marketing. Most of the women indicated that mobility within the company had been easy for them and that they had managed without a mentor. Several reported having had a short-term mentor. While mentoring in the standard sense did not necessarily play a major role in assisting these women, it was evident that networking did (Wallace, 1989).

"Every woman knows that the best jobs are gained through contacts and connections, the 'Who do you know' method. But every woman has not had access to this NETWORK for all the old reasons: exclusion from clubs, locker rooms, golf games" (Stern, 1981, p. 45). A network is a way women can gather together, help each other, socialize, and learn to deal with their professional aspirations. A network is a forum for the gathering of active, achievement-oriented women, not afraid of words like power, ambition, and aggressiveness (Stern, 1981).

There are risk factors women face in grooming-mentoring relationships. Primary among the risks is the possibility that insinuations about a sexual relationship with her mentor will emerge. Closely related to the sexual perception is the jealousy of spouses. Other risk factors include the possibility the woman will be considered a token or that she may experience undue dependency on her mentor as a father figure (Swoboda & Millar, 1986). Thirty female managers (women with male professionals reporting to them) from 27 companies were interviewed. In this sample, only three instances

were reported in which an affair had occurred, although there were several more in which sexual tension appeared to exist (Fitt, 1981).

New evidence was dispelling the myth that professional women are more apt to stab another woman in the back than to boost her up the career ladder. A study conducted at the State University of New York was done to explore how women related to one another in the work place. In the survey of 800 nurses, Chinn (cited in Watts, 1989) found strong evidence that sisterhood at work was alive and flourishing. A clear majority of nurses (78%) reported they often received support and encouragement from other nurses. In a second study of 300 managers (vice-president or higher), only 14% of the female senior executives had been mentored by women, while 78% of these same women were actively grooming women below them (Taylor, cited in Watts, 1989).

An alternative to mentoring relationships is the role of peer relationships in career development. The primary purpose of a study of 25 relationship pairs was to understand the nature of peer relationships among managers and other professionals in one organizational setting (a large, northeastern manufacturing company). The respondents suggested that peer relationships offered an important alternative to conventional mentoring relationships by providing a range of benefits that enhance personal and professional growth. A range of career-enhancing functions, similar to those found in mentoring relationships, were identified, including information sharing, career strategizing, personal feedback, and emotional support (Kram & Isabella, 1985).

Women have become concerned that they have not had a mentor. Two studies were done to probe for information about individuals' helping relationships. The first group surveyed were people in education, and the second group were managers from retailing organizations. Most people identified bosses and colleagues as having the most impact on their careers. They indicated that not having a mentor does not stop a career, but that being concerned for others was an important stage of career development. When respondents were asked why they helped co-workers or subordinates to develop, 61% mentioned the satisfaction of seeing others grow. They believed that helping others' careers had a positive impact on their career by controlling the work environment, creating a support system, gaining more access to system resources, developing a reputation, and obtaining personal satisfaction (Keele & DeLaMare-Schaefer, 1984).

In two studies (Clawson, 1985; Kuyper, 1987), the respondents considered mentoring and networking relatively unimportant. Encounters with senior people who enhance visibility was considered an alternative to mentoring. In the second study, women administrators in a Florida public community college suggested that the energies directed toward mentoring activities would be better expended on such activities as formal education, research, publications, and the accrue-ment of experience.

The great majority of respondents in the studies discussed in this section believed mentoring, networking, and peer relationships, or all three to be important to one's career. The relationships with other individuals offer emotional support, encouragement, feedback,

and personal contacts that enhance the career path of persons aspiring to be leaders in their field.

Barriers Experienced by Administrators

There are a number of barriers that prevent women from achieving success as leaders in their field. Women face serious barriers to their advancement in the work place and need the cooperation of co-workers as well as superiors to help them become more effective and successful in the organization. These barriers are found in three primary areas, namely, socialization, established political systems, and tokenism (Lyles, 1983).

A major barrier facing women is socialization which includes sex-role stereotyping, male-female interaction patterns, and societal norms. Women are perceived as being emotional, irrational, and non-objective. They are perceived as being afraid of achievement and unable to make tough decisions. These stereotypes subtly influence what is considered the appropriate role women should assume in the work place. Socialization is a barrier because it creates confusion about proper behavior and roles for both men and women (Lyles, 1983).

The second area that poses a barrier for women is the political system or network that is already established in most organizations, a system composed of men. Based on their background and ability to speak with each other, men can read the political environment and understand how to interpret and live within that environment. Women often do not perceive the political environment accurately and do not have access to information to help them understand the organization's

informal power structure (Lyles, 1983).

A third important barrier is "tokenism." Because few women make it to the top, the individual woman has a feeling of isolation and desire to succeed for all other women. They often are excluded from male groups in the organization and thus find themselves in an uncomfortable position. As a result, women have difficulty getting their expertise recognized (Lyles, 1983).

"Career unrest" (Oliver, 1981) can become a barrier to a productive satisfying career. Those with career unrest have a common feeling of incompleteness, a sense of dissatisfaction associated with their work and a desire to get more out of work. Career unrest cuts off an individual's ability to make a creative contribution.

Oliver's research on career satisfaction and career unrest among professionals and executives, drawn from many different kinds of work, showed 76% reporting at least one episode of significant career dissatisfaction. Both human and economic costs were generated. The human costs began as inner forces, such as anxiety, depression, or loss of self-esteem and soon spread to disrupt interpersonal relations with family, friends, and fellow workers (Oliver, 1981).

The barrier of career unrest can be used in a positive way as a potential creative force that needs to be released. When people feel frustrations and limitations in their work, they are feeling the pressure of creativity. Oliver explored unrest through formal research on nearly 100 executives and professionals. There was evidence to suggest that, at various stages of adult development, some kind of self-reassessment process was a nearly universal experience,

and that this reassessment often produced unrest (Oliver, 1981).

Career unrest can become a negative influence through a phenomenon known as "burnout," the feeling that one's creativity has dried up. Career self unrest is a condition of inner questioning, of reconciling inner values and priorities with outer realities. Self-exploration under professional guidance can rapidly reduce career self unrest and increase creative contributions in one's work (Oliver, 1981).

Thus, Lyles (1983) and Oliver (1981) have described barriers that inhibit women's success as managers. A number of studies have been done to inquire of women in various fields of practice what they viewed as barriers to promotion and success. The following interviews and surveys of females provided specific examples of barriers as they perceived what was happening in their careers.

A study of Sloan graduates illustrated the barriers women experience in their work. Sloan women endured greater hardships when trying to reach the same level of compensation as their Sloan male peers. Specific concerns of the women included more job-related stress, more hours per week in the entry years, the hardship of searching for quality child care, the necessity for giving up full-time careers for part-time arrangements, and more problems in integrating their work and non-work activities (Wallace, 1989).

Women, in a study of 25 educational administrators, described the barriers they found prevalent as they strived for higher positions. The women had difficulty in developing expertise in community relations because they seldom had access to relevant political and

social groups. They seldom shared organizational space or life experiences with male administrators; they seldom had role models. The women in this study had to find or create replacement socialization mechanisms. Many found that they had to project an image which denied a personal life and disproved stereotypes that women are uninterested in a career; however, doing so strengthened the image that they were not warm, caring women. The women in this study faced organizational realities with little guidance, support, or incentives (C. Marshall, 1985).

Seven women in C. Marshall's (1985) study recalled the traumas of facing female career-role strain and finding access to a male sex-typed career. They searched for ways to retain their female identity, yet gain access to the administrator group and to sponsorship. Even though they had reached important positions and had found the challenges and rewards worth the struggle, they remembered the organizational resistance, the personal sacrifices, and role adjustments (C. Marshall, 1985). Additional problems identified in another study, a survey of 66 public school executives in Texas, included difficulty in gaining male respect and acceptance, no entry to the male network, lack of authority, lack of trust by female employees, and employment discrimination (Funk, 1986).

A national survey of 394 (319 were male) administrators was conducted to explore career paths and barriers in higher education administration. Less than half, regardless of gender, reported lack of professional involvement, lack of a strong sponsor, and racial discrimination as general barriers to advancement. Women more likely

saw sex discrimination (53%) and family responsibilities (53%) as general barriers to higher education administration than did men (27% and 34% respectively). Another way in which women have reportedly experienced barriers is by getting later starts in their careers. Women also were less likely to be nominated or recruited for their first administrative position, probably related to the finding that women were more likely to have experienced a lack of strong sponsorship (Warner et al., 1988).

Thirteen participants, in three group interviews in New York and St. Louis, expressed their concerns regarding barriers to promotion. The highest organizational level, represented among the 13 women administrators, was one step from the top management position--chief operating officer. Despite their efforts, virtually all the women believed that there were barriers that prevented them from reaching the very top level of management. The barriers that most women identified were related to gender, including stereotypes of female managers and simultaneously satisfying expectations for an executive and those for a woman (Haddock & Aries, 1989).

A study of women was completed 10 years after they were hired at the entry level in management. Few had become senior managers. Explanations were controversial, and some women called it blatant sexism. Others believed women were not suited for the highest managerial jobs because they were not assertive enough, did not know how to get along in this top management world, or lost interest because of a family responsibility (Fraker, 1984).

In summary, the majority of women described barriers of some

kind that prevented or made it difficult to reach a top-level position in their school or business. In one study in higher education, in which the majority of the respondents were men, both men and women expressed concerns related to advancement and success in their chosen occupation.

Method for Study of Career Development

The data for studies of individuals and their career paths, discussed in this chapter, have been collected by using the survey method, interview techniques, and special vocational or other types of tests. The numbers of individuals in the studies have ranged from as few as 10 to hundreds of persons in a wide range of occupations. Many studies were completed at one point in time, but other studies have followed individuals and their work patterns over a period of years. Professors, counselors, consultants, and others have collected information regarding career paths from various sources, such as term papers by students or responses from seminar participants. The studies were completed for many different reasons, including collaborating study results already published or discovering new information about individuals and their choice of careers.

When preparing to conduct research on the career patterns of individuals, the researcher must carefully choose a population of individuals to whom the research question can be applied. The size of the sample depends upon the type of research involved. Often bias is lessened with larger samples; if the sample is too small, generalizability can be affected.

There are a variety of biases and difficulties encountered by researchers when they use survey or interview techniques as a method to gather information about characteristics or attitudes of a population without measuring each individual. Even with a sound basic design, there can be poor access to part of the population, nonresponse, inaccurate recall, and intentional misinformation. The researcher selects the research design best suited to the overall purposes of the study and then endeavors to learn everything possible about that design, including the types of measurement tools that will best gather the information necessary to answer the research questions.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH DESIGN

Overview of the Design

The purpose of this study was to describe the positive and negative influencers perceived by men and women as having contributed to their successful attainment of the position of nursing home administrator, focusing attention especially to any differences identified between male and female administrators. The survey design was used as a means of gathering information that described a specified set of data relating to opinions, attitudes, and recollections of individuals regarding their succession to their current positions.

Design and Procedures

Population and Sample

A questionnaire was sent to 325 (male and female) individuals who have a nursing home administrator license in the state of Michigan. A sample was drawn randomly, using a computerized printout prepared by the state licensing and certification department which listed 1,250 individuals who held a nursing home administrator license. The individuals were listed in alphabetical order according to county. The pages were shuffled and the names assigned a four-digit number from 0001 to 1250. From the numbers chosen randomly,

325 names or 26% were selected. Responses were received from 197 individuals, representing a 60.6% response rate.

Mailings

A letter of transmittal was sent with the questionnaire to clearly state the purpose and value of the study, thus stimulating the interest of the respondent. The respondent was encouraged to return the questionnaire as quickly as possible, and a self-addressed stamped envelope was provided to encourage easy return.

An important part of the transmittal letter to the respondent was an assurance of anonymity. Each form was coded with an identifying number keyed to a list of respondents known only to the researcher, to provide a way to contact nonrespondents. When responses were tabulated or recorded, the information did not appear in the final document in any way that would identify a specific respondent.

Follow-up Procedures

Within the first 10 days, 125 surveys (38.5%) were returned. Two weeks after the questionnaire was sent, a follow-up letter was sent to 200 individuals who had not returned the survey. The second correspondence included statements regarding the importance of the study and emphasized the value of the respondent's contribution. After two weeks, only 30 (9.2%) of the surveys were returned. There were 170 persons who had not returned their survey.

To guard against a low response rate, several efforts were made with follow-up procedures to increase the response rate. An

additional document listed nursing facilities and their administrators, and a cross-check with the license list located missing names. The researcher contacted 65 of the 170 nonrespondents by telephone, either at their residence or nursing facility to encourage them to complete and return the survey. Out of this group, 44 (13.5%) surveys were returned. Eighteen additional persons promised to return the survey but failed to return it, and six persons refused to complete the survey. The final response rate was 60.6%.

Major and Related Questions

The questionnaire was designed to gather information from respondents of the study to provide answers to the following questions.

Two Major Questions

1. What were the self-reported positive and negative influencers which contributed to the career paths of persons who became nursing home administrators?
2. Did these self-reported influencers differ for males and females?

Related Questions

1. What was considered the most influential circumstance that helped an individual achieve the position of nursing home administrator? Was it luck? Was it being in the right place at the right time? Or was it the result of careful career planning directed toward the specific goal of administrator?

2. Did the individual get assistance from others in the organization to get the job?
3. What persons were most influential in helping direct an individual toward a career of leadership?
4. How were these persons helpful in directing an individual toward a career of leadership?
5. How was the administrator academically prepared?
6. Was the individual's experience and education related to the position?
7. Did the administrator have any formal leadership training?
8. Did the administrator have personal contacts with others in the organization?
9. Are there similarities in the personal data of nursing home administrators?
10. When these individuals were growing up, how were their parents employed?
11. Which parent, if either, was most influential in directing the young person toward leadership activities?
12. What kind of encouragement did they receive from parents or other role models? Were they encouraged to enter activities that promoted leadership when they were children?
13. What kind of activities or experiences during college years contributed to their leadership qualities?
14. Did the individuals have the support of mentors or special contacts who guided them up the ladder?
15. Were there perceived barriers the individuals encountered

along the way that slowed down their progress toward their management goals? How did they overcome these perceived barriers?

Data Collection

Questionnaire Development and Pilot Study

The first questionnaire that was developed incorporated a number of open-ended questions. Following advice from Isaac and Michael (1981), this first effort used open-ended questions administered to a small sample of subjects representative of the population to be used for the study. These open-ended responses were then used to formulate the more specific, forced response choice items in the final survey form.

Following the suggestions of Ary, Jacobs, and Razavieh (1972), a field test was done. The original, developmental survey form was sent to female nursing home administrators in the local area, persons known to the researcher. Each administrator was contacted by telephone. All 12 preliminary questionnaires were completed and returned. A second survey form was constructed, using the information gained from the pilot study to prepare a survey form that eliminated unnecessary interpretation by the individual completing the survey. An effort was made to prepare categories of responses as alternatives, using information gained from the review of literature. The instrument was used to collect specific information regarding the influencers or perceived barriers that represented either a contribution or an impediment to the administrator's career path.

Questionnaire Content

The questionnaire was field tested to eliminate ambiguous or biased items. The 12 nursing home administrators in the pilot study were asked to complete the survey form and provide feedback regarding unclear items or directions. The survey form was reviewed by advisers, and their recommendations were followed when the second questionnaire was developed. The guiding principles underlying the use of surveys and preparation of instruments, as discussed by Isaac and Michael (1981), Hoaglin et al. (1982), and Berdie, Anderson, and Niebuhr (1986) were also followed.

The final survey form contained 28 items, presented as questions or statements with provision for responses to be chosen and placed in rank order from 1-5, with 1 as the most influential. The first open-ended items requested the respondent's past and present position and their identification of the five greatest influences in attaining the present position. Additional items (5-17) requested information about the respondent's education, leadership training, and personal data about family and other influential persons.

Survey questions 18-21 related to the respondent's parents and how they may have influenced the respondent toward a management career. The next section (22-24) of questions provided choices of activities and experiences during elementary, high school, and college years to determine if there were any perceptions of a relationship between earlier activities and future employment in a management position. The final items (25-27) included questions related to problems or barriers the respondent may have encountered when

applying for a management position.

Methods of Data Analysis

Descriptive and analytical statistics were used to illustrate the data gathered by the Nursing Home Administrator Survey. Information from the returned questionnaires was coded on data sense sheets. The responses were summarized and illustrated in frequency distributions. The personal and family characteristics were placed in categories with frequencies and percentages computed for the men and women in the survey.

Data analysis was done using SPSS, version 4.0 (SPSS, Inc., 1990). The responses of all ranked questions were recoded. The influencer that was ranked as greatest was given a score of 5, the second choice a score of 4, the third choice a score of 3, the fourth choice a score of 2, and the fifth choice a score of 1. From the total scores, a mean rank was determined. A t test was used to determine if significant differences existed between men and women in how they responded to the ranked questions.

An individual chi-square analysis was performed to compare the sample of individuals with the total population and to determine if there were any significant differences between men and women in their marital status. A t test was used to determine if a significant difference existed between the ages and number of years as administrators of men and women.

An analysis of variance was used to determine how age and gender of nursing home administrators affected selected influencers. A

comparison was made between the educational levels of the nursing home administrators and selected influencers to determine if a relationship existed between their educational level and their response on selected questions. A chi-square analysis was performed to determine any differences between level of education of nursing home administrators and the type of employment held by their spouse.

Summary

The chapter consists of an overview of the design with rationale to conduct the study. The procedures for sampling and mailings are discussed, and follow-up procedures are defined. Questions used to design the questionnaire are listed. Data collection includes questionnaire development, the pilot study, and questionnaire content. Methods of data analysis are described.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

Introduction

A survey was sent to a random sample of individuals who held a license to practice as a nursing home administrator in the state of Michigan. The total number of persons on the list was 1,250. The questionnaire was sent to 26%, or 325 of these individuals. There were 199 questionnaires returned, with 2 not usable; therefore, the total study sample was 197, giving a return rate of 60.6%.

Given the known population of 1,250 persons who held nursing home administrator licenses, the sample size of 197 was sufficient to maintain an 87% probability that the characteristics identified in the sample could be generalized to the total population (Cochran, 1963). Thus, when making comparisons of important influences between men and women, it must be remembered that, given the probability for error, that 1 out of 13 findings of apparent differences could represent a random difference rather than a real difference.

This chapter begins with a presentation of the personal and family characteristics of the respondent sample. Following these characteristics, the chapter is organized according to the research questions of the study. Finally, the many narrative comments provided by survey respondents are summarized and discussed.

Personal and Family Characteristics of the Respondents

The personal characteristics assessed included gender, age, position at the time of the survey, and length of time in the position. The family characteristics included employment of spouse, number of children, number of siblings, employment of parents, and position in the family.

Personal Characteristics

Table 1 reports the males and females holding positions in each of three categories: (1) Nursing Home Administrator (NHA), (2) Other position held at the time of the survey, and (3) Not employed at the time of the survey.

Table 1
Job Position of Respondents by Gender

Position Held	Male	%	Female	%
NHA	58	67.4	69	62.2
Other Position	27	31.4	38	34.2
Not Employed	1	1.2	4	3.6
Totals	86		111	
Percentages		100.0		100.0

As can be seen, there were 86 males (43.7% of the sample) and 111 females (56.3% of the sample) among the 197 subjects who responded to the survey. Of these, there were 58 (29.4%) men and 69

(35.0%) women who were employed as nursing home administrators at the time the survey was conducted. There were 70 respondents who held nursing home administrator licenses but were not employed as nursing home administrators at the time of the survey. The positions and gender of these nonadministrator respondents is listed in Table 2.

Table 2
Other Positions Held by Respondents

Other Positions	Male	Female
Executive in Health Care	10	7
General Nursing Field	1	6
Director of Nursing in Nursing Home	1	6
Realtor/Insurance/Computer President	3	2
Executive in Hospital	5	1
Secretary/Business Manager	0	4
Consultants in Health Care	2	5
Athletic Director	0	1
Church Relations Director	1	0
Retail/Marketing Executive	2	2
Activity Director in Nursing Home	0	2
Counseling/Social Work/Teacher	1	2
Entertainer	1	0
Unemployed at time of survey	1	4
Totals	28	42

There were 20 out of 27 (74.1%) men who held positions other than nursing home administrators but still retained executive positions in closely allied fields. In contrast, there were only 18 out of 38 (47.4%) women who held executive positions. All 70 of the respondents held nursing home administrator licenses.

According to Table 2, there were 28 males (32.6% of the male sample) and 42 females (37.8% of the female sample) who were not practicing as nursing home administrators at the time of the survey.

A comparison was made between the population and sample proportions of individuals who held nursing home administrator licenses and those who were practicing as nursing home administrators. A 1988 listing of facilities and their administrators was used to determine the proportion of male and female license holders among the total population in Michigan. There were 272 men (21.8%) compared to 526 women (42.1%) in the population not using their licenses to practice as nursing home administrators.

A chi square was used to test for significance of differences in the proportions of men and women in the total population compared to the sample population. As indicated in Table 3, the proportions of males and females were similar in all three categories: (1) total population, (2) random sample, and (3) respondent sample. There were no significant differences in the three categories. That is, the sample of respondents represented a male-female distribution about the same as was found in the actual population.

Table 3

Comparison of Sample With Total Population Percentage
of Individuals With NHA Licenses

	# of Persons	Male	Female	χ^2	P
Total Population	1,250	41.6%	58.4%		
Random Sample	325	43.7%	56.3%	.463	.503
Respondent Sample	197	43.7%	56.3%	.295	.413

On the other hand, there was a significant difference at the .10 alpha level in the proportion of males and females in the sample from the proportion of males and females among the population who were actually practicing as nursing home administrators. More women completed the survey than did the men (see Table 4).

Table 4

Comparison of Sample With Total Population Percentage
of Individuals Practicing as NHA

	# of Persons	Male	Female	χ^2	P
Total Population	452	54.9%	45.1%		
Respondent Sample	127	45.7%	54.3%	3.366	.06

Means and standard deviations were obtained regarding the variables (a) age of respondent, (b) length of time in position at the time of the survey, and (c) number of years married.

The mean age for the sample of the 196 men and women (1 case not reported) who have nursing home administrator licenses was 46.50.

The median of this distribution of ages was also 46.50. Both the average age and the point below which 50% of the ages fell were at the same point in the distribution. Because there were three values (age 38, 45, 55) that occurred more frequently (11 respondents in each group), the distribution was multi-modal. As can be seen in Table 5, there was a wide range of ages for both men and women. Table 6 displays ages of individuals practicing as nursing home administrators.

Table 5
Distribution of Respondents by Age:
Total Sample

Gender	<u>n</u>	\bar{X} Age	<u>SD</u>	Minimum Age	Maximum Age
Male	86	46.84	11.09	26	71
Female	110	46.15	10.63	24	68

Table 6
Distribution of Respondents by Age:
Nursing Home Administrators

Gender	<u>n</u>	\bar{X} Age	<u>SD</u>	Minimum Age	Maximum Age
Male	58	46.43	11.532	26	71
Female	69	46.98	10.131	25	67

A t test indicated no statistical difference between male and female nursing home administrators related to age. The median age

for males was 45 and for females 46. Thus, the data indicated that no significant age differences existed between males and females in either group, the individuals with licenses or the individuals practicing as administrators.

There were few respondents at either end of the age frequency distribution (from 1 to 4). There were 13 respondents in the group from age 24 to age 29, including 3 female and 6 male nursing home administrators and 4 female respondents working in positions other than nursing home administrator.

An analysis of variance was done to determine if there was a relationship between the age of the practicing nursing home administrator and how selected influencers were rated. There were significant differences in four of the positive and negative influencers and three of the person influencers ("worked way up," $p = .003$; "influenced by parents," $p = .022$; "lack of experience," $p = .018$; "political environment," $p = .033$; "spouse," $p = .022$; "son or daughter," $p = .043$; and "female mentor," $p = .014$).

As age increased, the rank of "worked way up" decreased. For every year older, the rank was decreased by .050. As participants aged, parents were reported to be less influential. The rank was reduced .026 of a point for each increase of 1 year. Older people ranked "lack of expertise" and "political environment" as less important than did younger people. As persons got older, "spouse," "son," and "daughter" were ranked more important whereas "female mentor" became less important. Younger people ranked female mentor higher.

Two tests were used to determine if there were significant

differences between males and females relating to (a) age of respondent, (b) length of time in position at the time of the survey, and (c) number of years married (data illustrated in Tables 7 and 8).

Table 7

Length of Time in Years in Position at Time of Survey

Gender	<u>n</u>	<u>X</u>	<u>SD</u>	Minimum	Maximum
Male	85	8.17	6.87	.17	30.00
Female	105	5.72	6.36	.08	25.00

Table 8

Number of Years Married

Gender	<u>n</u>	<u>X</u>	<u>SD</u>	Minimum	Maximum
Male	72	19.59	12.85	.50	46
Female	76	22.16	11.39	.08	45

A F value was used to test whether or not the variances of the populations were the same. The P value for all three variables was greater than .10 (see Table 9). Because the variances were the same for all three variables, the variances were pooled to find the average variance, and an external standard 2-sample t test was done. The t-test results indicated no statistical difference between males and females in the age of the respondents or in the number of years married (see Table 10). There was, however, a significant difference between males and females in the length of time in position; men held

the position an average of 8.17 years, while women held the position an average of 5.72 years. Tables 7 and 8 illustrate these distributions. Both men and women were similar in that they had held the position of nursing home administrator within a range of from just 2 months to 25 years.

Table 9

Means, Standard Deviations, and F-value Results for
the Age of Respondent, Length of Time in Position,
and Number of Years Married

Variable	Gender	\bar{X}	SD	F-Value	P
Age	Male	46.84	11.09	1.09	.670
	Female	46.15	10.63		
Time in Position (Years)	Male	8.17	6.87	1.17	.449
	Female	5.71	6.36		
Years Married	Male	19.59	12.85	1.27	.304
	Female	22.17	11.39		

Even though there was no significant difference between men and women in the number of years married, there were significant differences noted in other aspects of their marital status.

A chi square was used to test for significance of differences in the proportions of men and women who were either divorced or widowed. More women (21.1%) were divorced or widowed than were the men (6.0%). Table 11 displays these distributions.

Table 10

Pooled Variance Estimates, Degrees of Freedom, and
t-test Results for Age of Respondent, Time
 in Position, and Years Married

Variable	Pooled <u>t</u> -Value	<u>DF</u>	<u>P</u>
Age	.44	194	.658
Time in Position (Years)	2.54	188	.012
Years Married	-1.29	146	.198

Table 11

Marital Status

Variable	Male <u>n</u> = 84	%	Female <u>n</u> = 109	%	<u>P</u>	<u>χ</u> ²
Single, Never Married	7	8.3	10	9.2		
Married With Spouse	72	85.7	76	69.7		
Divorced	5	6.0	17	15.6		
Spouse Deceased	0	0	6	5.5	.02	.01762
Totals	84	100.0	109	100.0		

Family Characteristics

The question of whether there were differences between males and females in (a) the type of employment held by their spouse; (b) the number of children of the respondents; (c) the number of siblings, both brothers and sisters; (d) the employment of the respondent's mother and father; and (f) the respondent's position in the family

was considered.

In general, it appeared that the characteristics of the families of males and females were similar except for a significant difference between males and females regarding the position held by their spouses ($p = .00008$). More male administrators reported living with spouses who were employed as professionals (18.6%), managers (16.3%), or homemakers (19.8%). Women reported that their husbands were in skilled trades (18.9%). As would be expected with the greater number of divorces for females, there were more females with no spouse in the house (9.8% for males and 26.9% for females).

The number of children of the respondents ranged from 0 to 7, with the majority of respondents having from 0 to 3 children (two children for 34.1% of the males and 28.4% of the females and three children for 21.2% of the males and 26.6% of the females). Fourteen percent of the males had four children compared to only 6.3% of the females.

The number of siblings was similar for both males and females. Even though the number of brothers and sisters ranged from 0 to 7 for both men and women, the majority of the respondents had 0 to 3 siblings. The most frequent number of brothers was one (35.3% for males and 34.3% for females). The most frequent number of sisters was zero for the men (34.5%) and one for the women (36.8%).

There were no significant differences between males and females in their father's or mother's type of employment during the respondent's childhood years. The majority of their mothers were homemakers (63%, 44.6% for males and 55.3% for females). Only 3.2% of their

mothers were managers or administrators compared to 15.9% of their fathers who were managers or administrators. Fathers also were employed in the skilled trades (24.1%) and were self-employed (14.9%).

As indicated in Table 12, the majority of respondents were either oldest children (31.8%) or middle children (30.7%). Women were most frequently the oldest child (34.9%) compared to the men who were most frequently the middle child (34.9%). Only a small number of the total population were only children (6.3%).

Table 12
Respondent's Position Among Siblings in the Family

Position	Total Sample <u>n</u> = 192	# Male	%	# Female	%
Oldest	31.8	23	27.7	38	34.9
Only Child	6.3	5	6.0	7	6.4
Middle	30.7	29	34.9	30	27.5
Youngest	24.0	21	25.3	25	22.9
Other	7.3	5	6.0	9	8.3
Total		83	100.0	109	100.0

In summary, there were differences between males and females relating to the numbers in the sample actually practicing as nursing home administrators compared to those in the population actually practicing. There were more women who held licenses while there were more men who were actually practicing; however, the sample represented more practicing women than men. The personal and family

characteristics were similar except for length of time in position, marital status, and position held by spouse. The following portion of the chapter will cite the research questions and provide statistical data related to responses from the participants of the survey.

Research Question 1: What was Considered the Most
Influential Circumstance That Helped an
Individual Achieve the Position of
Nursing Home Administrator?

The respondents were asked to report what they believed to be the positive influencers that contributed to their career paths as they pursued a position as nursing home administrator or other leader in the community (refer to p. 80 for explanation of scoring of ranking items). Both males and females were remarkably similar; however, there were significant differences in how males and females reported two of the influencers. More women responded that they worked their way up in the organization (1.8919 mean rank for women compared to .9651 mean rank for men, $p = .001$) and got assistance from another person in the facility (1.3784 mean rank for women compared to .7558 mean rank for men, $p = .010$). More men responded that a degree in business was an important influence (1.4535 mean rank for men compared to .2793 for women, $p = .000$). In the remaining positive influencers, there were no significant differences between males and females.

Both males and females ranked health care experience as the greatest influence in attaining their present position. The second most commonly ranked influence by both men and women was "personality" and the "ability to communicate." Other influencers ranked high

by women included "worked up through the organization," "professional experience," and "degree in health area." Other influencers ranked high by men included "professional experience," "degree in business," and "not afraid to take risks." The mean ranks and t-test results for the positive influencers are displayed in Table 13.

Other influences included degree in gerontology, degree in public administration, credentials for consulting, business management experience, religious convictions, and contacts with other administrators. One respondent wrote, "I was dissatisfied with what I saw going on in nursing homes and lack of qualified administrators in homes I visited." A second respondent wrote, "I wanted to prove to myself that I could pass the class and the state test." A third person wrote, "We built a facility, and I learned to run it." The three quotes were not representative but were unusual "other influences" noted by three persons. Comments by other respondents are located in Appendix I.

Table 13

Positive Influencers: t-test Results for Analysis
of Ranks by Gender for Positive Influences
(Average Rank Over Entire Sample)

	Mean Rank Sample <u>n</u> = 197	Mean Rank Males <u>n</u> = 86	Mean Rank Females <u>n</u> = 111	<u>p</u>
Health care experience	2.54	2.2442	2.7748	
Personality and ability to communicate	1.86	1.8140	1.8919	
Professional experience	1.75	1.7442	1.7568	

Table 13--Continued

	Mean Rank Sample $\underline{n} = 197$	Mean Rank Males $\underline{n} = 86$	Mean Rank Females $\underline{n} = 111$	\underline{p}
Worked up through the organization	1.49	.9651	1.8919	.001
Not afraid to take risks	1.47	1.6395	1.3423	
Degree in health care	1.44	1.3837	1.4865	
Assistance from person in facility	1.11	.7558	1.3784	.010
Degree in business	.79	1.4535	.2793	.000
Luck or chance	.68	.7442	.6216	
Result of career planning	.66	.6860	.6396	
Likes to make policy	.51	.5233	.5045	
Dissatisfaction with prior job	.51	.5581	.4775	
Accounting experience	.50	.6744	.3604	
Influenced by parent(s)	.41	.5465	.3063	
Other influence	.38	.4302	.3423	
Knowledge of own weaknesses	.20	.2907	.1351	

Research Question 2: What Persons Were Most Influential
in Helping Direct an Individual Toward a Career of
Leadership, and How Were These Persons Helpful?

There were significant differences between males and females regarding their designation of the five most influential persons who directed them toward a leadership career. Both men and women generally chose a friend, supervisor, or mentor who were the same sex, but

women reported that their spouse, son, or daughter had influenced them, while men reported that a male friend or male mentor had provided assistance. As noted in Table 14, these differences were statistically significant at the .05 alpha level.

There also were differences between males and females in their first choice of the most influential person who directed them toward a leadership career. The most frequently ranked first choice for females was "spouse" (2.2593) compared to the most frequently ranked first choice for males as "mother" (1.7209).

Both males and females indicated there were "other" persons who were influential (1.1163 mean rank for males and 1.1532 mean rank for females). Other influences indicated by respondents included self-motivation (15 persons), or grandparents, siblings, and co-workers. (See appendix G for a list of other influential persons.)

There were no significant differences between males and females in how the most influential persons helped direct them toward becoming a leader. The highest ranked choice for both males and females in how the most influential person assisted them was "encouragement" (3.1744 mean rank for males compared to 3.5225 mean rank for females). The second highest ranked choice for males was "role model" and for females was "got you the job."

In summary, both males and females considered other persons to be influential in directing them toward a leadership career; however, males and females differed in their choice of influential persons. Both males and females considered encouragement, role models, personal interest, and high expectations as influencers to assist their

career growth.

Table 14

Influential Persons: t-test Results for Analysis
of Ranks by Gender for People Influences
(Average Rank Across Entire Sample)

	Mean Rank Sample <u>n</u> = 197	Mean Rank Males <u>n</u> = 86	Mean Rank Females <u>n</u> = 111	<u>t</u> * value	<u>df</u>	<u>p</u>
Spouse	1.98	1.6395	2.2593	-2.01	195.00	.046
Mother	1.58	1.7209	1.4775			
Father	1.41	1.6047	1.2613			
Male friend	1.14	1.6279	.7568	3.45	165.67	.001
Other	1.14	1.1163	1.1532			
Male mentor	1.06	1.3721	.8198	2.13	195.00	.034
Male supervisor	1.03	1.2907	.8288			
Female supervisor	.94	.4767	1.2973	-3.71	191.88	.000
Female mentor	.83	.3837	1.1712	-3.57	187.68	.000
Male professor	.82	1.1395	.5766	2.43	157.94	.016
Female friend	.71	.3372	.9910	-3.36	190.32	.001
Female professor	.70	.5930	.7748			
Son or daughter	.35	.1395	.5135	-2.60	182.43	.010

*t statistic based on separate variance estimates due to non-homo-
geneous variances (except for spouse and male mentor based on pooled
variance estimates).

Research Question 3: How was the Individual Academically Prepared? Were There Seminars and Other Types of Training? What Kind of Activities or Experiences During High School and College Years Contributed to an Individual's Leadership Qualities?

The respondents were asked to indicate their formal education, leadership training, and other education or training they considered helpful in their position as administrators. Table 15 reports the nursing education of the respondents, and Table 16 reports the highest degree held by the respondents.

Table 15
Educational Level of Nurse Respondents

Variable	M-NHA	F-NHA	M-Other	F-Other
Licensed Practical Nurse	1	7	1	2
Registered Nurse	0	21	4	10
Bachelors in Nursing	1	10	1	4
Total Nurses	2	38	6	16

M-NHA = Male administrators

F-NHA = Female administrators

M-Other = Males who held positions other than NHA

F-Other = Females who held positions other than NHA

Tables 15 and 16 show that the majority of nurses were women (87.1%) compared to only 12.9% men. Men held a bachelor's degree more frequently than did the women (60.6% of the men compared to 39.4% of the women), and more men held a master's degree (61.4% men compared to 38.6% women). There were 7 male nursing home administrators and 13 female nursing home administrators who had no formal

education.

Table 16
Highest Degree Held by Respondents
at the Time of the Survey

Variable	M-NHA	F-NHA	M-Other	F-Other
Associate Degree	2	3	0	2
Bachelor's Degree Other than nursing	33	14	7	12
Master's Degree	15	8	12	9
Doctoral Degree	1	0	3	0
Total Degrees	51	25	22	23

M-NHA = Male administrators

F-NHA = Female administrators

M-Other = Males who held positions other than NHA

F-Other = Females who held positions other than NHA

The male administrators held degrees in health care administration, business administration, marketing, accounting, and economics. Women held degrees in gerontology, sociology, health care administration, and health education. There appeared to be major differences in the professional preparation of men and women. A complete list is located in Appendix E.

There were also significant differences between males and females in the types of leadership training they had attended. Women reported attending more seminars and workshops and courses in college than did men, and men attended other sorts of training. Table 17 displays these distributions.

Table 17
Leadership Training

Variable	Male <u>n</u> = 83	M%	Female <u>n</u> = 108	F%	<u>P</u>
On-the-job Training	70	84.3	95	88.0	.42906
Seminar/Workshops	68	81.9	102	94.4	.00945
Course in college	42	50.6	69	63.9	.06145
Formal degree program	35	42.2	32	29.6	.08116
Other training	17	20.5	11	10.2	.04940

More men reported that they attended other types of leadership training. "Other training" included: corporate workshops, military service, Dale Carnegie course, bank-related financial course, re-search course, and publishing experience. One man said he had training in "the school of hard knocks," and another reported a "Ph.D. in street smarts."

Seventeen (19.8% of the male sample) and 22 (19.8% of the female sample) reported they were enrolled in an educational program at the time the survey was done.

Respondents were asked what other education or training they would find helpful in their positions as nursing home administrators. There were 146 suggestions made by 113 respondents, 46.9% (53) of the men and 53.1% (60) of the women.

There were 70 practicing nursing home administrators and 40 non-administrators who made suggestions of helpful education and training. Half of the practicing administrators who recommended training

either were nurses or had no formal education. The remaining half held bachelor's and master's degrees. There were few suggestions of training from individuals under the age of 35. There was no relationship between respondent's age and recommendations made for training if the respondent was over the age of 35. The suggestions made by both men and women were generally similar except that more females than males indicated the importance of workshops and on-the-job training. Of these recommendations, 64.2% were listed under seven headings. These are located in Table 18.

The remaining suggestions (35.8%) were listed under 21 headings. A complete list of helpful education and training, as well as a list of recommended courses or seminars, is included in Appendix F.

A second part of this research question asked respondents to report what activities or experiences contributed to their leadership qualities during (a) their elementary and high school years or during (b) their college or advanced training years. The choice of activities for both males and females was remarkably similar.

The highest ranked choices for both high school and college years were jobs after school or after classes (2.45 mean rank for high school and 2.01 for college) and church activities (2.11 mean rank for high school and 1.29 for college. Other college activities were indicated and included music, debate, public speaking, volunteering, and clubs.

There were several significant differences in how men and women ranked the types of activities that influenced them in becoming leaders. Women ranked honor society during high school higher than did

men (1.1081 for women compared to .6163 for men, $p = .033$) whereas men ranked extramural sports during high school higher than women (1.1279 for men compared to .3514 for women, $p = .001$). Men ranked newspaper editor ($p = .047$), president of a club ($p = .047$), intramural sports ($p = .017$), and extramural sports ($p = .028$) during college years higher than did women.

Table 18
Helpful Education and Training as
Listed by Respondents

Recommendations	# Individuals Making Suggestion	%
Degree or classes in business	20	13.7
Degree or experience in accounting	17	11.6
Courses in management & supervision	14	9.6
Hands-on-training or experience in the field	12	8.2
Continuing education in all aspects of long term care	11	7.5
Courses in communication and psychology	10	6.8
Training in nursing	10	6.8

Even though the choice of activities was similar, there were significant differences in how males and females reported that they were assisted by activities during their high school and college years (see Table 19). Both men and women reported that activities emphasized responsibility. Women reported that these sorts of activities helped them learn to organize their time (2.1441 mean rank for

women versus 1.5116 mean rank for men). Perhaps women were more concerned with organization of time because they also expressed concerns regarding their ability to manage both job and home responsibilities. Men indicated that the activities increased their confidence and helped them learn to communicate.

In summary, both men and women indicated that activities, specifically church and jobs after school, contributed to their leadership qualities. Both males and females reported that activities during high school and college years also assisted them in becoming a leader by increasing their confidence, helping them learn to communicate with others, and emphasizing responsibility. Table 19 contains the mean ranks of males and females in each category and the t-test results.

A one-way analysis of variance was used to determine if there was any relationship between the level of education of the nursing home administrator and selected influencers. Educational levels were recoded into three categories: associate degree, bachelor's degree, and master's degree. An educational level reported as L.P.N., R.N., or associate was coded as "associate degree," bachelor's coded as "bachelor's degree," and master's coded as "master's degree." The test results denoted pairs of groups significantly different at the 0.050 level.

The test results indicated no relationship existed between the educational level of respondents and their choice of influential parent, their choice of activities in high school, or how they overcame their problems. There also were no significant differences

for either gender between the level of education of the respondent compared to the spouse's occupational level.

Table 19

t-test Results for Differences Between Males and Females in How Activities Contributed to Leadership Qualities ($p < .05$)

	Mean Rank Sample $\underline{n} = 197$	Mean Rank Males $\underline{n} = 86$	Mean Rank Females $\underline{n} = 111$	<u>t</u> * value	<u>df</u>	<u>p</u>
Emphasized respon- sibility	2.56	2.7907	2.3874			
Increased confidence	2.39	2.7209	2.1261	2.07*	195.	.040
Learned to communicate	2.25	2.4070	2.1351			
Increased level of experience	2.03	2.1744	1.9099			
Learned to organize time	1.87	1.5116	2.1441	-2.26*	195	.025
Enlarged knowledge base	1.17	1.4302	.9640			
Improved speaking ability	.71	1.0581	.4414	2.93**	145.76	.004
Learned patience	.63	.6512	.6126			
Other	.13	.0581	.1802			

*t value of "organize time" and "confidence" based on pooled variance estimates.

**t value of "speaking ability" based on separate variance estimates.

There were, however, several influencers in which there was a relationship between the influencer and the respondent's level of

education. There were significant differences between educational levels and four of the positive influencers. Respondents who held associate degrees ranked "worked up through the organization" and "assistance from person in facility" higher than the respondents in the other two levels. Respondents with bachelor's degrees ranked "degree in business" higher, and respondents with master's degrees ranked "dissatisfaction with prior job" higher than those with an associate or bachelor's degree.

There was only one negative influencer in which there was a relationship noted. Respondents with master's degrees ranked "little support from supervisor" higher than persons from the other two educational levels.

Relationships were noted between respondents' level of education and four people influencers. Respondents with associate degrees ranked "female supervisor" higher, and persons with master's degrees ranked "male professor" higher. Respondents with bachelor's degrees ranked "male friend" and "male supervisor" higher than did persons in the other two educational levels.

There were no significant differences in the three groups related to high school activities; however, there were relationships noted between three college influencers and educational level. Administrators with master's degrees ranked "newspaper editor" higher, and both bachelor's and master's level persons ranked "intramural sports" and "extramural sports" higher than did the associate degree persons. Respondents with master's degrees ranked "emphasized responsibility" higher than the other two groups, indicating the only

influencer related to how activities assisted a person in becoming a leader.

There was a difference between the level of education held by the respondents and their response to level of satisfaction. Both groups who held associate degrees and bachelor's degrees ranked "satisfied and fulfilled" in their administrative position higher than those who held master's degrees. More men held master's degrees, and more men were pursuing higher goals; therefore, there may be an explanation for the fewer number of master's level persons who indicated they were satisfied with their present position.

In summary, there were few relationships that existed between the level of education of the respondents and how they ranked the importance of various influencers. The degree in business was the only positive influencer related to education that was ranked higher by one group. Other influencers related to education did not meet the .05 significance requirement but were close to significance. More master's level respondents indicated the need for a degree in health ($p = .0992$) and more associate level respondents ranked "no degree" ($p = .0568$) as an important barrier to their advancement. Thus, it is apparent that administrators in long-term care believed there is a need for further education, specifically degrees in business and health. A list of other education or training indicated by respondents to be helpful in their positions as nursing home administrators is located in Appendix F.

Research Question 4: When These Individuals Were Growing
up, How Were Their Parents Employed? Were Their Parents
Influential in Directing Them Toward leadership
Activities? What Kind of Encouragement Did
They Receive From Parents and Other
Role Models?

A question on the survey addressed the importance of parents regarding their influence in directing the respondent toward a management career. As can be seen in Table 20, the choice of mother or father as the most influential parent was approximately equal (31.6% chose their father while 27.5% chose their mother); there were no significant differences. It was worth noting, however, that 79 (40.9%) of the respondents reported that neither father nor mother was influential in directing them toward management.

Table 20

Most Influential Parent

Position	Male <u>n</u> = 84	%	Female <u>n</u> = 109	%	M & F % <u>n</u> = 193	<u>P</u>
Father	30	35.7	31	28.4	31.6	
Mother	24	28.6	29	26.6	27.5	.39645
Neither	30	35.7	49	45.0	40.9	
Totals	84	100.0	109	100.0	100.0	

For those respondents who ranked a parent as influential, the highest ranked choice for both males and females in how their parent influenced them was encouragement. The second highest ranked choice was high expectations by their parents. Other important influencers

that were reported included "belief in their ability as a leader," "role model," and "assistance with studies."

In summary, there were 114 (59.1%) respondents who ranked their parents as influential persons who directed them toward a management career. The parents supported them by encouraging them to become leaders and by having high expectations for them.

Research Question 5: Were There Perceived Barriers
the Individuals Encountered Along the Way That
Slowed Down Their Progress Toward Their
Management Goals? How Did They Overcome
These Barriers?

The highest ranked problem or barrier for the total sample was "lack of experience." The second barrier reported was "lack of advancement" for men and "other" for women. "Other" responses by women included lack of recognition, lack of communication with supervisor, lack of experience, lack of degree, too much responsibility, no help from family with household chores, and husband transferred frequently. Women also ranked high the barriers of "not being taken seriously" and "not enough energy for family and job." There were no significant differences between males and females in the way they viewed the negative influencers.

Eighty (of 187 cases) respondents reported that they encountered no barriers. "No problems" was the highest ranked choice by respondents when asked to report barriers or problems encountered when applying for an administrative position. Interestingly, even if "no problems" was checked, the respondent often mentioned problems under Question 27. Table 21 displays the frequencies and mean ranks of the

negative influencers.

Additional problems listed by respondents included salary expectations, too much work for too little money, availability of positions in home area, attitudes of state surveyors, and knowledge in Medicaid and Medicare reimbursement system.

Respondents were asked what they considered their major problem when trying to get a position as a nursing home administrator. Ninety-six individuals (48.7% of the total sample, 43 males and 53 females) responded to this question. The most frequent problem was lack of experience (35.4% of the 96 respondents).

The second most frequently reported problem was alleged discrimination (16 persons or 16.7% of the 96). Only four of those who listed alleged discrimination as a major problem were men; the remaining 12 were women. Four men believed age to be a factor--two were too old (over 50 years of age) and two were too young (age 21 and 23). Four women also indicated alleged discrimination because they were young (ages 26, 28, 29, and 32). Six women indicated alleged discrimination occurred just because they were women. Two women held positions as nursing home administrators but left because of interpersonal conflict. One woman reported she was actually told that a male would be hired for the position. Seven respondents expressed difficulty in getting a position because of a lack of available positions in their geographical areas. The major problems identified by the respondents and how these problems were overcome are located in Appendix H.

Table 21

Negative Influencers: Average Rank Over
Entire Sample and Males and Females

Variable	Mean Rank Sample $\underline{n} = 197$	Mean Rank Males $\underline{n} = 86$	Mean Rank Females $\underline{n} = 111$
No problems	1.97	2.1512	1.8288
Lack of experience	1.52	1.7093	1.3784
Lack of advancement opportunities	.53	.6279	.4595
Not being taken seriously	.49	.4884	.4865
Other	.48	.3140	.6126
Little support from supervisor	.45	.4186	.4685
Degree not appropriate for position	.43	.4535	.4054
Not enough energy for family and job	.43	.3721	.4775
Discrimination	.39	.3721	.3964
Political environment	.39	.4535	.3423
Lack of confidence	.35	.3140	.3784
No degree	.32	.3140	.3333
Too much competition	.28	.3605	.2252
Lack of mobility	.22	.2326	.2072

There were no significant differences between men and women in how they overcame their problems or barriers. The most commonly ranked methods to overcome problems or barriers included "persistence" (1.8372 mean rank for men and 1.3063 mean rank for women),

"obtained more experience" (1.4070 mean rank for men and .9009 mean rank for women), and "mentor assistance" (.9186 mean rank for men and .6396 mean rank for women). Other choices included "knowing someone in the organization," and "leaving the position." Only nine women reported they would hire help for household chores.

Finally, the respondents were asked to describe how they felt about their accomplishment as an administrator, and 80 (63.0%) of the 127 individuals practicing as nursing home administrators (27 males and 53 females) responded that they were satisfied and fulfilled. Sixteen (12.6%) of the nursing home administrators (4 males and 12 females) who responded they were satisfied also responded that the job was too stressful. Of those administrators who did not respond to the item "satisfied and fulfilled," 18 (14.2%, 11 males and 7 females) responded that the job was too stressful. Eight (11.4%) of the 70 nonadministrators (5 males and 3 females) who were not in an administrative position said that they were satisfied and fulfilled. More respondents who were employed as administrators, even though they reported the job stressful at times, indicated they were satisfied and fulfilled in their jobs than did the respondents who were not employed as nursing home administrators.

Only 6 of the respondents said they would like to go back to a lower position. Forty-three respondents (21.8% of the total sample) were pursuing an even higher goal. There was a difference between males and females (28 men or 14.2% and 15 women or 7.6%) as more men indicated they were pursuing a higher goal, $p = .001$. Thirty-seven of the individuals who were pursuing a higher goal were nursing home

administrators. Thirty of these persons held bachelor's and master's degrees. The majority of men were aspiring to own their own business, build and operate a nursing home, or obtain a position at the corporate level of the company. The majority of women desired to become regional managers.

Finally, the respondents were asked to write any additional comments regarding their career path or reactions to the survey (see Appendix I). The majority of the respondents commented on the stressful nature of the position as nursing home administrator, listing the increasing number of regulations, the limited budget, the turnover of staff, and the level of patient care as reasons for the stress. Others reported that they loved to care for the elderly in spite of the many problems. One respondent stated, "The future of the industry will require more skills for administrators. I am not sure how we will attract good management people in the future, but we must! This industry is very necessary."

CHAPTER V

OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

This chapter is a summary of a study of career influences of persons who held nursing home administrator licenses. The chapter is organized in five major sections: (1) background of the nursing home administrator of the 1990s, (2) summary of major findings, (3) limitations, (4) recommendations for career development of practitioners, and (5) recommendations for further research.

The purpose of the study was to describe the positive and negative influencers perceived by men and women as having contributed to a leadership position as nursing home administrator, focusing attention especially to any differences identified between male and female administrators.

The study evolved from an interest in how individuals secured a position as a leader in a nursing home, when in many cases these individuals were not academically or experientially prepared for such positions. The idea of a survey that would provide insight from those individuals who were leaders in the field surfaced as a way to answer questions on how they became administrators.

A questionnaire was sent to a random sample (26% of 1,250) of 325 individuals who held licenses to practice as nursing home administrators in the state of Michigan. There were 197 completed responses to the survey, resulting in a response rate of 60.6%. Of

those responding, there were 86 males (43.7%) and 111 females (56.3%). As illustrated in Table 3 (Chapter 4), the sample of respondents represented a male-female distribution about the same (41.6% males and 58.4% females) as was found in the actual population.

Of the 197 respondents, there were 70 persons who held licenses to practice as administrators but were practicing in other positions at the time the survey was completed. The sample of individuals actually practicing as nursing home administrators, therefore, was smaller than anticipated. The responses by the non-nursing home leaders, however, provided a valuable source of information regarding the reasons for working in other than nursing home leadership positions.

Background

In the early 1990s, articles appeared in long-term care journals regarding the future of the nursing home administrator. Frayer (1991) asked several industry leaders the question, "What lies ahead for administrators of long-term care facilities?" (p. 9).

The responses regarding the problems with the long-term care industry and the need for increased preparation for the position, as recorded from Frayer's (1991) interviews with long-term care leaders, were similar to the responses from the survey participants. Thorpe, Hinkley, and Bennett (cited in Frayer, 1991) agreed that long-term care administrators of the 90s would be highly educated and constantly seeking continuing education opportunities. The long-term

care professional would have the skills and technical expertise to meet the challenging demands that were facing all health care providers. The need for professionally trained skilled and unskilled workers, the balancing between cost containment and quality care, and the constant focus on facilities by governmental and ombudsman groups were but a few of the challenges that faced the long-term care leader.

The respondents in the survey likewise expressed their concerns for the long-term care industry and the need for education and training to better prepare them for their positions as nursing home administrators. There were 146 responses to a question requesting suggestions for education and training that would be helpful in their position as nursing home administrators. Appendix F contains a list of these recommendations of further education and training for administrators.

Bennett (cited in Frayer, 1991) suggested skills in administration, communication, and quality resident care as essential skills necessary for an individual to meet the role demands of a nursing home administrator. Bennett's suggestions closely resembled the list compiled from the responses of the survey participants (see Appendix F). Kress (1990) also emphasized the need for professional development for long-term care leaders. From the responses of the leaders in Frayer's (1991) article, as well as the responses from Michigan nursing home leaders, it was clear that the future held exciting challenges for the nursing home administrator, and career planning to prepare the professional for these challenges was a likely need.

Summary of Major Findings

Personal and Family Characteristics

The profiles of the individuals who responded to the administrator survey were similar for both males and females. There was a wide range of ages for both men and women, from age 24-71. There were no significant differences between males and females in the respondents' number of children, number of siblings, employment of parents, or position in the family. The respondents indicated there were children and siblings in a range from 0-7, with an average of 0-3 for the majority of respondents. The majority of both male and female respondents' mothers were homemakers (63%, 44.6% for males and 55.3% for females), and the majority of their fathers were employed in the skilled trades (24.1%), management (15.9%), or self-employed (14.9%).

Both men and women (76.7% of total sample) were married and living with their spouse. There were no differences between men and women in the number of years married. Even though the majority of women were married and living with a spouse (69.7%), there was a significant difference between men and women in their marital status as there were more women than men who were divorced or widowed. From responses by women who indicated difficulty managing both home and job, the finding that more women were divorced was not surprising. There were 22 responses from individuals (14 women and 8 men) who reported that there was not enough energy for family and job; however, only nine women hired help for household chores to overcome this problem.

An interesting comparison was made between "marital status" and "satisfaction in one's accomplishment." Of the five men who were divorced, there was only one man who indicated he was satisfied and fulfilled. Of the 23 women (16 were nursing home administrators) who were divorced or widowed, 12 (all administrators) were satisfied and fulfilled in their positions. Thus, it seemed apparent that being divorced or widowed did not prevent women from finding satisfaction as administrators.

The results of this study of administrators were similar to two prior studies. In one business study (Kurtz et al., 1989), executives came from families with an average of 2.9 children. Seven out of eight of these business leaders were still married to their first wives. The majority of the women in a second study (Hennig & Jardim, 1977) had mothers who were housewives. Thus, the nursing home administrators appeared to be demographically similar to executives in other non-health care settings.

There was a difference between men and women in the type of position held by their spouse. Men reported more professional wives while women reported fewer professional husbands. Women reported either no spouse in the house, as was expected from the greater number of divorced and widowed women, or their husbands worked in skilled trades.

A comparison was made between "employment of spouse" and "satisfaction in one's accomplishment." Only half of the women whose husbands worked in skilled trades or were self-employed were satisfied and fulfilled in their own choice of employment. Of those

respondents who had spouses who were managers, administrators, or professionals, only 34.8% of the women (8 of 23) compared to 51.4% of the men (19 of 37) reported they were satisfied and fulfilled in their accomplishments as administrators. Thus, it appeared that more men with professional wives reported they were satisfied and fulfilled in their present positions compared to fewer women with professional husbands who reported satisfaction.

A majority of the respondents were either oldest children or middle children (31.8% eldest and 30.7% middle). In comparison with two studies from the business world (Hennig & Jardim, 1977; Kurtz et al., 1989) in which only children were represented, there were 12 (6.3%) respondents in the administrator survey who reported they were only children. The position of youngest child was also represented in the administrator survey as 46 individuals (24%) reported they were the youngest child in the family. Thus, in the administrator study, both eldest and middle children, as well as youngest children, were represented as leaders in their field.

The majority of men were employed in their present positions for a longer period of time than were the women. Because of the barriers faced by many women administrators (Fraker, 1984; Funk, 1986; Haddock & Aries, 1989; C. Marshall, 1985), women in the nursing home survey may have had fewer opportunities than the men to become administrators, thus decreasing the total number of years for women in the position. Even though the range of years was similar for both males and females, only 20% of the women administrators had held their positions from 10 to 25 years while the majority (79.8%) held their

positions less than 5 years. From comments made by the women administrators, it was apparent that they believed barriers and discrimination against women also existed in the field of long-term care.

There were 25 (12.8% of 86 men and 12.6% of 111 women) respondents who reported "not being taken seriously" as a problem or barrier they encountered when applying for an administrative position. Only five respondents reported this problem as "discrimination"; however, there were 11 other examples of what respondents described as "discrimination." Women believed they had to prove they could handle responsibility. One woman was actually told a man was to be hired. Others believed they did not get the job because they were too old or too young. A complete list of major problems of administrators is located in Appendix H.

Early Influences

The respondents of the administrator survey reported early influences by parents, siblings, grandparents, and other members of the family. Over half of the respondents reported being influenced toward leadership by their mother or father. Their parents believed they could become leaders and encouraged them to pursue their goals. Other research (Harmon, 1989; Hennig & Jardim, 1977; Roe & Siegelman, 1964) as well suggested a strong association between success and parental encouragement.

Holland (1959) and Krumboltz (1975) suggested that a combination of factors interact to produce different educational and occupational decisions. According to these two theorists, individuals make

decisions based on influencers from parents, other significant persons, activities and experiences, and educational backgrounds. From the responses in the administrator survey, it was evident that choices were often based on how these early influencers contributed to the administrator's leadership abilities.

The early career development theorists (Parsons, 1909, cited by Brown et al., 1984; Caplow, 1954; Hollingshead, 1949) indicated the importance of matching the individual's traits with the requirements of a specific occupation. Often, these traits and abilities as well as family background were the basis for vocational development and choice. Other career development theorists (Ginzberg, 1952, 1971; Maslow, 1970; Roe & Siegleman, 1964) also emphasized the importance of early influences on the choice of an occupation.

In summary, the responses from the participants of the administrator survey supported the theorists' belief that early influences from persons, activities, and experiences contribute to the choice of a career. Over half of the respondents (59.1%) reported that their mother or father was influential by encouraging them to become leaders and by having high expectations for them. Both men and women reported other significant persons who assisted them in their choice of career as well as activities during high school and college that contributed to their leadership abilities.

Educational Background of Respondents

There were several noteworthy differences in the educational backgrounds of men and women. More women held nursing degrees while

more men held bachelor's and master's degrees. A review of the positions held by respondents, prior to becoming administrators, identified more women who held positions as directors of nursing and nursing supervisors who then were promoted into administrator positions. The availability of these women was probably the reason that more women administrators were nurses than were men.

Further comparisons between the nurses and their responses to other items in the survey provided additional rationale for their promotions into higher managerial positions. Of the 54 females who held nursing degrees, 8 (14.8%) knew someone in the organization, 31 (57.4%) worked their way up, 22 (40.7%) got assistance from someone in the facility, and 13 (24.1%) had mentors who assisted them. In contrast, out of eight males who held nursing degrees, only two reported getting assistance from someone in the facility or working their way up in the organization. Hence, for these women, it appeared that assistance from someone in the organization provided the influence needed to attain the desired position.

The most frequent problem expressed by both men and women was lack of experience. According to the women respondents, they felt this lack of expertise. To eliminate this barrier, they gained more knowledge by attending seminars and workshops. Because the health care associations offered numerous seminars on long-term care topics and the time involved was only a day or two, it was a more expedient way to gain the necessary knowledge than pursuing a college degree. Even though men reported attending fewer seminars than women, they did report other sorts of training they had attended, including

research and public speaking courses and military service.

Women who participated in similar studies (Fields, 1983; Hay, 1980; Rosenberg, 1987) also emphasized the importance of education. The respondents indicated that women must be competent and well-educated if they expect to climb the corporate ladder and maintain their positions after they are promoted. The women in the administrator survey were not always qualified for the position; therefore, it was evident that women who were administrators for such short periods of time would find it necessary to increase their expertise if they were to maintain their position as nursing home administrator.

Activities and Experiences During High School and College Years

Both men and women respondents ranked church activities and part-time jobs during high school and college as the most important influencers that contributed to their leadership qualities. Similarly, respondents from other studies (Ginzberg & Herma, 1964; Kurtz et al., 1989) indicated that early work experience and participation in clubs and sports helped to shape their careers. Other activities included participation in sports (for the males), student government, and clubs.

Over 60% of the male and female respondents identified specific activities that they believed had significantly contributed to development of their leadership qualities. They reported that activities and experiences during their high school and college years assisted them in becoming leaders by increasing their confidence, helping them learn to communicate with others, emphasizing

responsibility, and increasing their level of experience. Leaders in two prior studies (Kurtz et al., 1989; Kuyper, 1987) also emphasized the importance of similar activities in promoting career success by developing communication skills and increasing level of expertise.

While it was expected that activities such as those reported in this survey were identified as significant influences on leadership development, some unexpected differences in influencers between men and women were noted. More women reported that these church activities and jobs after classes helped them learn to organize their time, while more men indicated that activities increased their confidence and improved their speaking ability. Women may have reported "organization of time" as important because of the difficulty they typically have in managing job and home responsibilities.

Positive and Negative Influencers

Many questions in this survey were directed toward the identification of the positive and negative influencers that assisted with achieving a position of leadership. Both men and women respondents reported similar positive and negative influencers. As might be expected, "health care experience" was ranked as the greatest positive influence and "personality and ability to communicate" as the second greatest influence. Similarly, the majority of community college administrators (Kuyper, 1987) also considered experience in one's field and the ability to communicate important factors in the career growth of administrators.

More women than men reported that they worked their way up in

the organization and got assistance from someone in the facility. These reports were consistent with the number of women who were promoted in nursing homes, from middle management nursing positions to administrator. The lower proportion of men who worked their way up in the organization suggested that men may have had an advantage in acquiring positions from the outside, possibly as a result of their educational backgrounds and additional experience in other leadership positions.

Other influences reported by men included professional experience, not afraid to take risks, a degree in business, and a degree in the health care area. In one study (Challenger, cited in Winter, 1989), women reported they were willing to take risks to get and maintain an administrative position. In the administrator survey, women also reported that they were not afraid to take risks.

The highest ranked problem or barrier for both men and women was "lack of experience." Frequent reports of lack of expertise as a problem were consistent with the reports of lack of education and training needed to fulfill the role of administrator in a nursing home. Even though more men than women held college degrees, both men and women expressed the need for further college education as well as additional seminars on specific topics for long-term care.

The second highest ranked problem for men was "lack of advancement." Women also included "lack of advancement" as one of their higher ranked problems; however, where men ranked it second, women ranked it sixth. Both men and women administrators may consider "lack of advancement" as a problem if they choose to advance in

the long-term care industry. Nursing home administrators hold the highest position in a nursing home. If they want to progress in their field, they may take a position as regional manager or corporate officer; however, these positions may be limited and transfer to another location may be necessary. Administrators who have no formal education may also find it difficult to gain a higher position.

Responses from six respondents illustrated other difficulties persons may encounter as they enter the field of nursing home administration. Under the heading of major problems, the responses included the following: "availability of positions," "too many licensed administrators," and "position availability in geographic area." As was discussed in Chapter I, there were 1,250 persons licensed as administrators in the state of Michigan and only 452 nursing homes. For example, in the county of Oakland, there were 38 nursing homes and 219 individuals holding licenses to practice as administrators; in the county of Wayne, there were 94 nursing homes and 226 licensed persons; and in the county of Kalamazoo, there were 13 nursing homes and 43 licensed persons. These are only three of many counties that have fewer nursing homes compared to the numbers of licensed administrators (see maps located in Appendix J).

There were no significant differences in how men and women overcame their problems. Both men and women reported that they obtained additional experience and used mentor assistance. Several studies (Fields, 1983; Funk, 1986; Reich, 1986) emphasized the importance of mentors in the lives of executives. Even though "mentor assistance" was the third highest ranked choice for both men and women, the

findings in the nursing home administrator study were not consistent with these studies as only 39 (19.8%) of the respondents ranked "mentor assistance" as a way to overcome their problems. The respondents, however, reported many other significant persons in their lives as supporters of their goals to become leaders, including parents, siblings, children, or friends.

"Persistence" was reported by respondents as the most helpful way to overcome their problems or barriers. "Getting more experience" was ranked second. In this study of nursing home administrators, both men and women consistently reported influences in their career paths that emphasized the importance of "persistence." They worked their way up, they moved up from other management positions in the facility, and they stayed on the job despite the many frustrations and stresses of long-term care. They found satisfaction in their work through contact with the residents and their families.

Satisfaction and Fulfillment as an Administrator

More than half of the respondents (63.0%) who were working as nursing home administrators reported they were satisfied and fulfilled with their positions; however, 12.6% of these leaders also reported the job was too stressful. On the other hand, only 13 (18.6%) of those individuals who were not administrators said that they were satisfied and fulfilled.

According to Super (1953), satisfaction in one's work depends upon the extent to which an individual's values and beliefs are congenial with the nature of the work and what is expected of the

individual. As expressed by the responses and comments of the respondents, values and beliefs were not always congenial with expectations in the industry. Many respondents expressed their concerns that the excessive federal regulations, lack of adequate reimbursement, and pressures from corporate officials compromised the care the facility was able to give to residents.

And yet, over half of the nursing home administrators, when asked how they felt about their accomplishment of achieving administrator positions, reported that they were satisfied and fulfilled. Many individuals expressed the concerns they had for the elderly population, and that is why they remained in the business. Others relieved their stress by spending time with the residents just to talk or hold hands, to offer their love and empathy in some small way. Leaders in the field were excited to be part of an industry that was interested in the client. The federal regulations of 1991 were empowering residents with the opportunity to make their own informed decisions regarding the care they received. Even though the many changes in the long-term care industry were frustrating at times, the emphasis on resident care provided the motivation for administrators to continue in their field and use their expertise to provide the loving, caring atmosphere with an emphasis on dignity for older adults who must reside in nursing homes.

Limitations

The main problem was the major effort that was required in getting individuals to respond to the survey. A third of the surveys

were returned within the first 10 days. Several authors (Berdie et al., 1986; Fink & Kosecoff, 1985; Hoaglin et al., 1982) offered suggestions to strengthen the survey results by increasing the rate of response, and several of these recommendations were used in preparation of this questionnaire. A cover letter accompanied the survey. The survey was professionally printed on an aqua bonded paper to present a more professional appearance and encourage interest in completing the survey. The envelopes were hand-written and individually stamped. A stamped self-addressed envelope was provided for easy return.

A second follow-up flyer (see Appendix C) was sent to those who had not returned the survey. After two weeks, there were only 9.2% additional returns with 170 outstanding surveys. Many telephone calls were made with promises of return. Some individuals sent the completed surveys; some did not. Six persons refused to complete the survey, and two returned the survey without completing it. The final tally was 197 completed questionnaires with a return rate of 60.6.

Another limitation related to the size of the sample. Given the known population of 1,250 persons who held nursing home administrator licenses, the sample size of 197 was sufficient to maintain an 87% probability that the characteristics identified in the sample could be generalized to the total population. When making comparisons of important influences between men and women, however, it must be remembered that, by probability alone, approximately 1 out of 13 findings were the result of a random difference rather than a real difference.

Recommendations for Career Development of Practitioners

The response from the survey participants regarding the need for education and experience was overwhelming. There were numerous recommendations, ranging from seminars and workshops to college degrees. The leaders of long-term care facilities emphasized the need for knowledge in business, accounting, management, and supervision.

Equally important was the need for experience. The respondents suggested hands-on-training in a nursing home and continuing education in all aspects of long-term care, including methods of reimbursement, interpretation of regulations, and management of stress.

Recommendations for Further Research

The need for further research would depend upon the acceptance of the information from this survey based on the percentage of return (60.6%). Only 127 of the 197 individuals who responded were actually practicing as nursing home administrators. The remaining 70 persons were employed in positions other than nursing home administrators; however, the majority still held positions in the health care field as supervisors or managers or held a nursing home administrator position at one time. If the survey were repeated, the recommendation is to send the survey directly to nursing homes with the expectation that practicing administrators at the time would complete the questionnaire. A second suggestion is to gain the support of the health care association in the state(s), and perhaps there would be a

larger response rate.

Even though the suggestion is made to send another survey only to practicing administrators, the comments and responses from the nonadministrator individuals in this survey did provide a rich source of information regarding problems and barriers faced by those persons entering the field of long-term care. Of the 96 individuals who commented on problems they experienced, 34 persons were nonadministrators (35.4% of the 96, 12 males and 22 females). The comments from these nonadministrator respondents also emphasized the need for experience, especially direct nursing home administrator experience. One respondent said that an individual needs a "proven track record."

The nonadministrator respondents also provided suggestions for education and training that would be helpful to prepare for the nursing home administrator position. Of the 113 respondents who commented, 46 persons (40.7%) were nonadministrators (41.3% males and 58.7% females). The responses from these individuals not practicing as administrators were similar to the practitioners; however, their suggestions provided further support that training is needed to prepare individuals for nursing home administrator positions.

One question not included in the survey was the salary range of the respondent. There were only six comments regarding salary; however, the suggestion remains to include this item if another questionnaire were sent. Responses by participants included: "too much work for too little money," "not enough return on efforts," "poor pay," and "insufficient income and security potential." If the salary range were included on a similar survey, a comparison could be

made to determine if the salaries of the nursing home leaders are competitive with leaders in other fields.

The concern of one participant regarding job security potential was also a problem in the long-term care industry because of the frequent change of owners, especially when privately-owned nursing homes were purchased by large corporations. Sometimes new owners preferred to hire their own administrators, and the present leader must find another position, which at times proved to be a difficult task. Perhaps more information related to this problem would be helpful to other practicing administrators.

There is agreement from this author (a practicing nursing home director of nursing services and previous nursing home administrator) that the survey responses represented many helpful suggestions for a degree program and seminars to prepare individuals for their future as nursing home administrators. The position at times is extremely frustrating and stressful because of the constant bombardment with new but unclear regulations and close scrutiny by consumer representatives, families, and government agency personnel.

Closing Comments From the Author

The results of the survey were not surprising as I have worked in the field of long-term care for nearly 7 years, first as a director of nursing, then as an administrator, and now director of nursing/manager of a life care health center. My experience has also come from home care as a director of nursing services. Many of the pressures I have felt first-hand and thus fully understand the

concerns expressed by many respondents.

In conclusion, there are many frustrations experienced by long-term care administrators; however, there are satisfactions as well. Jensen and Sherman (1990) completed a survey of 200 nursing facility administrators. The respondents (47%) said "they found contact with residents and their families to be the most rewarding aspect of their jobs" (p. 24). One respondent in the current administrator survey said, "Whenever I get busy and burned out, I sit with the residents and reflect what a really good life I give them. It is all the reward I need." As a leader in the nursing home industry, I echo this respondent's comments. From my experience, many administrators stay in the business because they sincerely want the best care possible for the nursing home resident. Another participant in the survey said, "Working with the elderly is the most satisfying of the medical fields."

APPENDICES

Appendix A

Nursing Home Administrator Survey

1. Select the five greatest influences in attaining your present position, and mark each with a number from 1-5, with 1 as the greatest, 2 as next, etc.

- | | |
|--|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Degree in health area | <input type="checkbox"/> Worked up through the organization |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Degree in business | <input type="checkbox"/> Assistance from person in facility |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Accounting experience | <input type="checkbox"/> Influenced by parent(s) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Professional experience | <input type="checkbox"/> Personality/ability to communicate |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Health Care experience | <input type="checkbox"/> Not afraid to take risks |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Result of career planning | <input type="checkbox"/> Likes to make policy |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Luck/chance | <input type="checkbox"/> Dissatisfaction with prior job |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Knowledge of own weaknesses | <input type="checkbox"/> Other (Please list) _____ |
| <input type="checkbox"/> and correction of the same | |

2. What is your position now?(Mark with an X) _____ Nursing Home Administrator
 _____ Other (Please describe) _____
 _____ Not presently employed
3. How many years have you been in this position? (As of 7-1-90) _____ years

4. Please list the last three positions you held prior to present position, starting with the most recent.

TYPE OF ORGANIZATION	TITLE OF POSITION	# OF YEARS

- | 5. Your age today | Your sex | Male | Female |
|-------------------|----------|------|--------|
| | | | |

6. Select the five most influential persons who have directed you toward a leadership career, and mark each with a number from 1-5, with 1 as the most influential, 2 as the next most, etc.

<input type="checkbox"/> Spouse	<input type="checkbox"/> Male Friend	<input type="checkbox"/> Male Professor/teacher
<input type="checkbox"/> Mother	<input type="checkbox"/> Female Friend	<input type="checkbox"/> Female Professor/teacher
<input type="checkbox"/> Father	<input type="checkbox"/> Male Mentor	<input type="checkbox"/> Male Supervisor
<input type="checkbox"/> Son/daughter	<input type="checkbox"/> Female Mentor	<input type="checkbox"/> Female Supervisor
<input type="checkbox"/> Other (Please list) _____		

7. How did the most influential person (in #6) help direct you toward becoming a leader? (Select five and mark from 1-5, with 1 as most, 2 as next, etc.)

<input type="checkbox"/> Encouragement	<input type="checkbox"/> Introduced you to job prospects
<input type="checkbox"/> Got you the job	<input type="checkbox"/> Recommended educational direction
<input type="checkbox"/> Role Model	<input type="checkbox"/> High Expectations
<input type="checkbox"/> Personal interest	<input type="checkbox"/> Other (Please list) _____

8. YOUR EDUCATION: (Mark response with an X) ☐ L.P.N. ☐ R.N. ☐ B.S.N.

<input type="checkbox"/> Bachelors Degree: Major	<input type="checkbox"/> Minor
<input type="checkbox"/> Masters Degree: Major	<input type="checkbox"/> Minor
<input type="checkbox"/> Doctoral Degree: Major	<input type="checkbox"/> Minor
<input type="checkbox"/> Certification (Please list) _____	
<input type="checkbox"/> No Formal Education	<input type="checkbox"/> Other _____

9. Please mark with an X any specific leadership training you have had.

<input type="checkbox"/> On the job training	<input type="checkbox"/> Course in college
<input type="checkbox"/> Seminar/workshops	<input type="checkbox"/> Formal degree program
<input type="checkbox"/> Other (Please describe) _____	

10. Are you enrolled in an educational program now? ☐ Yes ☐ No

If yes, please describe. _____

11. What other education or training would you find helpful in your position as administrator? _____

12. PERSONAL DATA: MARITAL STATUS

<input type="checkbox"/> Single (Never Married)	<input type="checkbox"/> Separated
<input type="checkbox"/> Married with spouse	<input type="checkbox"/> Divorced
<input type="checkbox"/> Married and apart from spouse	<input type="checkbox"/> Spouse deceased

13. If married, how many years? (As of 7-1-90) _____ years

14. What is the employment of your spouse?

<input type="checkbox"/> No spouse in the house	<input type="checkbox"/> Professional(Doctor, Lawyer, Nurse)
<input type="checkbox"/> Administrator	<input type="checkbox"/> Community protection(police, fire, etc)
<input type="checkbox"/> Manager	<input type="checkbox"/> Self-employed
<input type="checkbox"/> Professor/teacher	<input type="checkbox"/> Skilled Trade
<input type="checkbox"/> Homemaker	<input type="checkbox"/> Service Work
<input type="checkbox"/> Other(Please list) _____	

15. How many children do you have? _____ # children

16. How many siblings do you have? _____ # brothers _____ # sisters

17. What is your position in the family?

<input type="checkbox"/> Oldest	<input type="checkbox"/> Middle	<input type="checkbox"/> Other (Please describe your position)
<input type="checkbox"/> Only	<input type="checkbox"/> Youngest	_____

18. INFLUENCES BY PARENTS: Employment of Father when you were growing up:

<input type="checkbox"/> No father in the home	<input type="checkbox"/> Homemaker
<input type="checkbox"/> Professional(doctor, lawyer, nurse)	<input type="checkbox"/> Service work
<input type="checkbox"/> Community protection(police, etc.)	<input type="checkbox"/> Skilled trade
<input type="checkbox"/> Administrator <input type="checkbox"/> Manager	<input type="checkbox"/> Self-employed
<input type="checkbox"/> Other(Please list) _____	

19. Employment of Mother when you were growing up:

<input type="checkbox"/> No mother in the home	<input type="checkbox"/> Homemaker
<input type="checkbox"/> Professional(doctor, lawyer, nurse)	<input type="checkbox"/> Service Work
<input type="checkbox"/> Community protection(police, etc.)	<input type="checkbox"/> Skilled Trade
<input type="checkbox"/> Administrator <input type="checkbox"/> Manager	<input type="checkbox"/> Self-employed
<input type="checkbox"/> Other(Please list) _____	

20. Which parent was the most influential in directing you toward management?

<input type="checkbox"/> Father	<input type="checkbox"/> Mother	<input type="checkbox"/> Neither
---------------------------------	---------------------------------	----------------------------------

21. How did your parent (if one was chosen in #20) influence you toward management? (Select 5 and mark 1-5, with 1 as most, 2 next most, etc.)

<input type="checkbox"/> Assistance with your studies	<input type="checkbox"/> Encouragement
<input type="checkbox"/> Belief in your ability as a leader	<input type="checkbox"/> High expectations
<input type="checkbox"/> Had influential friends to help you	<input type="checkbox"/> Role model
<input type="checkbox"/> Other(Please explain) _____	

22. What activities and experiences, DURING YOUR ELEMENTARY AND HIGH SCHOOL YEARS, contributed to your leadership qualities? (Please select five and mark from 1-5, with 1 as the greatest contributor, 2 as next, etc.)

<input type="checkbox"/> Acting in school plays	<input type="checkbox"/> Newspaper Editor
<input type="checkbox"/> Cheerleader	<input type="checkbox"/> President in club
<input type="checkbox"/> Church Activities	<input type="checkbox"/> Other officer
<input type="checkbox"/> Honor Society	<input type="checkbox"/> Intramural Sports
<input type="checkbox"/> Job after school	<input type="checkbox"/> Extramural Sports
<input type="checkbox"/> Student government	<input type="checkbox"/> Yearbook staff
<input type="checkbox"/> Other(Please list) _____	

23. What activities and experiences, DURING YOUR COLLEGE OR ADVANCED TRAINING YEARS, contributed? (Please choose 5 and mark 1-5, as in #22.)

<input type="checkbox"/> Drama Activities	<input type="checkbox"/> Newspaper editor
<input type="checkbox"/> Cheerleader	<input type="checkbox"/> President of club
<input type="checkbox"/> Church Activities	<input type="checkbox"/> Other officer
<input type="checkbox"/> Honor Society	<input type="checkbox"/> Intramural Sports
<input type="checkbox"/> Job after classes	<input type="checkbox"/> Extramural Sports
<input type="checkbox"/> Student Government	<input type="checkbox"/> Yearbook Staff
<input type="checkbox"/> Other(Please list) _____	

24. How did these activities/experiences assist you in becoming a leader? (Please choose 5 and mark 1-5, with 1 as most assistive, 2 as next, etc.)

<input type="checkbox"/> Increased level of experience	<input type="checkbox"/> Increased confidence
<input type="checkbox"/> Learned to organize time	<input type="checkbox"/> Enlarged knowledge base
<input type="checkbox"/> Emphasized responsibility	<input type="checkbox"/> Learned patience
<input type="checkbox"/> Learned to communicate with others	<input type="checkbox"/> Improved speaking ability
<input type="checkbox"/> Other(Please list) _____	

25. What PROBLEMS OR BARRIERS did you encounter when you applied for an administrative position?(Select 5 and rank 1-5 with 1 as greatest problem)

<input type="checkbox"/> No problems	<input type="checkbox"/> Lack of confidence
<input type="checkbox"/> Lack of advancement opportunities	<input type="checkbox"/> Lack of experience
<input type="checkbox"/> Not enough energy for family & Job	<input type="checkbox"/> Lack of mobility
<input type="checkbox"/> Not being taken seriously	<input type="checkbox"/> No degree
<input type="checkbox"/> Degree not appropriate for position	<input type="checkbox"/> Political Environment
<input type="checkbox"/> Little support from supervisor	<input type="checkbox"/> Too much competition
<input type="checkbox"/> Discrimination (If marked, please explain) _____	
<input type="checkbox"/> Other (Please explain) _____	

26. How did you overcome these problems or barriers (if there were any) to obtain the position you wanted? (Select five, and mark each with a number from 1-5, with 1 as most helpful, 2 as second, etc.)

- | | |
|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Obtained more experience | <input type="checkbox"/> Earned a degree |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Earned degree necessary for the job | <input type="checkbox"/> Mentor Assistance |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Hired help for household chores | <input type="checkbox"/> Persistence |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Knew someone in the organization | <input type="checkbox"/> Left position |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Other(Please list) _____ | |

27. What would you consider your major problem when trying to get a position as a nursing home administrator?

28. Now that you have attained this position as an administrator, please describe how you feel about your accomplishment.

- | |
|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Satisfied and fulfilled |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Job too stressful |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Wish you could go back to a lower position |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Now pursuing even higher goal(Please explain) _____ |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Other(Please explain) _____ |

Thank you for completing this survey. Please use the space on the back to make additional comments regarding your career path, or how you got where you are today. I appreciate any comments or reactions to this survey.

As a thank you for participating, I would be happy to share the results. If you would like a copy of the results, please indicate here. _____

<p>Thank you! Now - please - fold your survey form and put it in the envelope provided. NO POSTAGE NECESSARY; MAIL IT NOW! Thanks again.</p>
--

Survey is mailed to 7662 Moors Pointe Way, Portage, Michigan 49002.

Appendix B
Cover Letter

August 15, 1990

Dear Administrator:

I am writing this letter as an introduction for the enclosed survey form. The findings of this study are expected to be helpful to individuals whose career goals are directed toward nursing home leadership. Because I have found limited information specifically related to leadership in the nursing home field, I believe your background and experience will assist young people to better prepare for such a responsible position.

The survey data will be used to meet the research requirement for my doctoral degree in Educational Leadership at Western Michigan University. The working title of this research project is as follows: Positive and Negative Influencers of the Career Development of Administrators in Nursing Homes or Nursing Centers.

As stated on the survey form, the information from these surveys will not be identified by an individual's name, residence or in any other way. Each form is identified by a code number; however, this is needed for follow-up mailings only and will not be coded with the responses on the survey form.

I would appreciate your assistance and prompt return. Please return as quickly as possible. A stamped, addressed envelope has been enclosed for your use. I welcome your comments, and if you have questions or concerns, please feel free to contact me at Friendship Village, Kalamazoo, 616-381-0560.

If you would like a copy of the final results, please indicate on the survey form.

Sincerely,



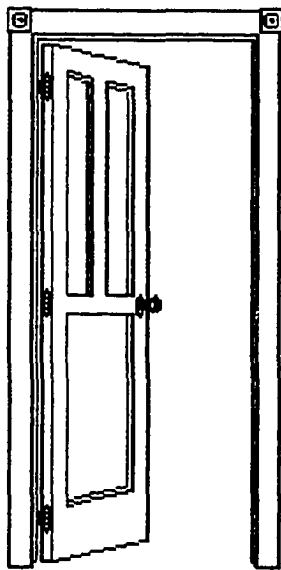
Shirley Cornelius, R.N., M.A.
Director of Nursing Service

Appendix C
Second Mailing

HAVE YOU
FORGOTTEN ?



MY DOOR IS OPEN...
ANXIOUSLY WAITING
FOR YOUR REPLY.



PLEASE COMPLETE AND RETURN
NURSING HOME ADMINISTRATOR
SURVEY MAILED TO YOU A WEEK
AGO. YOUR EXPERIENCE AND
COMMENTS ARE NEEDED!

IF YOU NEED ANOTHER SURVEY
FORM OR HAVE QUESTIONS, PLEASE
CALL ME AT FRIENDSHIP VILLAGE,
616-381-0560.

*Thank
you!*

PLEASE MAIL TO:
SHIRLEY CORNELIUS
7662 MOORS POINTE WAY
PORTAGE, MICHIGAN 49002

Appendix D

Human Subjects Institutional Review Board
Confirmation Letter



WESTERN MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY

Date: April 20, 1990

To: Shirley Cornelius

From: Mary Anne Bunda, Chair *Mary Anne Bunda*

This letter will serve as confirmation that your research protocol, "Women in Management-Administrative Positions of Authority in Health Care Agencies and Hospitals", with the title change of "Men and Women in Management: Influencers and Perceived Barriers Affecting Leaders as They Prepare for a Position as Administrator in a Health Care Facility, Specifically a Nursing Home or Nursing Center for Gerontological Residents", has been approved as expedited by the HSIRB. The conditions and duration of this approval are specified in the Policies of Western Michigan University. You may now begin to implement the research as described in the approval application.

You must seek reapproval for any change in this design. You must also seek reapproval if the project extends beyond the termination date.

The Board wishes you success in the pursuit of your research goals.

xc: R. Brinkerhoff, Educational Leadership

HSIRB Project Number 89-07-17

Approval Termination April 20, 1991

Appendix E
Degrees of Respondents

DEGREES OF RESPONDENTS

MALE ADMINISTRATORS

BACHELOR'S DEGREE

Health Care Management &
 Political Science
 Restaurant Management &
 Business
 Business Administration &
 Economics
 Business & Economics
 Hotel Management & Business
 Business
 Political Science &
 Marketing
 Public Health & Spanish
 Management & Economics
 Accounting & Sales
 Promotion
 Marketing, Economics &
 Management
 History & English
 Economics & Philosophy
 Business & Engineering
 Hospital Administration &
 Business
 Business Administration
 Accounting
 Marketing & Speech
 Accounting (CPA) & Economics
 Religious Education &
 Psychology
 Public Administration &
 Business
 Psychology & Sociology
 Mathematics & Psychology
 Accounting & Business
 Human Resources
 Health Care Administration
 Health Services Management

MASTER'S DEGREE

Divinity
 Hospital Administration
 Law
 Business
 Public Administration
 Hospital & Health Care
 Administration
 Communication & Business
 Business & Health Care
 Administration
 Management & Health Care
 Administration
 Education
 Health Administration &
 Business
 Business Management
 Health Care

DEGREES OF RESPONDENTS

FEMALE ADMINISTRATORS

BACHELOR'S DEGREE

Gerontology & Allied
 Health
 Health Care & Gerontology
 Social Work, Sociology &
 Criminology
 Health Care Administration
 Health Care Management
 Nursing Home Administration
 Business Administration &
 Psychology
 Biology & Philosophy
 Health Studies
 Sociology
 Business
 Health Education & Biology
 Gerontology
 Speech & English
 Psychology & Education
 Administration & Accounting
 Business & Health Care
 Allied Health Sciences
 Health Care Administration

MASTER'S DEGREE

Health Care
 Administration
 Long Term Care
 Geriatric & Mental Health
 Health Services
 Administration
 Management
 Gerontology & Sociology

Appendix F

What Other Education or Training Would you Find Helpful
in Your Position as Nursing Home Administrator?

WHAT OTHER EDUCATION OR TRAINING WOULD YOU FIND HELPFUL
IN YOUR POSITION AS NURSING HOME ADMINISTRATOR?

	Number of Responses
1. Degree or classes in business	20
2. Degree or experience in accounting	17
3. Courses on management and supervision	14
4. Hands-on-training or experience in the field	12
5. Continuing education on all aspects of long term care	11
6. Courses in communication and psychology	10
7. Medical/nursing training	10
8. Education in finances and budget control	8
9. Education in labor relations and unions	8
10. Courses or seminars in gerontology	4
11. Seminars on Medicaid and Medicare reimbursement	4
12. Courses on computer use	3
13. Courses or seminars in marketing	3
14. Courses or seminars in stress management	3
15. Membership in professional organizations	3
16. Seminars on changes in rules and regulations	3
17. Legal expertise to interpret regulatory rules	2
18. Demographic and political trends and participation in political processes related to long term care	2
19. Active participation in community, schools, church, rotary or other activities to let one know what is going on	1

20. A warm outgoing friendly personality and a genuine love of people are important qualities for an administrator.	1
21. Current issues in long term care	1
22. Long range strategic planning	1
23. Medical terminology	1
24. Operations management	1
25. Recruitment techniques	1
26. Seminars on how to win employee loyalty	1
27. Skills in public speaking	1
28. Cooperative sharing of administrative roles with similar facilities.	1

RECOMMENDED COURSES OR SEMINARS

Accounting

Business & Strategic Planning

Clerkship

Communication & Interpersonal Relations

Computer Training

Decision Making

Demographics & Political Trends

Employee Management & Discipline

Economics

Financial Management

Gerontology

Human Resources

Law & Labor Relations

Leadership & Supervision

Marketing

Medical Terminology

Motivational Skills

Medicaid & Medicare

Mentorship

Pharmacology

Psychology

Public Relations

Public Speaking

Stress Management

Appendix G
Influential Persons

INFLUENTIAL PERSONS

1. Seventeen respondents (out of 53 "other" responses) indicated that "self motivation" was a driving force that directed them toward a leadership career.
2. Nine respondents expressed the importance of brothers and sisters as influential persons.
3. Four respondents listed grandparents as important to their advancement in their career.
4. Other choices included a college counselor, two ministers, a mother-in-law, a male business owner, a board chairman, two administrators, an aunt, two professors, two health care professionals, and female friend of the family.

Appendix H

Major Problems of Administrators

MAJOR PROBLEMS OF ADMINISTRATORS

1. Lack of experience: 34 respondents specifically listed lack of experience as a major problem. Seven checked "No problems" and still listed lack of experience.
2. Four respondents believed that home duties and family responsibilities were their major problems, and there were not enough hours in the day to get everything done.
3. Acceptance as authority figure from employees, especially if administrator is very young or if the administrator is promoted from within and is supervising former peers.
4. Understanding the changing reimbursement methods. (Respondent checked "No problems.")
5. Lack of formal education indicated by six respondents.
6. Not willing to accept all the hassles and challenges.
7. Lack of experience in budget, medicare/medicaid and lack of confidence.
8. Low morale in the industry and terrible work environment.
9. Discrimination: Sixteen respondents indicated specific examples of what they described as discrimination.
 - a. One of the first female administrators in the field--respondent indicated sexual discrimination.
 - b. There were not a lot of women in administration when the respondent entered the field; she said that she had to prove she could handle the responsibility.
 - c. A respondent believed she was not in a locally acceptable party.
 - d. Five respondents believed they were not taken seriously or had other difficulties because they were too young (ages 21, 23, 28, 29, and 32). One woman who was age 26 believed her age and sex caused resistance by her supervisor.
 - e. Two respondents believed they were not hired because they were too old (age 50 and 59).
 - f. One respondent indicated that she was the first black female nursing home administrator.

- g. One respondent suspected that a man was preferred and did not get the job.
 - h. One respondent indicated that she was interviewed for the position of nursing home administrator but was actually told a man was to be hired.
 - i. Two respondents believed it extremely hard for a female to be hired without experience or get into an AIT (Administrator in Training) program or become an assistant administrator.
10. Seven respondents expressed difficulty in getting a nursing home administrator position because of lack of available positions in their geographic area.

HOW PROBLEMS WERE OVERCOME

1. Those persons who listed "lack of experience" as a major problem obtained more experience, earned a degree, or found mentor assistance to help them obtain the position they wanted. Thirty-one respondents checked "persistence" in question #26 as a way to overcome the problem of "lack of experience" in obtaining the position they wanted.
2. One respondent took college courses and seminars, read, and joined professional groups to correct a lack of experience.
3. One respondent convinced the interviewer to give him a chance even though he had no experience and has been successful for many years as a nursing home administrator.
4. Eight respondents who emphasized "lack of experience" as their major problem listed "knew someone in the organization" as a way to overcome their major barrier to obtaining the position they wanted.

Appendix I
Specific Comments of Respondents

SPECIFIC COMMENTS OF RESPONDENTS

1. At this facility, the staff is not motivated, and I feel alone and stressed out. I have a small budget, and it is very hard to stay in it when I don't have enough staff (nurses and aides) and must use pool. Then the patients do not receive good care.
2. I found a career path working in the business field in insurance which I have found very challenging and rewarding.
3. The state of Michigan appears to be more competitive than the state of Indiana. There are more degrees in the field, and it seems that someone with a degree of any type is in more demand.
4. My mentor was the owner/administrator of the facility in which I worked as a secretary. He encouraged me to attend a Nursing Home Administrator course, and later I became administrator in the same facility.
5. The field of long term care is extremely regulated and has a negative image. There are many challenges which are sometimes stressful, and I see much turnover because of this stress.
6. I "came up through the ranks," first as a nurse aide and an office manager. I participated in the state and federal rules and regulations and worked with the Medicaid and Medicare programs. This experience proved to be my entry into the administrative level.
7. I believe that anyone coming into the field of nursing home administration needs much practical experience. Book learning could not possibly prepare anyone for the real-life situations that one experiences in this field. I am not putting down a college degree as this is going to be a requirement by OBRA. My suggestion would be that a summer job in a nursing home would be a good experience.
8. I realized that a Nursing Home Administrator job is more like 60 hours per week, especially at the beginning. I am not in any hurry to reach this goal.

9. The most important input in my career selection in the health administration field came from a tremendous strong drive from within and the desire and decision to be working in public service in some way.
10. After leaving the nursing home field and recognizing the stress I left behind, I decided not to return because of the poor salaries in comparison to the demands. The staffing problems were in the beginning of a period of decline, and hiring of competent and reliable personnel was difficult. Only a financial crisis would cause me to re-enter the industry as a nursing home administrator because of the staffing and poor quality care by so many homes.
11. Networking with the community of administrators is difficult. I believed that men with a business background would be hired because women are stereotyped as being "soft" and not strong leaders.
12. A Nursing Home Administrator cannot always be satisfied. Today it is great, but tomorrow could bring a whole new set of problems. Some stress is overwhelming at times.
13. I have seen so many things I wanted changed, and I feel good now that all my residents receive good care and most of all are loved. Whenever I get busy and burned out, I sit with the residents and reflect what a really good life I give them. It is all the reward I need.
14. I am not an administrator at this time, and I would not return to an administrative position due to the level of responsibility and commitment. I also would not return due to the number of homes owned by large corporations in which the level of patient care has decreased dramatically.
15. I think that it is important that a nursing home administrator is consulted regarding the facility and not only serve as a figure head for the owner.
16. I am retired, but if I were still working I would be a nursing home administrator as I thoroughly enjoyed my association with the elderly. Working with the elderly is the most satisfying of the medical fields.

17. Anyone who would choose in the next five years to become a nursing home administrator needs to seriously reconsider as OBRA and MDPH (Michigan Department of Public Health) is taking the fun out of it.
18. I would think twice before re-entering nursing home work because of the excessive federal and state regulations that are so far beyond common sense and practicality. There are times when I feel the patient has been the loser. Excessive regulation keeps more people in the paper shuffle and away from the patient.
19. I love caring for the elderly in spite of much that is negative in terms of regulations, public image, reimbursement, etc.
20. The future of the industry will require more skills for administrators, but our industry has far too many regulations to learn about in a good college program. I am not sure how we will attract good management people in the future, but we must! This industry is very necessary.
21. It is difficult when the nursing home changes owners several times, and each owner has different expectations of the nursing home administrator. I was unprepared for the little support I received from my supervisors and decided to leave the field.
22. I always thought that if I did a good job there would be no problem of hiring another black in the same position. In my travels working for a big corporation, blacks are few in the health care field. So often I have been the only black administrator in a meeting of 200-300.
23. Getting a position as nursing home administrator was not a problem. The stress level was too intense. State inspectors were nasty and unhelpful, there was too much pressure from the corporate level, and there were union problems. In addition, the job meant 50-60 hour weeks.
24. The nursing home administrator exam is very easy and a poor indicator of a person's competence as an administrator.
25. After several years as a nursing home administrator and two different corporations, I "bailed out" and took another job with better benefits and a lot less stress. The lack of staff and resultant problems were a major source of stress.

26. The nursing shortage has made the administrator's role somewhat stressful. It is hard to be competitive with wages in comparison to the hospital wages.
27. Corporate offices are only interested in people who will make money, and there is a real lack of empathy for the old and the ill.
28. Jobs in nursing homes are given to family and friends who lack experience.
29. There should be more opportunities that are well-advertised for obtaining continuing education credits, especially by the state and professional associations.
30. Some of the associations representing the long term care profession are more interested in dues paid by members than the members themselves or the professional ethics involved.
31. There is too much work in a nursing home for too little money.
32. There are 1500 persons licensed as nursing home administrators with only 400 or so facilities. One respondent believed there were too many administrators available, and it was too easy to get a nursing home administrator license.
33. There is an increased stress level with present multiple changes in Federal law and typical little information on rules and interpretive Federal guidelines until the last minute.
34. There is not enough return on the effort made in the nursing home, per diem rate is too low, and there are too many regulations. The public does not understand and does not wish to pay for the service.
35. The nursing home industry is hiring personnel solely interested in financial statistics (budget) with an almost total disregard for the product--geriatric care.
36. There is insufficient income and security potential within the field of long term care.
37. The field does not allow for future planning; it is very hard to stay "inspired."

38. There is too much emphasis on profit and lack of caring for the patient welfare.
39. I feel very negative about the long term care system--profit oriented private owners and poor disinterested Boards in nonprofit organizations. I would never be a nursing home administrator.
40. A college degree is an additive; experience is vital.

Appendix J

Maps

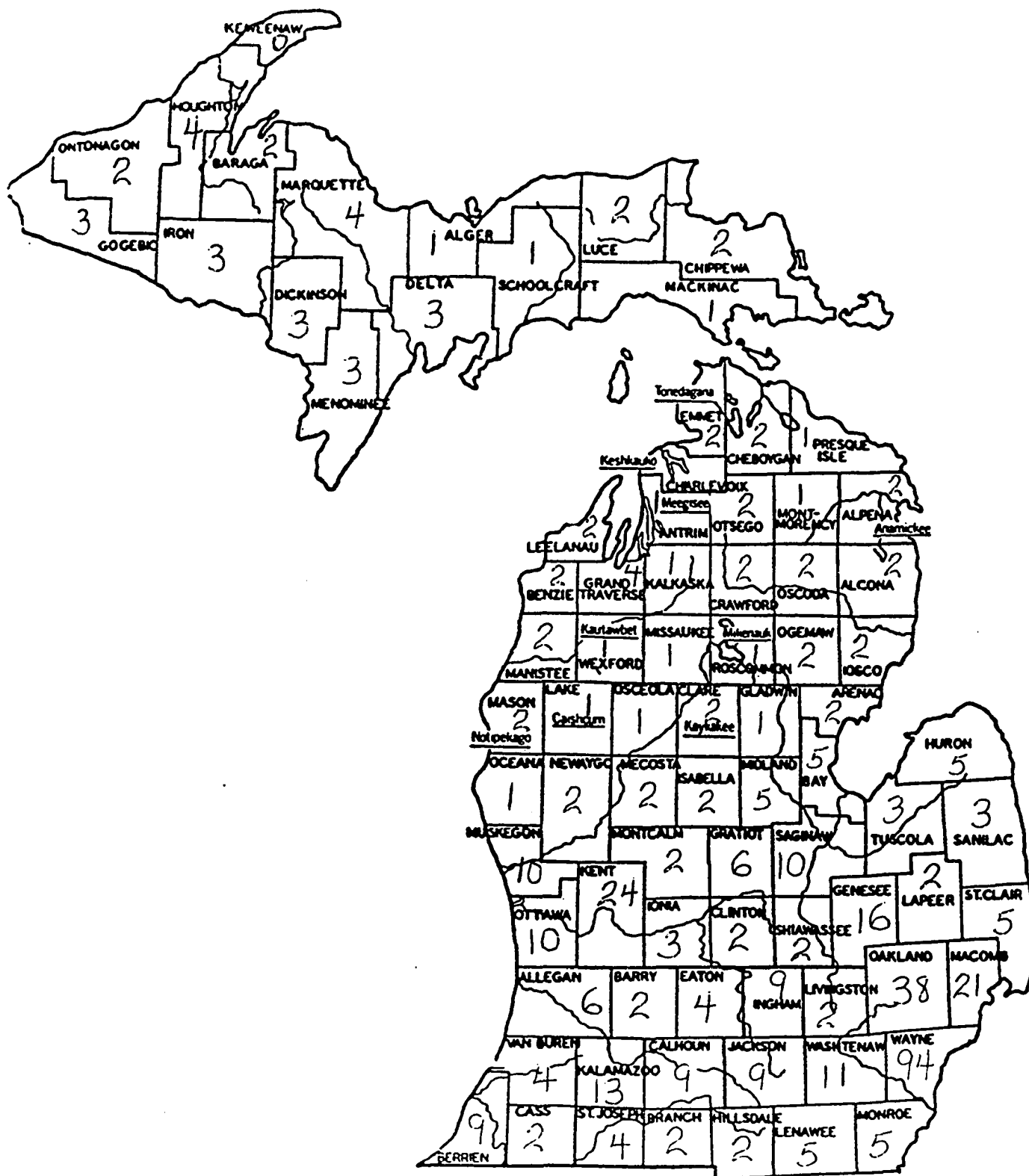
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Nursing Home Administrator

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CHARACTERISTICS OF NURSING HOME ADMINISTRATORS:
PERCEIVED INFLUENCERS ON OWN CAREER PATHS

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Western Michigan University, 1991

The purpose of this study was to describe the positive and negative influencers perceived by men and women as having contributed to their successful attainment of the position of nursing home administrator, focusing attention especially on any differences between male and female respondents as to the influences reported.

A survey was sent to a random sample of 325 individuals (26% of 1,250) who held a license to practice as a nursing home administrator in the state of Michigan. There were 197 completed responses, resulting in a response rate of 60.6%. Of those responding, there were 86 males (43.7%) and 111 females (56.3%).

Both male and female respondents indicated that the greatest positive influencers included health care experience, personality, and the ability to communicate. The survey participants also emphasized the importance of other influences, including: (a) parents, (b) other significant persons, (c) activities in high school and college, (d) church activities, and (e) part-time jobs.

Both men and women reported lack of experience as their greatest negative influencer. Men reported lack of advancement as their second greatest career barrier. Other barriers ranked high by women included "not being taken seriously" and "not enough energy for

family and job." The respondents emphasized the importance of education and training in long term care and provided numerous recommendations for future administrators.