

UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA
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THE TIES THAT BLIND: THE PERCEIVED INFLUENCE OF
ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE AND SELF EFFICACY ON LEADERSHIP
SUCCESS FOR WOMEN FUNDRAISERS

A DISSERTATION
SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY
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degree of
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By
Kayla K. Acebo
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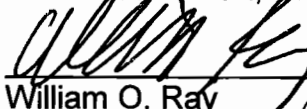
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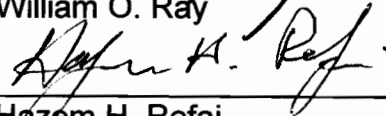
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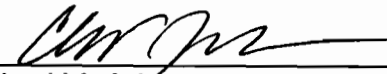
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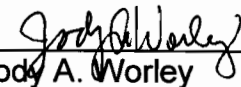
William O. Ray



Hazem H. Refai



Chad V. Johnson



Jody A. Worley

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"I'm glad I did it, partly because it was worth it, but mostly because I shall never have to do it again"

~ Mark Twain

To say that this academic exercise has been an arduous journey is, perhaps, the most profound understatement to have ever been uttered. My original impetus in pursuing a doctoral degree was very noble, indeed. I wanted to immerse myself in advanced study; stimulate my senses through discussions both theoretical and philosophical. I wanted to stand as an example to my (then) young son for his future educational pursuits. I wanted to achieve what no other person in my family had ever achieved: an earned PhD from an exceptional institution of higher education.

All of these goals were achieved. What I ultimately learned, however, is that nothing worthwhile can be achieved alone nor can it come without cost. Sometimes great cost. So as I consider what has brought me to this point in my life, I find myself overwhelmed by the gratitude I have for so many who have so thoughtfully carried me to this ultimate educational finish line.

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“I’m bored!”, my father, James Strain, would frown seriously, shove a book into my hand, and say, “I don’t ever want to hear you say that again.” I remember a hot summer day when, at the age of 13, I began an adventure with Huckleberry Finn that changed my life forever. My world expanded with such works as “A Tree Grows in Brooklyn”, “The Catcher in the Rye”, “Anne of Green Gables”, “To Kill a Mockingbird”, and too many others to mention. Our literature exchanges continue today and include his wonderful wife and my dear stepmother, Imogene.

My mother, Audrey Funston, saw me off on this journey but was not able to celebrate its end. I defended my dissertation on the fourth anniversary of her death. Her incomparable spirit guided me with sureness and resolve, and her pride in my accomplishments made me always want to achieve more. She was my first spiritual teacher and she continues to hold that most honored position even today. I am grateful to her husband and my stepfather, Al, for continuing to allow me to be a part of his life so that we may both share in the memories of this amazing woman.

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To Liz, my best friend, my confidant, and my other half. It is hard to remember a day when you were not a part of my life or to imagine a future without you in it. With every celebration and every great sadness, you are by my side to cheer me on or prop me up, each time bringing more color and more wisdom to my world. We will forever be bound by the adventures we have shared, the memories we have created together, and the intertwined lives we will continue to live. The fun is just beginning, Louise. I will call you tonight!

To Connor, my son and my life. You were a little boy when I started this quest and now you are a mature young man preparing for your own college experience. While I hope my efforts will inspire you to pursue your educational dreams, I regret each moment my studies took me away from you. Your life is on the verge of really beginning. Throw yourself into each experience. Open every door that you approach. Embrace every opportunity with an adventurous spirit and savor every single moment as it unfolds before you. The world is yours, Connor. Take it, taste it, live it and find your happiness. (And vote, honey. It is so important. Really.)

To Ron, the most patient husband in the world and the most wonderful life partner a gawky girl from Arkansas could ever hope to find. Thank you for 25 amazing years of love and friendship, particularly during these last 7 difficult years. The quiet support, constant encouragement, and unconditional love you offered to me throughout this quest made the

difference in my ability to complete it while not losing my sanity. We have grown up together and we will grow old together. In the meantime, let's go find a beach and escape the world for a while. I love you.

Abstract

University systems today are continually challenged with decreasing state funding appropriations, the need to provide more services to students to remain appealing and competitive in a tough recruitment market, with increasing expectations from faculty for support and infrastructure investment, and with alumni demands to maintain a level of excellence that assists in maintaining the value of their college degree. All of these competing requests require money that must be raised through private sources.

In order to maintain levels of quality that their consumers and stakeholders have come to expect, the university must have dynamic leaders in university advancement operations. This is a critical component of the higher education structure, and every institution must be prepared to find success in this arena or risk the embrace of mediocrity. Through the application of attribution theory to defined external and internal barriers to leadership success, this study is designed to ascertain causality for the lack of gender parity at the leadership levels in university advancement operations when the profession itself is dominated by women.

A mixed method approach to data gathering was conducted which involved qualitative interviews with nine female chief advancement officers and a subsequent electronic survey distributed to approximately 1,525 institutional advancement professions. The research procedure and participants are defined in Chapter 3.

Over 200 responses were collected from institutional advancement professionals and examined the perceived external challenges and internal challenges to leadership in institutional advancement operations, particularly as they diverge between the sexes. Differences and similarities of leadership styles between men and women are reviewed focusing on organizational culture, the concept of self-efficacy, and causality.

An analysis of the research is presented in Chapter 4. The themes that emerge from the qualitative interviews are detailed in descriptive text offering the researcher and reader a description of the leadership experiences of the women interviewed. These responses were then triangulated with the data collected from the quantitative survey to uncover unifying themes and further explore the research questions presented.

The results of the findings are discussed to determine ideas the data uncovers and assumptions that can be made from the findings. The information will provide a valuable addition to the limited body of knowledge in this area while also providing additional ideas for future research in leadership.

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

A walk through any university campus will offer an instant visual depiction of the history of that institution. Names of significant alumni grace the academic buildings. The notable collections in the libraries are accompanied by plaques acknowledging the generosity of the family who made their purchase possible. Football stadiums and basketball courts are grand canvases upon which corporations or foundations often choose to paint their names. All of these examples share a common thread: They likely would not have been possible without private gifts.

Private fundraising has been an integral part of the American university system since the founding of its first university 16 years after the pilgrims landed at Plymouth Rock. Harvard University was named after its benefactor John Harvard, a young minister who, understanding the vital importance of higher education to the strength of a great and nascent country, bequeathed his library and half of his estate to the new institution (Harvard, 2005). More than 300 years later, Harvard University continues and, in fact, has the largest endowment of any institution in the country.

Another historic yet less celebrated tradition within the higher education system in this country is the look of the leadership at the upper echelons of university advancement operations. There is very little diversity both in terms of gender and ethnicity. While the profession itself is now primarily comprised of women, the majority of the top higher education development positions in this

country are held by White men. The male hegemony and the noticeable lack of representation of women that still exists within the academy in the top leadership shows that gains made in this area are happening very slowly.

As the advancement profession has evolved and become more feminized, more attention has been paid to a number of organizational barriers that are generally identified as *glass ceiling* impediments. These include organizational cultures that have nurtured a historically male dominated environment. These cultures have traditionally been perceived as unfavorable toward female advancement, including lack of appropriate mentoring and role models, and access to male-dominated communication networks. The decision to pursue motherhood in addition to a professional career has had negative impacts on women and has been identified as an attributable cause in salary disparities between men and women.

In contemplating these particular issues, it has become apparent that organizational barriers such as these are all external in origin. That is, they are instituted by the existing administrative structure of the organization and perpetuated by its organizational culture. Therefore, these barriers are outside of the locus of control of any particular employee and over which an employee, ultimately, has no control. The literature is replete with case studies that document the failure of women to thrive in their professional quest for leadership positions due to these historic, externally imposed barriers.

However, the singular examination of externally created barriers as causal to the lack of leadership advancement for women in higher education fundraising

neglects to take into account other factors that may also influence women's abilities to assume such positions of leadership. The intrinsic barriers to women's advancement into leadership positions must also be examined in order to provide a full and complete picture. Albert Bandura's (1994) concept of self-efficacy considered as a potential internal hindrance to advancement provides an appropriate counterpoint to the external barriers facing women as they seek positions as leaders in the development profession. Self-efficacy is the perception one holds of his or her own capability to accomplish a particular task or perform at a particular level (Bandura, 1994). The primary components of the self-efficacy model include mastery of experiences, vicarious experiences provided through social role models, social persuasion, and a decrease in the negative emotional responses to challenges. High levels of self-efficacy possessed by an individual would indicate a higher likelihood of success in any undertaken task or endeavor.

One way to examine the influences of both of these areas is through the lens of attribution theory. Attribution theory is a cognitive theory of motivation that focuses on how individuals interpret events and how those interpretations relate to their expressed behavior (Weiner, 1986). Fritz Heider (1958) first proposed the theory of attribution, which describes the processes involved in how individuals explain events and the resultant behavioral and emotional consequences of those explanations. Through the application of attribution theory, this paper will examine leadership in higher education advancement operations by investigating the perceptions of causality of these external and internal influences on the

success (or lack thereof) of female leaders in the profession. This analysis will be useful in defining how individuals respond to external barriers to advancement and how self-efficacy judgments are formed.

Background of the Problem

As state appropriations for public institutions of higher education decrease and operating costs for private institutions of higher education increase, both types of institutions have become more dependent on private sources of funding for their operations. As a result, offices of institutional advancement have evolved to become key departments in colleges and universities across the country. The purpose of institutional advancement operations is to enable colleges or universities to do well in highly competitive environments and strengthen their abilities to compete more effectively for available resources (Worth, 2002).

Advancement is the area of a college or university charged with raising private funds from alumni, individuals, foundations and corporations to support the programs and projects of the institution. This concept of institutional advancement as an integral part of the management of institutions of higher education is uniquely American in origin and where it is practiced at a highly sophisticated level (Worth, 2002).

These departments are designed and structured to identify, cultivate and solicit private gifts in support of academic programs, capital projects, and student support initiatives such as scholarships, fellowships, faculty support, and directed research. This function is particularly critical to private institutions that rely heavily on endowment income, tuition, and private gifts as their sole sources of operating

support. The chief advancement officer is vital to this operation and is generally recognized as a key member of the university's administration and often considered the chief architect of fundraising planning for all aspects of the university—scholarships, faculty enhancements, capital needs, and endowment growth.

In the last five decades, the field of institutional advancement has changed dramatically. Fundraising departments have become formal institutionalized operations with staffs that have grown larger year by year. This organizational evolution gained a critical popularity as college enrollments substantially increased following World War II, as the aging infrastructure on campuses nationwide needed an infusion of capital, as competition for the brightest students increased the need for endowment funds, and in concurrence with the systematic decrease in state appropriations for state-assisted public institutions of higher education.

Leadership of these efforts is critical. The high visibility and primary purpose of the chief advancement officer's position lends itself to a significant leadership standing. Approximately 15 years ago, women achieved employment parity within the field of institutional advancement (Netherton, 2002), at least in terms of the actual number of women employed in some segment of the profession. Unfortunately, this representational equity in gender has not been demonstrated at the top leadership levels. In both private and public institutions of higher education, the chief advancement officer has had a universal representation of being primarily White and primarily male. Women represent

two-thirds of the individuals employed in educational fundraising but men hold 61% of the chief advancement officer positions (Carabelli, 2000).

As the quest for private sources of funding for the academic and operational sides of universities continue to grow, offices of institutional advancement are firmly recognized as one of the most integral departments within institutions of higher education. On average, tuition and student fees generally account for only half of an average university's operating budget, increasing the need for additional sources of funding for colleges and universities. This need for funding is shared by both public and private institutions alike.

Statement of the Problem

Male hegemony has been the rule rather than the exception within the leadership ranks of advancement within the academy. Hegemony is the tendency for certain social groups to wield authority, through imposition, manipulation or even consent, over other groups (Obenhour, Pedersen, and Whisenant, 2002). From the time that Harvard University opened its doors in 1636 as the first American institution of higher education, the academic landscape has been oriented to a ruling structure geared towards men (Kanter, 1977). "The key features of the bureaucratic, collegial, and political conceptualizations of leadership in colleges and universities were delineated and refined through studies of academic decision making that did not take gender into consideration" (Bensimon, 1991, p. 147). Because of this, colleges and universities provide a more accurate representation of men's experiences. It is not surprising, then,

that as university advancement operations have evolved, the leadership positions historically have been assumed by existing university administrators, usually men. The demographics of this group reflected little diversity in terms of gender and ethnicity, with a majority of the top leaders being White and male. For the most part, this group was wholly reflective of the general look and feel of most university administrations.

As a result, when women began entering the academy with an eye toward positions that offered leadership opportunities, they began stumbling over organizational culture hurdles that created what was eventually defined as a *glass ceiling* for advancement into recognized positions of leadership. The term *glass ceiling* describes the invisible barrier that many women have come into contact with on their way up the corporate ladder (Chaffins, Forbes, Fuqua, & Cangemi, 1995). Salary equity was non-existent and remains a point of contention today. According to the U.S. Department of Labor Statistics, working women still trail men in earning capacity with women earning a weekly median of \$600 per week, or 81% of the \$743 that men earn (2006).

Career mentoring opportunities have historically been confined to informal, yet effective, male-to-male *grooming* interactions (Bauer, 1999), further perpetuating dominant male leadership and limiting professional advancement opportunities for women and minorities. Limited access to established communication networks has been available to women and the expressed need to balance family life with professional life is still greatly perceived as a detriment to advancement into positions of leadership. Notable exceptions to this

demographic may be found at historically Black colleges and universities, as well as a few other institutions with a focus on gender-specific or ethnic-specific education.

However, the look of the university community is changing. Student populations continue to become much more diverse and it is likely that their expectations for similar representation at the leadership and faculty levels will increase accordingly. As a result, university administrators and their respective governing boards recognize that their ability to attract a wide spectrum of students, as well as private funds from individuals and organizations who make diversity a key component of their giving philosophies, are more closely scrutinized in relation to institutionally proclaimed commitments to diversity and equality.

Only recently have women or people of color assumed any position of leadership within the area of university advancement. And only recently has research on diversity focused on the need for advancing women and people of color into administrative positions within the university environment (Kezar, 2000). This recognition of the need for diversity is in response to the significant imbalance in the ratio of representative administrators to the current demographics within the student body, as well as the faculty ranks.

A new generation of leaders is now emerging in the ranks of university advancement and changes must be made in order to retain talent and cultivate the next generation of advancement leaders. Unfortunately, women and minorities, while making significant improvements in representation, are still

underrepresented at the top levels as well as the middle levels of university advancement. Men are almost twice as likely to head a division or report to a CEO or board of directors than are women (Netherton, 2002). Compounding the problem of the lack of women and minorities in leadership positions within institutional advancement operations is the fact that the mid-level layer—the direct reports to a chief advancement officer—is also challenged by a lack of diversity. The leadership pipeline, therefore, seems to be flowing from only one source.

Women in the advancement profession comprise a full two-thirds of the population, but it is men who are nearly twice as likely to serve as the head of a major department with direct reporting responsibility to the president or board of directors of the institution. Women are one and a half times more likely than men to be in positions with no supervisory responsibility (Netherton, 2002).

Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of this study is to examine female leadership within offices of university advancement, and the factors influencing the success of women who have achieved the position of chief advancement officer within a college or university. The reason that women are under represented at the upper echelons of leadership in institutional advancement operations needs further examination. Are impediments to women's leadership success in these organizations artificially created barriers beyond their locus of control, or do women themselves intrinsically generate the challenges? This, too, is a question that merits further study. The literature sparsely addresses the underlying

causes contributing to the lack of female leadership in the institutional advancement profession, focusing more on statistical measures of representation.

This study will examine to what specific influences may the successful advancement of women to positions of leadership be attributed. In other words, the causal links that explain perceptions of leadership success will be explored to ascertain their genesis. Leadership positions within an institutional advancement operation are defined as those having the title of chief advancement officer or chief development officer and include supervisory and budget responsibilities. Specifically, the top advancement position will have the title vice president or vice chancellor for institutional advancement.

One way to examine this challenge is to consider the current state of leadership within offices of institutional advancement by dually examining the perceptions of organizationally created barriers to success concurrently with self-generated barriers that may be just as damaging. External *glass ceiling* barriers involve the existing culture within the structure of the organization and include factors relating to both, including salary disparity, gender stereotyping, and a real or perceived lack of support for promotion. Just as critical are the more intrinsic factors affiliated with the concept of self-efficacy.

Examination of these factors is particularly important to the field of development due to the fact that women own more than 50% of the nation's investment wealth and are expected to gain greater fiscal importance as they inherit much of the predicted \$10 trillion intergenerational transfer of wealth in the

near future (Muldoon, 2000). A significant amount of this wealth will come to institutions of higher education. Who better than women, then, to build and lead a more gender-sensitive fundraising culture within development operations that appeal to women donors?

Kathleen Kelly, an authority on fundraising and philanthropy, says that while the topic has yet to be studied or measured, it makes sense that women inherently possess the nurturing and empathy skills that make them better fundraisers than men. "Fund raising is about relationships. Relationships usually are more important to women than men, ergo if relationships are what fund raising is all about, it's logical that females would be more effective than men in this field" (BriefCASE, 2004, p. X).

If institutions of higher education are truly committed to diversity as a means to attract students and increase private support to their organizations as they publicly profess to be on their various websites and in their comprehensive mission statements, lack of parity within the leadership ranks is an issue that needs to be addressed in a meaningful way. An examination needs to be comprehensive by all parties involved. That is, it cannot only be university administrations that are charged with uncovering the organizational impediments to progress for women into leadership positions. Women themselves must also be critical in their examination of any self-imposed limitations they may be embracing or attributing to other causes. These are perhaps the *ties that blind* female professionals to their full leadership potential and must also be addressed honestly.

Definitions of Terms

University Advancement/University Development: The inter-related functions of development/fundraising, advancement services (donor records, gift receipting and prospect research) alumni relations, public relations, publications and, often times, marketing within a university operation. Outside of the student body, this department acts as the primary interface with the institution's main constituency groups: alumni, parents, individual donors, corporations, foundations, and media outlets. The main purpose of this department is to raise funds from private sources in support of the institution and its operations. This term is used interchangeably with university advancement and university development.

Chief Advancement Officer: The individual holding the highest administrative position within the university advancement office. Focused on the management of the advancement functions, the title of vice president or vice chancellor for university advancement is associated with this position. This individual will have supervisory responsibility, budgetary authority, and will have a direct reporting relationship to either the president of the institution, the institution's board of directors, or a foundation board of directors. This person is usually a member of the president's cabinet or inner circle.

Chief Development Officer: The individual usually holding the second highest position within the university advancement office. Focused entirely on fundraising and donor development, the title of Assistant Vice President, Associate Vice President or Executive Director of Development is usually

associated with this position. This individual usually will have limited supervisory responsibility and will have a direct reporting relationship to the chief advancement officer.

Limitations

Research for this study is limited to subjects directly involved within the field of institutional advancement. Therefore, the findings are, by themselves, not generalizable to other populations. However, the research, while designed and conducted purposefully for the advancement profession, could be appropriately applicable to other professions demonstrating a predominately female population but a male-dominated leadership structure.

CHAPTER TWO

Literature Review

Few organizations directly serve as diverse a constituency as does a university with its student body and alumni base. It has been suggested that perhaps one of the greatest challenges facing American higher education today is its changing face. This country's institutions are finding people of different nationalities, cultural identities, and races are sharing academic spaces, creating hybrid identities, new languages, and new academic cultures (Association for the Study of Higher Education, 2006). Unfortunately, this multicultural representation may be rarely found throughout the governing structure. Diversity of attitudes, beliefs, and priorities is increasing as a result of the changing composition of the workforce in the United States (Yukl, 1998). Therefore, building diversity is essential for the future health of any organization.

Institutional advancement is the function within the university community dedicated to fundraising (also referred to as development). As this field grows in importance to the financial well-being of colleges and universities, it is essential that women and minorities become better represented in the heavily male-dominated leadership roles, and experience leadership success in those positions.

The definition of leadership success can be as broad as the definition of leadership itself. House and Aditya (1997) and Yukl and Van Fleet (1992) define successful leadership as social influences that organize, direct and motivate

actions of others. Leadership requires “persistent task-directed effort, effective task strategies, and the artful application of various conceptual, technical, and interpersonal skills” (McCormick, 2001, p. 28). In this paper, leadership success will also be defined as advancement into the highest position of administrative authority within the structure of an institutional advancement operation.

Institutional Advancement: Past, Present, and Future

Institutional advancement, and fundraising in particular, has been an integral function of American higher education since its earliest days. The birth of this country’s first university in 1636 was the result of a private gift in support of higher education. Founded 16 years after the arrival of the Pilgrims at Plymouth, Harvard University was named after its first benefactor, John Harvard, of Charlestown, Massachusetts. Through nearly 4 centuries of institutional advancement activity, private gifts have placed Harvard University in an enviable position among all universities by claiming the largest endowment of any institution of higher learning in the country, \$28.9 billion (NACUBO, 2007). Yale University comes closest to reaching an equal level of endowment success, with an endowment figure of \$18.03 billion (NACUBO, 2007). Endowments are permanent funds provided by a donor for a specific purpose and from which only a small percentage of interest earnings are appropriated annually. Endowment funds are general indicators of a university’s financial stability. The academic reputations and perceived prestige of American institutions of higher education generally correlate with the size of their endowments.

Table 1
College and University Endowments, 2006 (in billions)
(NACUBO, 2007)

Rank	Institution	Endowment
1.	Harvard University	\$28.915
2.	Yale University	18.030
3.	Leland Stanford Junior University	14.084
4.	University of Texas System Administration	13.234
5.	Princeton University	13.044
6.	Massachusetts Institute of Technology	8.368
7.	Columbia University	5.937
8.	University of California System	5.733
9.	University of Michigan	5.652
10.	Texas A&M University System	5.642
11.	University of Pennsylvania	5.313
12.	Northwestern University	5.140
13.	Emory University	4.870
14.	University of Chicago	4.867
15.	Washington University in St. Louis	4.684
16.	Duke University	4.497
17.	University of Notre Dame	4.436
18.	Cornell University	4.321
19.	Rice University	3.986
20.	University of Virginia	3.618

The growth of endowment funds for all institutions of higher learning was born of necessity. From its earliest days, the American higher education system functioned with the purpose of providing a practical value to the individual, rather than a public benefit provided through the auspices of the government (Worth, 2002). Because of this unique foundation, American colleges and universities were granted significant autonomy free of government influence. That freedom, however, meant these institutions of higher education were responsible for all costs associated with a higher education. In the beginning, Churches and private donors were asked to give their financial resources to enable each institution to be self-sufficient. Evolving from this self-sufficiency is the institutional advancement profession.

The first recorded organized fund-raising activity undertaken for an American college was conducted on behalf of Harvard University in 1641 by William Hibbens, Hugh Peter, and Thomas Weld (Worth, 2002) who left Boston for London to solicit private support. The trip eventually raised £500 to support Harvard. This trip represented more an exception than the rule when it came to fundraising throughout the 18th and 19th centuries when the development norm consisted mostly of “passing the church plate, of staging church suppers or bazaars, and of writing begging letters” (Worth, 2002, pg. 24).

Development efforts became more sophisticated in the modern era. Although many have claimed credit for introducing the term, development was first used at Chicago’s Northwestern University in the 1920s and was defined in

much the same way as today's more widely used term of institutional advancement. (Worth, 2002). The term development is generally used interchangeably with fundraising even though the definition of development appropriately suggests a process of advancing an organization rather than a singular act of asking for a gift. The former term encompasses the entire operation from goal identification to gift solicitation and should not be confused with tin cupping (Broce, 1986), i.e., begging.

Even though the earliest efforts of philanthropy for higher education can be traced back to the days of the Pilgrims, "systematic efforts to raise money in the United States did not begin until the early 1900s" (Kelley, 1996, p. 135). More recently, as the cost of a college education continues to rise, fundraising has become a vital activity of most colleges and universities, and the development officer has become an increasingly important figure in the administration of the institution (Worth & Asp, 1995). The substantial increases in the cost of a higher education since 1985 for both public and private colleges and universities further underscores the need for private sources of funding to augment institutional coffers.

Table 2.
Costs of higher education, 1985-2006 (in actual dollars)
(U.S. Department of Education, 2007)

Year	All institutions	4-year institutions	2-year institutions
All institutions			
1985–1986	\$4,885	\$5,504	\$3,367

1995–1996	8,800	10,330	4,725
1999–2000	10,444	12,352	5,408
2000–2001	10,818	12,922	5,460
2001–2002	11,380	13,639	5,718
2002–2003	12,014	14,439	6,252
2003–2004	12,955	15,504	6,716
2004–2005	13,792	16,509	7,086
2005–2006	14,629	17,447	7,231
Public institutions			
1985–1986	\$3,571	\$3,859	\$2,981
1995–1996	6,256	7,014	4,217
2000–2001	7,586	8,653	4,839
2001–2002	8,022	9,196	5,137
2002–2003	8,502	9,787	5,601
2003–2004	9,249	10,674	6,020
2004–2005	9,864	11,426	6,375
2005–2006	10,454	12,108	6,492
Private institutions			
1985–1986	\$8,885	\$9,228	\$6,512
1995–1996	17,208	17,612	11,563
2000–2001	21,368	21,856	14,788
2001–2002	22,413	22,896	15,825
2002–2003	23,340	23,787	17,753

2003–2004	24,636	25,083	19,559
2004–2005	25,810	26,257	20,093
2005–2006	26,889	27,317	21,170

Fundraising is big business in higher education. Charitable contributions to colleges and universities in the country grew by 9.4% in 2006, reaching \$28 billion (Council for Aid to Education, 2007). In terms of fundraising, Stanford University currently leads the way in securing private funding for American institutions of higher education with gift levels approaching one billion in 2006 alone. The competition for private gifts is fierce and virtually all colleges and universities find themselves perpetually in *campaign* mode. A campaign is defined as a time-limited effort by a nonprofit organization, such as a college or university, to raise significant dollars for a specific project. It is a formal fundraising effort with a beginning and an end, but it often spans several years. In terms of actual dollars in the door, the following institutions had the most fundraising success in 2006:

Table 3.
Top Fundraising Colleges and Universities in Total Amount Raised, 2006 (in millions)
(The Chronicle of Higher Education, 2007)

Rank	Institution	Dollars Received
1.	Leland Stanford Junior University	\$911.16
2.	Harvard University	\$594.94
3.	Yale University	\$433.46

4.	University of Pennsylvania	\$409.49
5.	Cornell University	\$406.23
6.	University of Southern California	\$405.75
7.	Johns Hopkins University	\$377.34
8.	Columbia University	\$377.28
9.	Duke University	\$332.03
10.	University of Wisconsin-Madison	\$325.94

Nationally, college and university enrollments are expected to steadily increase for the next decade. It is projected that in the 2007-2008 academic year, 17.5 million students will enroll in college, about 1.2 million higher than in 2005-2006. By 2015, predictions are that the figure will jump to approximately 19.8 million, about 23% more than in 2000 (U.S. Department of Education, 2006). Of these students, 8.1 million will be men and 11.7 million will be women. Currently, enrollment for all recognized minority groups in higher education equals 5.4 million, representing nearly 31% of all students in college (Chronicle of Higher Education, 2007). This is a relevant concern in light of the fact that the university's primary community—its students—is becoming more diverse. With every commencement ceremony, those students will immediately matriculate to the ranks of alumni and become candidates for relationship cultivation and eventual gift solicitation.

Finding qualified professionals for the field of institutional advancement is growing rapidly in response to the escalating need for new and increased

sources of revenue to support university programs and increase student enrollments. As colleges and universities face increasing competition for enrollments and decreasing state and federal appropriations, the need for increased funding has elevated university advancement to a critically important and highly visible position in institutional operations (Foster, 1984). A pressing challenge facing leaders in the field of university advancement is in recruiting significant numbers of women to the professional leadership ranks.

During the last 3 decades, women in the corporate business world have more than tripled their share of management positions (Wasenried, 2006). These statistics, however, are not representative within the field of university advancement. Women are better represented than in years past, but do not hold an equitable number of top leadership positions.

The feminization of the profession over the past decade has resulted in a majority—65%—of female advancement professionals (Netherton, 2002). And, while the number of advancement professionals from underrepresented groups has increased modestly in the last 6 years, only 5.8% identify themselves as racial or ethnic minorities. In a 1996 survey conducted by the Council for Advancement and Support of Education (CASE), women constituted 54% of advancement professionals. The 1982 and 1986 CASE surveys found men in the majority (Netherton, 2002). CASE is the largest professional association representing institutional advancement, serving more than 21,900 members (CASE, 2003). In the last 7 years, the gender composition of professionals within

the field of institutional advancement has seen a definite trend toward the feminine.

Within offices of institutional advancement nationwide, 61% of chief advancement officers are male. At the next level—the important mid-level chief development officers—men hold 57% of the positions (Carabelli, 2000). This gender disparity in leadership is pervasive through the academy. A recent analysis of the gender gap shows that 21% of college and university women are presidents, 13% of chief business officers are women, and 25% of chief academic officers are women. Yet, by the year 2007, women are projected to comprise 55% of the higher education student body population (American Demographics, 1997). That same student body is evolving toward a look and feel that is decidedly more feminine. Because chief executives prefer to hire candidates with experience, and because experience for qualified chief advancement officers comes from within the working ranks of development, colleges and universities will have to step up their efforts to identify and recruit women for leadership positions otherwise men will continue to dominate the profession.

When considering the necessity of women in leadership positions within an institutional advancement office, the recognition of women as a significant source of private support reinforces the need to broaden the gender representation at the top levels. The increasing importance of women in philanthropy is a direct reflection of the surge of women's leadership in all areas of business, women's increased educational achievements, and their gains

toward income equity (Whitley & Staples, 1997). In addition to holding approximately two-thirds of the staff positions, women hold 54.3% of all private foundation chief executive slots, as well. Within the corporate grant making world, the statistical dominance of female leadership grows to 76.3% (Lipman, 2003). The financial power of women is likely to become stronger over the next 50 years when it is estimated that the intergenerational transfer of wealth in America will total as much as ten trillion dollars (Whitley & Staples, 1997).

Attribution Theory and Perceptions of Leadership Success

Why women continue to be less than fully represented in the ranks of institutional advancement leadership positions warrants closer scrutiny. Is the lack of representation due to organizational structures that historically have had a decidedly male culture as well as male tradition of leadership? Have issues of gender stereotyping or social role perceptions hindered the advancement of women into these leadership positions? Have women self-limited their progression into the leadership ranks through their own behavior?

An appropriate framework from which to examine this question is through the theory of attribution. Attribution theory focuses on the processes individuals use to interpret cause and effect (Weiner, 1972). In other words, this theory hypothesizes the *why* rather than the *what* when examining the relationship between a particular circumstance and the reasons for that circumstance (Weiner, 1972). Attribution theory, therefore, provides an appropriate vehicle from which to study the intersection of external influences, such as *glass ceiling* hurdles, and internal influences, such as self-efficacy levels, on women leaders

in institutional advancement and the perceptions of the causal factors that contribute to their leadership success. This paper will examine the predicted relationships among the internal and external influences to leadership success for women fundraisers, where the locus of control is perceived to lie for those influences, and to what those women attribute their leadership achievement.

Attribution Theory

The idea of causality to explain events or reactions to events was originally formulated by philosophers such as Kant, Hume, and Mill (Forsterling, 2001). Expansion of that idea into an articulated cognitive social theory was taken up by Fritz Heider who initially examined the phenomenon in 1927 when exploring the factors that influence an individual's perception of events and the reason those mediums shape the subsequent responses of those individuals (Harvey, Ickes, & Kidd, 1976).

Heider's (1958) idea of a medium as an instrument to define causality for an event later evolved to the concept of attribution, a construct he described as a closely relating to perception (Harvey, Ikes & Kidd, 1976). This new construct ushered in the idea that individuals can function, as Heider noted, as *naïve psychologists*, developing causal explanations for significant events (Martinko, 1995). The naïve psychologist, then, can engage in a pseudo-scientific method by forming hypotheses about the causes of events, deducing predictions from those hypotheses and using these observations to test the articulated hypotheses (Forsterling, 2001).

Attribution theory has many different forms. Following Heider's original theory, attribution theory was additionally influenced by Rotter (1966), Jones and Nisbitt (1972), and Kelley and Michela (1980) who began studying individual differences in causal perceptions. Within the field of organizational behavior, approaches to assignment of responsibility, usually within supervisor-subordinate relationships, have remained dominant (Martinko, 1995). Because this paper focuses on attributions related to women's perceptions of leadership success, it is within this realm that the theory will stay focused.

Attribution theory examines how individuals interpret events and how those interpretations relate to their expectations toward behavior (Weiner, 1986). The assumptions made in this context reflect the desire that individuals have in order to understand the particular social environment in which they are a member (Kelley, 1971). For instance, because this paper is examining the perceived external and internal attributes relating to leadership success of women in offices of institutional advancement, the primary social environment to be studied will be the higher education organizations in which these women operate with a secondary focus on the family or religious groups with which they may also identify.

According to Miner (2002), the field of psychology has begun to show more interest in intrapersonal attributions to particular situations or events. Explanations for an individual's own behavior examined independently of dyads or group interactions "tend to be viewed as perceptual in nature, not motivational" (p. 678). The intrapersonal approach to attribution theory, then, should provide

critical insight into perceived external and internal challenges to leadership success by women.

Under the attribution microscope, leadership itself is a construct that is considered a subjective, rather than an objective, reality. Studied through this lens, leadership cannot be measured with psychological instruments but is, instead, a projection made about individuals perceived as leaders (McElroy, 1982). Because this study focuses on the intrapersonal examination of leadership success, attribution theory further strengthens its framework. Two additional qualities noted as critical in attribution theory for individuals to be perceived as leaders are the possession of (a) charismatic qualities such as self-confidence and the ability to articulate a vision, and (b) transformational rather than transactional behavior (Bass, 1990). Each of these qualities will be further examined in a real-world context later in this paper through in-depth interviews with female vice presidents of institutional advancement operations.

In a very broad sense, attribution theory attempts to determine if perceptions of events are generated from an established internal point of view (perceived as being controlled by the individual, or stable) or from an external point of view (perceived as being controlled by the environment, or unstable) and how controlled and uncontrolled variables play a part in influencing a particular response or course of action. In building upon Weiner's work, Snyder (1976) labeled these points of view as dispositional and situational. Dispositional attribution suggests that an individual's behavior is representative of corresponding inner states, dispositions, or attitudes (i.e., perceived as within an

individual's locus of control). Situational attribution is more a reflection of current social and environmental pressures (i.e., perceived as outside an individual's locus of control). Once the origin of these points of view is determined, responsibility for success or failure can be assigned. Weiner (1972) suggests that achievement-motivated people tend to attribute their successes to their own (internal) efforts and their failures to not trying hard enough. Conversely, those who have a lower need for achievement generally attribute failure to factors outside of their control (external) such as a lack of technical knowledge for a specific task. Success, to this group, is perceived as attributable to luck.

Weiner (1972) developed a simple matrix describing to what individuals proscribe their successes and failures:

1. Their own ability – viewed as stable characteristic and inside oneself
2. Their effort level – viewed as a variable factor, also inside oneself
3. The difficulty of the task – viewed as stable and given, but external to the self
4. Luck – viewed as variable and unstable, also external to the self (p. 356)

	(Locus)		
	<i>Internal</i>	<i>External</i>	
(Stability)			
<i>Stable</i>	Ability	Difficulty	<i>Stable</i>
<i>Variable</i>	Effort	Luck	<i>Variable</i>
	<i>Internal</i>	<i>External</i>	(Stability)
	(Locus)		

Due to the many variables that influence an individual's attributional tendencies, it is difficult to develop a model that can consistently determine how an individual will perceive any given situation (Weiner, 1985). Because these causal points of reference are individualized and vary from one individual to the next, numerous attributions are involved in this framework "including effort, ability, task difficulty, luck, mood, strategy, acts of God, and other explanations related to self, others, and situational events" (Kent & Martinko, 1995, p. 19).

The three causal dimensions of Weiner's (1986) attributional model are locus, stability, and controllability. In this paper, this model will be adapted and used as a basis for examining the perceptions of leadership held by women leaders in institutional advancement.

Locus of control is examined as an internal and an external dimension. Stability is used to determine whether causes change over time. In Weiner's model, ability is seen as a stable and internal cause while effort is classified as unstable and internal. Controllability refers to causes that an individual can control like skill and causes that fall outside the scope of one's control such as aptitude, mood, others' actions, and luck (Turner, Pickering, & Johnson, 1998).

Locus, which relates to internal or external origins of outcomes, primarily affects one's perception of his or her personal capabilities. The second factor of stability is most closely related to expectancy for success. Controllability, the final dimension in Weiner's model, influences social emotions (Martinko, 1995).

According to Weiner's theory, those individuals classified as high achievers will willingly approach tasks, no matter how difficult, because they

inherently believe they have the ability and can produce the effort necessary to achieve a desired outcome. Failure is generally thought to be caused by events beyond their control such as bad luck. Those identified as low achievers will often avoid success-related events because they lack the confidence needed to experience success or they perceive that any success they do achieve is also related to uncontrollable events such as luck. So, even if low achievers do experience success, they don't feel personally responsible for that achievement (Turner, Pickering, & Johnson, 1998). Having a greater awareness of these perceptions may assist in more easily identifying those natural, internally guided leaders, as well as providing structured intervention for those individuals who are low achievers.

Organizational Culture Examined for Structural Barriers to Leadership Success

There is no question that women in organizations encounter multiple challenges when aspiring to positions of leadership, challenges historically not faced by men such as lack of salary parity, exclusion from formal and informal networks, and negative gender stereotyping. Indeed, early attempts to address these power differentials and organizational imbalances were approached in ways that proposed to *fix the women* to better fit the organization and its culture (Ely & Meyerson, 2000). This approach did not address the root cause of the problem. Rather, it reinforced the fact that socialized differences between men and women created inequalities in the workplace that would not be overcome without an understanding that these distinctly *male-gendered* organizations had

to identify and revise oppressive social practices to ensure gender was no longer used as an axis of power (Ely & Meyerson, 2000).

The low representation of women in chief advancement officer (CAO) positions “suggests that most future CAOs will continue to be male unless colleges and universities start doing a better job of identifying and recruiting women chief development officers and grooming them for CAO roles” (Carabelli, 2000, p. 11). The similar lack of representation of minorities in leadership positions suggests another focus area for recruitment and retention.

As the focus sharpens on the disparity of women and minority representation at the highest levels of leadership in institutional advancement, the issues of organizationally created barriers to advancement must be re-examined in an attempt to further level the playing field for men and women.

While there is wide-spread agreement that women encounter more externally-created barriers to leadership than do men, particularly for leader roles that are heavily dominated by men, there seems to be much less agreement about the behavior of women and men when attaining those positions (Eagly & Johannsen-Schmidt, 2001). Even though this lack of access to leadership opportunity has decreased markedly in the last 20 years, the leadership challenge is still prevalent and becoming the focus of more and more research. This includes the fact that, in spite of their qualifications, the informal system of career advancement historically used by men, remains relatively inaccessible to women due to their lack of knowledge or opportunity to enter (Scanlon, 1997).

The increasing number of women in the workforce has provided a greater pool of qualified talent from which to draw our leaders of today. Currently, women make up the majority of the paid labor force in the United States and comprise 56% of all bachelor's degrees awarded (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 2000). In terms of advanced degrees, women hold 45% of master's degrees, earn 42% of PhDs, and possess 43% of all professional school degrees (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 2000).

Unfortunately, as is also reflected in academia, corporate America is not looking to this pipeline as a source for its leaders. Even though women currently make up 50.5% of the managers and administrators in the workforce today (federal government Current Population Survey, 2004), there is nothing close to gender parity in the elite corporate offices. According to Catalyst (2003), a non-profit research organization dedicated to advancing women in business, women represent 15.7% of corporate officers in Fortune 500 companies, and only 8% of the highest ranking corporate officer positions. At the highest levels of leadership, there is still little movement towards parity for women. Currently, there are only eight women leading Fortune 500 companies which equals 1.6% of the total number of chief executive officers at these corporations. If the Fortune 1000 companies are included, the total number of chief executive officers increases to 17 (Fortune, April 14, 2003).

In the three major fields of employment – government, business, and academia – women have, to date, achieved the most success in academia (Fortune, 2003). That good news, however, is presented with a caveat. Even

though 21% of college presidencies are held by women, statistics show that the gains in this area are slowing (Sellers, 2003). The strides made by women to leadership positions in the field of academia, particularly in the area of university advancement, have been relatively modest.

The Catalyst (2003) organization surveyed corporations to gain a better sense of the perceptions related to how women have succeeded and what holds women back from top management positions. The top four reasons given to “how” women have succeeded included: 1) consistently exceeding expectations (69%); 2) successfully managing others (49%); 3) developing a style with which male managers are comfortable (47%); and 4) having a recognized expertise in a specific content area (46%) (Catalyst, 2003). All of these responses indicate a propensity toward evaluating success based on perceptions of external focus areas. The third response, particularly, indicates that women’s success in the corporate realm is predicated, in part, to how “comfortable” their male counterparts are with their managerial style. Women, it would seem, must hope their assumed leadership style fits an appropriate, non-threatening mold or jeopardize even further their chance to advance to higher levels of leadership.

When examining the question of what holds women back from top management, Catalyst (2003) posed the question to women executives as well as CEOs. The responses given by women included some of the challenges previously cited as structural barriers to leadership success including: 1) lack of management experience (47%); 2) exclusion from informal networks of communication (41%); and 3) gender stereotyping and preconceptions of

women's roles and abilities (33%). The responses from the CEOs included: 1) lack of management experience (68%); and 2) lack of management commitment to women's advancement (37%). Both sets of responses indicate an external locus of explanation for lack of advancement by women. That is, the culture of corporate organizations does not appear to provide the necessary organizational structure and framework that would level the playing field and bring women to leadership parity. These responses directly reflect many of the primary components that make up the *glass ceiling* and are generally stable but uncontrollable factors women deal with when trying to advance in an organization (Catalyst, 2003). Overcoming these organizational challenges will require a better understanding of the genesis of organizational culture by both men and women.

Organizational Culture Examined as an External Locus

In recent years, the personality of the organization has become the focus of many leadership studies (Schneider & Smith, 2004). When examining the issue of organizational barriers within a workplace or even within and among groups, Schein's (1965) theory of organizational culture is considered seminal. Although not officially recognized until the mid-1960s as an identifiable condition within the organizational structure, organizational culture has been a key component in shaping attitudes and environments within the workplace.

Culture, like leadership, has a multitude of definitions depending on who you ask and within what organization you are focusing your lens. There is not universal agreement that culture is shared and unique, suggesting that culture

can be examined at organizational, subcultural, and individual levels (Martin, 2002). However, when considering organizational culture in the context of leadership, the literature has relied heavily on questionnaires and studies that exhibit a positivist bias (Alvesson, 2002).

Just as no two fingerprints are alike, neither will two organizational cultures be alike. The influence of leaders, the various personalities of the individual, and the nature of the business itself all combine to create a unique personality or culture. Schein (1985) described these as patterns of collective behavior that are imbued with potency. Similarities abound allowing for generalizations of organizational behavior to be made, but each organization will be somewhat different from the next. These cultures are highly “visible” and “feelable” (Schein, 1985). Culture is “a deep phenomenon, merely manifested in a variety of behavior” (Schein, 1986, p. 30) and is credited with being one of the most powerful and stable forces found in organizations. Stable, in this sense, is used to describe culture as an imbedded fixture within an organization and one not easily or simply changed.

Leadership is a culture influencing activity (Alvesson, 2002). Any organization that has a substantial history will have an associated culture that reflects the basic assumptions that the organization has invented or developed as it learned to deal with challenges associated with external adaptation and internal integration (Schein, 1986). Once this cultural ideal is adopted by the organization, it gains enough validity to be taught to new group members through the socialization process as the correct way to perceive and think (Schein, 1986).

This mindset, therefore, is perpetuated throughout the organization and becomes a distinct part of its personality.

Because of the difficulty in changing the culture, or mindset, of an organization, responses to social and cultural shifts may be slow which can create significant organizational friction. An organization's culture can affect strategy, productivity, integration of new technologies, and socialization (Schein, 1985). This is an unseen yet significantly powerful social force and leaders need to be acutely aware of its presence.

As women began entering the workforce in significant numbers during and after World War II, the existing organizational cultures they encountered created barriers that significantly impeded their progress to higher levels of responsibility. This was not surprising considering the jobs women assumed were those temporarily abandoned by men due to war (Wise & Wise, 1994) and there was little expectation for women to seek such leadership roles. Women's motives for working during this period were financial and patriotic, and many had no choice (Wise & Wise, 1994). Even so, "[o]vernight, Pearl Harbor changed the Depression caricature of women workers as evil job stealers" (Scalander, 1983, p. 95). This mindset continued after the war when, by mid-1944, one of every three members of the labor force was a woman (Scalander, 1983).

Following the war, women workers did not return to their kitchens but these organizational barriers remained and were responsible for impeding the progress of women to any sort of leadership position within the organization. Although frustrating, this is not particularly surprising given there was never a

federal plan to assimilate women into the workforce (Scalander, 1983) and the social practices within organizations tended to only reflect men's life experiences because they were created largely by men for other men (Ely & Meyerson, 2000). Hence, the organizational culture of most organizations had a decidedly masculine overtone.

Historically, most jobs have been "sex-typed" and defined as feminine or masculine (Alvesson, 2002). The natural tendency toward filling those jobs has fallen along defined gender lines. Even though there is now a greater awareness of such practices, the traditional gendered social order has grown and continues to be shaped out the conditions that characterize men's lives rather than women's lives. These "unquestioned work practices support deeply entrenched divisions and disparities between men and women, often in subtle and insidious ways" (Ely & Meyerson, 2000, p. 104-105).

The study of organizational culture has only very recently begun to examine the concepts of gender influences on the group dynamic within an organization (Powell, Butterfield, & Parent, 2002; Manning & Curtis, 2003; Fletcher, 2005; and Haas & Hwang, 2007). Schein and other social scientists present their work in a gender-neutral manner. This approach does not address the challenges of applying gender-neutral policies into an existing gendered setting. Aaltio and Mills (2002), however, have applied a gendered orientation to their studies of organizational culture in an attempt to offer new insights into breaking down the organizational barriers to women's advancement. Additionally, Ely and Meyerson (2000) have formulated a new approach to solving the

problem of gender inequity in organizations by suggesting that gender be viewed not as an individual characteristic or basis for discrimination, but rather as a complex set of social relations that can be enacted internally and externally across a broad spectrum of organizational practices.

Organizational culture as a barrier to leadership success is a very real challenge for women. Studies show a connection in the cross-cultural relationship between an organization's acknowledged culture and the advancement of women into positions of leadership within the organization (Bajdo and Dickson, 2001). This is due, in part, to the inherent associations to gender and sexuality as pervasive aspects of organizational life (Boonstra, 2004). "Rather than challenging these taken-for-granted assumptions, the gender bias inherent in the study of organization has helped preserve the status quo" (Boonstra, 2004, p. 355). Maintaining the status quo justifies the existing social order and negatively impacts members of disadvantaged groups through a non-conscious internalization of inferiority (Jost, Banaji & Nosek, 2004).

As would be expected, in cultures that are predominantly shaped by men, leadership styles will place more emphasis on a leader-follower hierarchy and top-down communication (Beasley, 2005; Macklem, 2003; Stelter, 2002; Helms-Mills & Mills, 2000; Connelly & Rhoton, 1988). Conversely, in cultures where women's influence is widespread, there is a greater likelihood that a greater emphasis will be placed on interpersonal relationships and shared power (Beasley, 2005; Kimmel, 2004; Stelter, 2002; Connelly & Rhoton, 1988). In organizations values of high humane orientation and high gender equity were

shared, high percentages of women in leadership positions are also found (Bajdo & Dickson, 2001). The greater the balance or prevalence of these conditions, the more likely it is to find women in leadership roles.

Some of the barriers that exist for women in achieving leadership are found under the umbrella of the theory of the glass ceiling. The glass ceiling is a metaphor used to describe the invisible and seemingly unexplainable barriers to organizational advancement, particularly in regard to advancement into leadership positions. The glass ceiling theory incorporates barriers that include gender stereotyping, lack of appropriate role models, lack of mentoring and exclusion from informal networks, and commitment to family or personal responsibilities rather than the organization. Carli & Eagly (2001) describe the glass ceiling as a metaphor for prejudice and discrimination. Still others have described the glass ceiling as “a barrier not only to individuals to society as a whole” citing that this organizational roadblock “reduces the potential pool of corporate leaders by ignoring, or worse, discriminating against over one-half the populations” (Alex, 2003).

Some theories suggest that the existence of a glass ceiling is dependent upon whether promotion decisions for leadership positions within an organization favor white and/or male applicants simply because of their race or gender. It is thought that personal characteristics of the decision makers (i.e., their race and gender) may knowingly or unknowingly influence their decisions of the promotion of others (Butterfield & Powell, 2002). Another important element that reinforces

the glass ceiling is the informal effort by men to restore or retain the all-male atmosphere of the corporate hierarchy (Kimmel, 2004).

The combination of organizational and cultural barriers that comprise the glass ceiling are multiple and still emerging. These barriers are of the organization itself. In other words, they are born and nurtured by the historic culture of the organization and are external, or outside the control or influences of the individual. Three significant and generally accepted components within an organizational setting include: 1) lack of management (read: leadership) commitment to establish formal policies, procedures, and practices for workplace advancement; 2) salary disparities for equal work; and 3) gender stereotyping (Alex, 2003). These barriers are historically recognized as traditional impediments to women seeking positions of leadership. From an attribution theory perspective, they have an external orientation. That is, these are challenges that can be described as developing within the organization and not within the control of the individual.

Organizational Culture Manifested in Lack of Management Commitment

This lack of attention to developing a level playing field for all employees in their pursuit of leadership opportunities is a clear leadership deficiency. There are many reasons cited for this failure but what is clear is the demand for leaders is expanding at a much faster rate than our ability to produce them (Schmidt, 2001). This issue is becoming an area demanding critical examination if we are to ensure a broad enough talent pool exists to fill these coming leadership gaps.

Studies show that the traditional executive talent pool of individuals aged 35 to 44 will drop by 15% from now until 2015 (Schmidt, 2001) but the number of women qualified for leadership roles will actually increase (Stetler, 2002). This means that identification and development of new female leaders will demand a much higher level of involvement by current leaders in terms of identifying, cultivating, and including burgeoning talent to effectively assume positions of leadership. In addition to a more pronounced femininity, these future leaders will represent an unprecedented level of ethnic and cultural diversity (Stetler, 2002).

Adding to this challenge is a tradition of executives by-passing traditional human resources expertise in the new leader identification process because of perceptions that the personnel professionals offered selection models *for the masses* and the executives on models for the *elite and unique* (Schmidt, 2001). Therefore, when new leaders are selected success may be hard to find. In the corporate world, 30% to 50% of CEOs fail because they were selected due to perceived qualifications rather than actual skill sets associated with an effective leader (Schmidt, 2001).

Increasing management commitment in the cultivation of leaders is critical and requires a change for the majority of our current leaders. Historically, the traditional hierarchical structure clearly delineated the superior-subordinate relationship. With that structure also came an awareness of the power inequities in the leader-follower dynamic. Even in non-transactional leadership constructs such as transformational leadership, power (and, indeed, the perception of power) has been a significant component in propagating the power inequity

equation. This has been the status-quo leadership construct and maintains a primary position within many traditional organizations.

Recently, there has been an increased focus on mentorship programs as internal leadership training opportunities to assist in preparing women and minorities to assume future leadership positions within education. “However, there have been relatively few published descriptions of research related to the structure, implementation, evaluations or outcomes of mentoring programs designed to enhance the professional development of educational leaders” (Daresh, 1995, p. 8).

Paula Carabelli (2000), a senior vice president with an executive search firm specializing in education, also addresses the issue of minority representation in institutional advancement leadership:

Similarly, the low proportion of minorities in leadership posts in the various advancement disciplines suggests that colleges and universities should also begin stepping up their efforts toward achieving greater diversity in advancement executive roles. To enhance diversity recruiting, leaders must take responsibility for mentoring underrepresented groups and ensure that women and minorities have access to the opportunity pipeline that leads to executive leadership roles (p. 12).

Mentoring has been recognized as an effective way to assist a protégé in gaining the inside track for professional advancement opportunities (Johnson, 2006). A mentor is described as anyone who provides guidance, support, knowledge and opportunity for a protégé during periods of need (Burlew, 1991).

The issue of mentoring as an influential component for leadership advancement for women is critical for women, particularly in regard to accessing the formal and informal mentoring networks within the organization. While it is understood that more empirical research needs to be conducted, perceptions of mentoring effectiveness between the sexes and across ethnic groups is a relatively unexamined area of study in the literature. In investigating this question within the structure of a university advancement operation, the literature is silent.

Leadership within any organization will not feel compelled to change unless they perceive a real need to do so. That change is predicted and coming. Leadership can no longer remain a largely homogenous composition of mainly white males otherwise there will be little opportunity to introduce, with any compelling argument, the need for substantive changes to policy. The awareness simply will not be there because the representative voices – the change agents – will be excluded.

Organizational Culture Manifested in Salary Disparities

Demands for equal pay for equal work began in earnest in the early 1950s and continued with the formation in 1961 of the Kennedy Commission on the Status of Women (Scalander, 1983). Until the passage of The Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972, employers were allowed to refuse to hire women for occupations they deemed “unsuitable” and were unchallenged if they decided to fire women if they became pregnant (American Association of University Women in Educational Foundation, 2005). In 1991, Congress established the Glass Ceiling Commission which was charged,

among other things, with examining the equal pay for equal work issue (Kimmel, 2004).

A significant organizational hurdle has been the pervasive inequities associated with salary compensation between men and women. Although much work and effort has been put forth by women to rectify this blatant inequality, they consistently face overt or subtle (read: institutionalized) opposition. Often, the work that women do is genderized and, as a result, is “overloaded, undervalued, and often invisible when it comes to compensation” (Needleman & Nelson, 1988, p. 295). These factors speak, in large part, to the culture of the organization (Fortier & Fusco, 2002). Unfortunately, this aspect of the organization is slow in changing, continuing to relegate women to positions of inequality.

Because of the significant number of American women taking jobs in the war industries during World War II, the National War Labor Board urged employers in 1942 to voluntarily make "adjustments which equalize wage or salary rates paid to females with the rates paid to males for comparable quality and quantity of work on the same or similar operations." (NWLB press release, 1943). Unfortunately, few chose to adopt these volunteer guidelines. That changed when federal legislation was passed to force salary equity. The 1963 Equal Pay Act made it illegal to pay women less for the same job strictly on the basis of their sex. This federal law and the continued growth of women into the workforce have steadily reduced wage discrimination, but it still exists and it still acts as a significant barrier to economic progress.

Two landmark court cases in the following decade served to strengthen and further define the Equal Pay Act: *Schultz v. Wheaton Glass Company* in 1970; and *Corning Glass Works v. Brennan* in 1974. (Peters, 1999). In the *Schultz v. Wheaton* case, U.S. Court of Appeals for the Third Circuit ruled that jobs need to be *substantially equal* but not *identical* to fall under the protection of the Equal Pay Act. This prohibited employers from changing the job titles of female workers in order to pay them less than male workers. In *Corning Glass Works v. Brennan*, the U.S. Supreme Court ruled that employers cannot justify paying women lower wages because that is what they traditionally received under the *going market rate*. A wage differential occurring because men refused to work for the low wages paid women was unacceptable (Peters, 1999).

The blatant discrimination apparent in these court cases seems archaic today, and the workplace has changed radically in the decades since the passage of the Equal Pay Act. But what has not changed radically enough, however, is women's pay. Even though women have made strides in the past two decades in shortening the distance between the salary gap, the gap itself is still significant. Women are gaining advanced degrees at the highest levels ever, yet they still face very real salary hurdles. Women earned 59% of the wages men earned in 1963; in 2005 they earned 81% of men's wages—an improvement of about half a penny per dollar earned every year (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2002). As alarming as that figure is, it represents a marked increase from 1979 when the ratio was 62.5 cents to every dollar.

Interestingly, new studies are emerging indicating that when considering the same job there exist little disparities in salary between men and women until marriage and children affect salary factors such as tenure, education level and hours per week worked (Eagly & Johannsen-Schmidt, 2001). This may be related to the inherent gender systems and associated interaction networks among men and women. That is, who is speaking with whom and in what position within the organization. This gender system requires a shared cultural belief that confirms perceived differences between men and women resulting in male power and privilege (Ridgeway & Smith-Lovin, 2002). It seems that the universal acceptance of these roles has been a significant hindrance to women seeking leadership positions.

The networks of male-female interaction shift and change substantially as men and women shift and change into their generally accepted social roles and positions. For example, young, single men and women have very similar patterns of interaction and their networks, too, are very similar (Ridgeway & Smith-Lovin, 2002). In fact, there is no significant difference in wages between male and female childless full-time workers between the ages of 21-35 (Hattiangadi, 2003). When marriage and family enter the picture, these networks shift to the more traditional male-dominated role structure and the associated interaction networks shift as well. Although men and women still interact frequently at this point, only a small percentage of these interactions occur between men and women who, “except for gender, are otherwise peers in the power and status associated with their social roles and positions” (Ridgeway & Smith-Lovin, 1999, p. 191).

In fact, the skill level of women and their educational attainment are *not* considered important factors in the gender pay gap by both sexes. Rather, employers' perceptions of women's family commitments play a significant role in salary disparities.

“Over half (56%) of Americans include employers' unwillingness to promote young women because they may leave when they have children as either the first (29%) or second (27%) most important reason for the pay gap. About 41% say that it is because women prioritize family over career: 23% felt it was the most important factor, and 18% thought it was the second most important factor.

An identical number (41%) say it is because employers discriminate against women in their hiring and promotion practices: 21% chose this as the most important factor, and 20% chose it as the second most important factor. About one-fifth of Americans (28%) chose gender differences in negotiation and assertiveness as a leading factor: 11% chose this as the most important factor, and 17% chose it as the second most important factor. Only 12% of adults believe there is a pay gap because we are more likely to have the education and skills needed for higher paying jobs: 4% chose this as the most important factor, and 8% chose it as the second most important factor” (American Association of University Women Educational Foundation, p. 3, 2005).

Women, themselves, may unknowingly play a larger role in the wage gap than they realize. Negotiation skills of women, or lack thereof, have been cited by economists as an influencing factor in salary disparities. A study by Babcock and Laschever (2003) found that starting salaries for male college graduates were approximately 7% higher than their equally educated female counterparts. The study found that only 7% of women actively negotiated their salary package compared to 57% of men. The authors attributed this to differences in cultural norms in that what is viewed as assertiveness in men may be perceived as aggressiveness in women.

The issue of salary inequity must be addressed. Salary disparities are often masked through application of varying descriptions of the same job to more financially favor the male employee. So long as it appears that it is the attribute of the position rather than the gender of the person doing the job, salary inequalities will remain largely invisible (Kimmel, 2002). Until this very real wage gap is closed, women will be forced to grapple with an issue that is perhaps the single biggest indicator of worth and value to an organization. If the organization considers women are not of comparable worth to their male counterparts, the message being sent throughout the organization can be summed up in the words of George Orwell (1945) in *Animal Farm*, "All animals are equal, but some animals are more equal than others" (p. 112).

Organizational Culture and Gender Stereotyping

The glass ceiling is viewed as a consequence of stereotypes and the expectations about what women and minorities are like and how they should

behave (Heilman, 2001). Clearly, gender has a substantial impact in discussions of differences apparent in traditional leadership styles. These differences may be “consequential because they are one factor that may affect people’s views about whether women should become leaders and advance to higher positions in organizational hierarchies” (Eagly, 2001, p. 3).

The defined qualities and generally accepted components of leadership are gender neutral because leadership in and of itself is not a trait. Leadership and the ability to lead is a complex construct (Martell and DeSmet, 2001). However, within the realm of leadership, women have historically had more difficulty accessing top positions because of a number of social or gender-based challenges that could negatively affect self-efficacy levels and leadership opportunities.

Gender stereotyping is one such issue. These are categorical beliefs that traits and characteristics are definitively masculine or feminine in nature, and that they act as indicators of expected abilities of men or women as members of their gender groups (Martell and DeSmet, 2001). The workplace cultures have done little to eliminate the gender bias in leadership. For men, being competent, aggressive, and ambitious in the workplace may be seen as gender confirming and gender conforming (Kimmel, 2004). When applied to women, these traits may be considered gender nonconforming and, therefore, disconfirming and, ultimately, undermining to male leaders within an organization (Kimmel, 2004). If examining the inequality of gender as the dominance of men over women, then this should be recognized as one of the sources of gender stereotypes rather

than one of its consequences (Macklem, 2003). Further defining these explanations has positive implications for the organization that seeks to successfully select and develop a diverse set of leaders for an equally diversified workforce, (Stetler, 2002).

Sex roles have been defined as a set of behavior and characteristics that are associated with each gender (Connell, 1987). Sex role stereotypes are widely held beliefs about those behaviors and characteristics (Singleton, 1987). Many believe that sex stereotyping is the result of innate differences between men and women. Others are of the school of thought that sex roles are the product of the society in which we live (particularly Western society) and then are perpetuated by that same culture. These biological and sociocultural theories may each have some points that merit attention, but each also has to be examined closely for inconsistencies in theory.

Leaders of organizations, however, have to be aware of the inherent dangers of stereotyping by gender. As Goleman (1994) stated, “those in positions of authority play a pivotal role: their failure to condemn acts of bias sends the tacit message that such acts are okay. Following through with action such as a reprimand sends a powerful message that bias is not trivial, but has real – and negative – consequences” (p.158).

These glass ceiling barriers are all external in nature. That is, women affected by these barriers historically have had no ability to easily remove them in order to open access to leadership opportunities. The power has always been in someone else’s hands. Recent research suggests that there are many internal

barriers intrinsic to women that must be overcome, as well, in order to achieve optimal opportunities for leadership. McCormick, Tanguma, and Lopez-Forment (2003) introduce using self-efficacy as a framework for a causal model that tests factors that are thought to contribute to the glass ceiling challenge.

Because of the impending influx of even greater numbers of women into the workforce, organizations must reestablish and expand their notions of what constitutes effective leadership as it relates to gender, stereotyping, and role expectations. These efforts are supported by the estimate that women will outnumber men in management roles by the year 2030 as more women are earning Bachelor level degrees and participating in graduate level educational programs (Girion, 2001).

The prevalence of gender inequity in leadership is a challenge reflected across the board and not just limited to institutions of higher education. The number of women attending institutions of higher education has significantly risen each year since the 1960s (Scanlon, 1997). Even though women are better educated today than at any other time in history, very little change has taken place in terms of women holding the most powerful leadership positions in organizations (Carli & Eagly, 2001).

In order to affect representative change within university advancement operations, it is vital that the current make up of leadership be evaluated to include a better gender and ethnic balance. As more women and minorities represent greater proportions of the enrolled student populations at colleges and

universities, the need for a greater involvement of these historically underrepresented groups in positions of leadership gains greater importance.

More women than men are entering the field of university advancement, but more men than women occupy higher positions with higher salaries, and there is a notable gender gap in salary for similar positions (Netherton, 2002). A survey conducted by the Association of Fundraising Professionals investigated gender inequity in salary and benefit trends. It reported 25% of men earn annual salaries of \$90,000 or more compared with just 8% of women (Chobot, 2000). The survey was a stratified sample of 2,026 AFP members from the Northeast, Southeast, North Central, South Central, Northwest, and Southwest regions of the United States.

A similar survey conducted by the College and University Personnel Association showed that “even though median salaries for chief development officers at colleges and universities rose by nearly 5% last year, to \$83,941” (Greene, 1999, p. 27), men generally earned more than women who held the same job. The data was collected on 174 positions at 1,456 public and private institutions of higher education.

The Council for Advancement and Support of Education (CASE) completed a comprehensive salary survey in 2002 that also examined salary disparities between women and men in the advancement profession. The analysis of those survey results shows that “women are paid less than men in virtually every one of the more than 50 specific advancement functions identified in the survey” (CASE, 2003). Gender played a significant role in salary disparity

with women two to three times more likely to earn less than men in comparable categories. The data was collected from 10,000 university advancement professionals at schools, colleges and universities across the U.S. There are 3,264 professional institutions and affiliates of CASE. The professional membership equals 21,930.

As the demand for qualified fundraising professionals continues to grow and the market for recruitment of qualified professionals with significant experience tightens, the current university advancement leaders must begin looking inward for the next generation of leadership. In addition to providing a framework for examination of the current perceptions of the external barriers faced by today's development professionals, this study will also provide an examination of the perceived internal barriers that must be overcome to affect leadership change and development. These internal barriers may be examined through the theory of self-efficacy.

Self-Efficacy Theory Examined as an Internal Locus

There are many issues at play in the suppression of women's advancement into leadership positions that are distinctly internal in their origins. One of those is self-confidence. Why a leader's self-confidence is important and how it affects leader behaviors and reactions to the leadership context has not been extensively investigated. Bennis and Nanus (1985) remarked: "It is not at all clear how it is acquired" (p.68).

Specifically, the issue of self-efficacy and how self-efficacy is shaped are issues that need to be closely examined to determine its influence on leadership

success for women. Self-efficacy is defined as the perception one holds of his or her own capability to accomplish a particular task or perform at a particular level (Bandura, 1994). It is the personal judgment of our abilities to successfully accomplish a particular task and would, therefore, be considered a significant variable to consider when examining issues and perceptions related to leadership success.

A more detailed and organizationally pertinent extension of self-confidence, Bandura (1994) contends that there are four sources of self-efficacy, each source having a very positive and negative side. These sources are: 1) mastery of experiences; 2) vicarious experiences provided by social models; 3) social persuasion; and 4) reducing stress reactions and altering negative emotional proclivities.

Self-efficacy expectations are postulated to influence behavioral choices, performance, and persistence. Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory suggests that leadership self-efficacy is a key cognitive variable regulating leader functioning in a dynamic environment" (McCormick, 2001). "Self-efficacy expectancy is presumed to have the most powerful influence on both the initiation of a behavior and persistence in the face of frustration or failure" (Maddux & Stanley, 1986, p. 250).

Leaders are presumed to possess a skill set that enables them to act in ways that contribute to the success of their organization, and that they benefit from the status and position that accompanies each success (Martell & DeSmet, 2001). Self-efficacy plays a major role in leader effectiveness. It is an emergent

area of leadership study and provides a new dimension to the analysis of why men continue to dominate at the upper-echelons of organizational leadership. Self-efficacy suggests that internal barriers have an impact on one's ability or perceived ability to become a successful leader.

Shifting cultures from traditional hierarchical to more team-based structures may help in generating more opportunities for women to assume positions of leadership. A greater concentration of women in leader roles will presume a mastery of experiences, will generate increased opportunities for leader role models, will create a palpable and visual image of success, and may reverse some long-standing and historic negative emotional states.

However, in social cognitive theory, perceived self-efficacy is only one of many determinants of human motivation and action (Bandura, 1990). *Leadership* self-efficacy is defined as one's self-perceived capability to perform the cognitive and behavioral functions necessary to regulate group process in relation to goal achievement. Put another way, leadership self-efficacy is a person's confidence in his or her ability to successfully lead a group (McCormick, 2001).

The self-efficacy model suggests that high levels of self-efficacy will lead individuals to set challenging goals, persist in the face of obstacles, work harder on tasks, direct cognitive and behavioral resources toward goal relevant actions, and actively search for effective task strategies. The model has been tested extensively and has been successfully used to predict and explain performance for both simple and complex tasks (McCormick, 2001). "Performance experiences – in particular, clear success or failure experiences – exert the most

powerful influence on self-efficacy expectancies” (Maddux and Stanley, p. 250).

Under this model, managerial leaders who are confident of their leadership capabilities will select higher goals and deploy their skills and efforts more effectively than those beset by self-doubt.

Second, the social cognitive model of leadership has relevance to leadership training since it proposes that for someone to be successful in a leadership role, he or she must have a healthy sense of personal effectiveness as a leader. This implies that enhancing leadership self-efficacy should be an important objective for those responsible for improving the quality of leadership in organizations. Leadership training designers have not yet focused on the leadership self-efficacy construct as a means to improve the quality of leadership in organizations. (Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002; Judge & Bono, 2001; McCormick, 2001; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998)

Leadership: A Question of Nature or Nurture?

Are leaders born or made? The question of what makes a successful leader has been discussed for millennia and researched extensively. Warren Bennis (2003) states that leaders are made rather than born. “The most dangerous leadership myth is that leaders are –born—that there is a genetic factor to leadership. This myth asserts that people simply either have certain charismatic qualities or not.” However, there are studies emerging that closely examine the link between genetics and leadership which are finding veracity in scientific testing.

Leaders possess a specific set of abilities that enable them to act in ways that contribute to the success of their organization (Martell & DeSmet, 2001). The term “natural leader” has often been heard when discussing the success of a particular leader within an organization. Some would suggest that this natural tendency is a hereditary trait possessed by some and not by others.

Inherited trait characteristics identified as important for leadership were first mentioned by Sir Francis Galton in his 1860 book, *Hereditary Genius* (Gibson & Marcoulides, 1995). Galton believed that leader qualities were genetic characteristics of a family and were, therefore, transferred from one generation to the next. This leadership theory placed considerable emphasis on characteristics which might distinguish leaders from followers across a variety of situations. Stodgill expanded upon this research thread but found that no particular set of traits possessed by one leader would differentiate them from another leader because leadership is not an inherent quality but rather it is a relationship among people in a variety of situations (Northouse, 2001).

More recently, however, studies have been conducted that suggest a correlation between inherited genetic characteristics and leadership. For many years, a number of constructs and predictors have been suggested as determinants of leadership including intelligence, personality, expressed values, and genetic factors (Arvey, Rotundo, Johnson, Zhanga, & McGuea, 2006). Current research indicates that variables such as these may be instrumental in predicting leadership criteria (Arvey, Rotundo, Johnson, Zhanga, & McGuea, 2006).

This study on 646 twin males was interesting in that the research findings clearly indicated that genetic factors influence the personality, cognitive, and leadership factors, confirming earlier research that showed the genetic influences on personality and cognitive factors. The authors noted, however, that even though genetic influences accounted for a significant leadership variance in the study, environmental factors were also very important in determining leadership. The authors question the “born or made” argument when examining the question of leadership. They contend that leadership is derived both from the environment and an individual’s genetic make-up – not one or the other. (Arvey, Rotundo, Johnson, Zhanga, & McGuea, 2006). How women were influenced could not be determined as they were not included as subjects in this research study. Other limitations included a limited age range of respondents and small sample size leaving the research door open for additional examination of this hypothesis.

Women, Self-Efficacy, and Leadership Effectiveness

Historically, the feminization of professions has a tendency to contribute to the marginalization of their importance. For example, secretarial, nursing, and teaching professions are greatly feminized (Wharton, 2004). Increases in the feminization of the teaching profession, for instance, may signal that this professional career has become less attractive to men because of greater potential earnings or status in other comparable professions. This occupational segregation has been cited as the largest contributor to the gender pay gap (Boraas and Rodgers, 2003), and has been found that it necessitates the need to change jobs in order to eradicate salary disparities between men and women

(National Women's Law Center, 2000). Often, women choose certain occupations because of the demands placed on them to balance home, family, and work responsibilities. This reflects more an absence of opportunity and not necessarily the exercise of choice (Needleman & Nelson, 1988). Unfortunately, when these occupations or professions become feminized, what often follows is a deterioration of salaries, conditions, and the opportunities for real leadership (Wiley, 2000). This is apparent among university advancement professions. For those who hold top leadership positions in the advancement profession, "men are one and a half times more likely than women to earn between \$100,000 - \$120,000 (17.4% vs. 11.1%), two and a half times more likely to earn between \$120,001 - \$140,000 (12.9% vs. 4.7%), and nearly four times more likely than women to earn more than \$140,000 (15.9% vs. 4.1%)" (Netherton, 2002, p. 16).

Interestingly enough, once women attain parity in positions of leadership, the perceived gap in the effectiveness of women as leaders lessens (Eagly, 2001). There are so many variables to the formula of effective leadership that it is impossible to affect a global formula to uniquely local situations that call for leadership. Comparing leadership effectiveness between women and men, therefore, can be a significant challenge. There is no question, however, that leadership is involved as a part of the core of organizational activity, while other roles can be considered as part of the periphery or boundary roles. Often times this "spatial" distance between the core and the periphery in organizational structuring and in leadership accentuates the existing divisions between men and women (Hearn & Parkin, 1986).

Kanter's (1975) analysis of the distribution of power within organizations was a central issue in determining the distribution of work attitudes and behavior, including leadership, between women and men. The location of a person in the organizational structure is seen more as a significant determinant of leadership behavior than sex differences (Hearn & Parkin, 1986). The spatial distance between the top leadership positions in university advancement (which are dominated by male leadership) and the lower level positions in the profession (which are more heavily populated by female professionals) is worth examining to determine if Kanter's supposition of leadership behavior holds true for this profession.

Leadership: Differences Between Men and Women

The study of leadership has gained significant attention in the last 20 years. Theories that help explain leadership styles, leadership cultures, and leadership trends proliferate the literature (Margerison & McCann, 1985; Covey, 1989; Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Fairhurst & Sarr, 1996; Earley & Mosakowski, 2004). In recent years, transactional and transformational leadership theories have garnered a substantial amount of attention, particularly as they related to generally accepted leadership style differences between men and women.

As more women successfully gain positions of leadership in organizations that traditionally have been led by men, more differences in leadership styles have emerged. "The idea that women might hold such positions and the suspicion that they might exercise power somewhat differently than men no longer seems as alarming to people as in the past" (Carli & Eagly, 2001, p. 630).

This understanding has created a new willingness by people to accept the idea that different leadership styles might be better or at least not worse than what has been the historic norm (Carli & Eagly, 2001). New social science research is suggesting that long-held perceptions of substantive differences between men and women in leadership positions may, in fact, be erroneous.

Currently, the general perception is that the differences in leadership center on women's natural inclination to be less hierarchical, more cooperative and collaborative, and more focused on enhancing others' self-worth. If you were to describe it in terms of broad leadership theory, women would perhaps be described as more transformational in nature and men more transactional. Eagly (2001) contends that agentic and communal attributes that are generally ascribed to gender have particular influence on leadership. Agentic behavior – described as assertive, controlling and confident – is often associated with men and, historically, with traditional leadership qualities. Women, on the other hand, are more often identified as having communal tendencies in their interactions -- affectionate, helpful, kind, sympathetic, sensitive, etc (Eagly, 2001). This marked difference in behavioral attributes has the potential to create a dichotomous challenge for women in their quest to assume leadership positions without having to give up fundamental components of their behavior.

However, gender alone does not necessarily indicate a predilection toward a particular communication or leadership style. Whether a person chooses to adopt an agentic or communal or even androgynous gender role self-perception is thought to result primarily from socialization (Bandura, 1986; Eagly, 1987).

Kirtley and Weaver (1999) suggest that males are not necessarily socialized to be assertive and domineering, and, likewise, not all females will conform to the stereotype of being labeled passive and dependent. "By leaving sex-differences confounded with gender role self-perceptions, critical information about differences between individuals is lost and the emerging picture of variations in communication styles can become clouded"(p. 190).

As women attempt to accommodate their behavior to what they think is an organizationally or socially acceptable form of leadership, they may still develop leadership styles that differ from those of men. So, in effect, in trying to foster leadership behavior that is reflective of men, women will still vary due to their inherent gender roles and the socialization that accompanies it. The challenge may always exist "because there is often inconsistency between the predominately communal qualities that perceivers associate with women and the predominantly agentic qualities that they believe are required to succeed as a leader" (Eagly, 2001, p. 8). With the increasing number of women occupying positions of leadership, however, social scientists are now building a body of knowledge that is beginning to show minimal differences between male and female leadership styles once a position of leadership is reached.

In broad terms, female and male leaders have been, historically, often pigeon-holed as having specifically defined leadership roles that were related (however erroneously) to their gender such as democratic versus a more masculine autocratic, participative versus directive, and transformational versus transactional. Recent studies, however, indicate that when evaluating the

leadership role, men and women demonstrate increased similarities in the same role (Eagly, 2001).

The slight differentiations in style may be influenced by historic gender roles, organizational behavior and/or organizational culture, topics covered previously in this paper. These perceived differences – however slight they might be at the top leadership levels – tend to create prejudices and barriers toward females as leaders. Weaver et al. (1993) found that regardless of sex individuals who reported a proclivity toward agentic gender role orientation were confident and comfortable when engaging in public, small group, and interpersonal communication situations. In contrast, individuals oriented primarily toward the communal gender role expressed distress and apprehension at the possibility of facing such circumstances.

Cultural and socialization influences must be examined to better understand the leadership differences between the genders in greater detail. The area of university advancement will be specifically examined as a focal point in an attempt to demystify the reasons why women (who represent the majority of employed professionals in the field) hold fewer positions of leadership than do men in this area using gender role theory, expectancy states theory, and social role theory as influencing factors.

Leadership Influences: Gender Role, Expectancy States, and Social Role Theories

Because of their sheer numbers within the workforce, it follows that women will have to be chosen at some point to assume a greater number of

management roles within organizations. This supposition should provide the impetus for current leadership to examine the internal and external barriers that exist for women seeking advancement. The organizational culture of organizations will have to be re-examined, re-evaluated, and revised to accommodate this gender-based power shift. This may present a challenge as individuals and organizations are now embracing the notion that expected behavior is not necessarily perceived by men and women in the same light.

Eliminating stereotypes and embracing a more diverse leadership mindset is a challenge in any organizational environment. It requires a culture change throughout the organization and is not easily achieved. Presumptions about the insufficient ability of women to assume positions of leadership have been especially difficult to overcome. The significant lack of women at top positions in organizations is a clear indication that this hurdle has yet to be cleared. Overcoming established gender, social, and cultural mindsets will be necessary by both sexes to ensure a greater understanding of why women continue to lag behind men in achieving leadership success.

Gender Role Theory

Gender as a defining characteristic of leadership has long been considered an important variable when examining questions of leadership. What social scientists have grappled with is how big a variable gender actually is. When attempting to control the factors that affect sex differences, Eagly (1987) contends that gender roles are germane because those “roles cannot be ruled out by investigators’ efforts to hold constant all contemporaneous factors other

than the fact of being female or male” (p. 12). Simply understanding that gender can impact leadership success has not, to this point, necessarily ensured that gender will be considered a neutral variable in the process. The fact is that women still are tasked with managing the domestic and emotional work of the home while men still command higher paying workplace jobs (Delamont, 2001).

Questions about why this challenge continues to exist may be traced to inherent assumptions held by both men and women. Historically, women have been expected to find fulfillment as mothers and wives and have generally been subordinate to men through social, economic or religious means (Russo, 1993). In other words, women have always done “women’s” work and they have left the men to handle the more difficult work of leading and managing. This is not a western phenomenon by any means. The consistency of these gender roles in locations throughout the industrialized world owes much to the way gender has developed “both as a product of and in the perpetuation of relations of power in the world of laboring women and men” (Frader, 2004, p. 46).

Assuming roles that transcend the defined gender affiliation has the potential to create organizational dissonance and social confusion. Women may not apply for “male” jobs due to having been socialized to not desire those jobs or by being conditioned to believe they do not have the skills necessary to be successful in those positions (Scott & Creighton, 1998). Additionally, women may also harbor a fear that the selection process may also work against them. The factors which affect the selection and promotion of women within an organization extend beyond the control of the human relations office such as the prevailing

social structure, the reinforcement of gender roles in schools, home, the media, and the current attitudes of the nation (Scott & Creighton, 1998).

Eagly's (1987) gender role theory focuses on the shared expectations for men to presume an agentic, or task-oriented, stance and for women to exhibit qualities more communal in nature. "Men tend to engage in a style that is hierarchical, competitive, forceful, and concerned with one-upmanship. In comparison, women are viewed as self-deprecating, conciliatory and indirect" (Scott & Creighton, 1998, p. 154). Put another way, men are expected to be transactional in nature, while women are expected to be more transformational in style. These differences may emerge more strongly under some conditions and less strongly under others depending on the culture of the organization or the socialization of the individual (Vogel, Wester, Heesacker, & Madon, 2003).

Gender role theory suggests that "when men and women act upon these shared expectations they selectively reinforce male participation and leadership emergence in task-oriented groups" (Harrod, Sapp & Zhao, 1996, p. 65). Therefore, men will most often emerge as the preferred leaders because both genders have been socialized to expect that it will be the men who assume positions of leadership within a task group. Women have not been their best advocates in the quest for leadership. Schein (1994) documents that *both* male and female managers have had a historic tendency to associate leadership with characteristics that are decidedly masculine. This deference reinforces the predominance of a male gendered culture in the workplace, maintains the male

majority in power roles, and further supports the male communication pattern as the preferred style of discourse (Scott & Creighton, 1998).

Transforming the perception that gender roles are always aligned in a dominant/submissive or leader/follower pattern will require a continued focus on leadership development and the elimination of generations of pre-conceived notions of what constitutes a successful leader. This will require men and women to transcend what has been expected of them and to, instead, embrace what is right.

Expectancy States Theory

Doing what is expected of us as leaders helps maintain the equilibrium within the organization. As long as everyone is doing what is socially and culturally anticipated of them, harmony and balance is much easier to maintain. The status quo remains undisturbed. Merton (1957) stated that this conformity is the result of a utilitarian calculus on the part of the organization or unreasoned conditioning within the greater society. When the perceptions held by those in leadership positions about how individuals *ought* to behave are demonstrably different from how those individuals *actually* behave, a certain cognitive dissonance emerges that has the potential to create challenges and limit potential for advancement. Not surprisingly, this expectation, historically, created entrenched inequities that subsequently caused disharmony and imbalance in the organizational hierarchy as women sought to assert themselves more forcefully into the leadership structure.

Expectancy states theory provides one example of explaining why perceptions of leadership abilities between men and women have historically differed. Gender becomes a factor when it alone is used as a means of differentiation or is culturally linked to a specific task (Ridgeway & Smith-Lovin, 2002). Wagner and Berger (1997) argue that in expectancy states theory gender is a significant factor embedded within social hierarchy and leadership because “the rules for the gender system that are encoded in gender stereotypes contain status beliefs at their core” (Ridgeway, 2001). These gender stereotypes have historically been negatively weighted when considering women’s roles in leadership. “As compared with gender role theory, which relies upon shared expectations based upon normatively defined roles for males and females, expectation states theory focuses on expectations of competence associated with previous experience with a nominal group” (Harrod, Sapp, & Zhao, 1996, p. 65). Men have traditionally held the upper hand because they have traditionally held the leadership roles. Leadership success has been evaluated closely with historically male performance standards in relatively heterogeneous groups. Women, who have traditionally had *no* previous leadership experience, therefore, are being evaluated against an unfair standard.

Through basic interaction, people develop general expectations about themselves and others that provide a framework for reaction to subsequent events. According to Berger, Fisek, Norman and Zelditch (1977), these expectancies are based on external status characteristics. They can include attributes like gender that are valued differently from one culture to the next

(Gerber, 1993). Expectation states theory predicts that status of leadership roles are, indeed, gender related. Leadership positions are most likely held by men when the task is culturally masculine, but moderate or low when the task is neutral or culturally feminine, respectively (Ridgeway & Smith-Lovin, 2002).

These socially-reinforced norms often unconsciously shape men's and women's behavior in a self-fulfilling way. In other words, they will perform in the way they are expected to perform. Rosenthal and Jacobson (1992) describe this as the Pygmalion effect. If leaders' expectations of their subordinates are high, productivity will likely be high. If the overall performance expectations are low, then productivity will likely be poor (Livingston, 1988).

Merton (1957) describes the self-fulfilling prophecy as "a false definition of the situation evoking a new behavior which makes the originally false conception come true" (p. 423). This deceptive nature of the self-fulfilling prophecy perpetuates what Merton (1957) describes as "a reign of error" (p. 423). When it comes to leadership, women are again placed at an unfair disadvantage due to both the historic dismissal of their abilities to lead and to their own socialized beliefs that they are not qualified to lead. Hence, the reign of error continues.

Babad (1993) states that expectations have two distinct characteristics: they polarize perceptions and sharpen differences, and they are rigid and resistant to change. Through the Pygmalion effect, leaders are (perhaps unconsciously) instrumental in providing the organizational platforms that transform these expectations into self-fulfilling prophecies. This results in effectively "sharpening existing differences, improving the performance of the

high achievers, and decreasing that of the low achievers” (Babad, 1993, p. 126). If leaders fail to comprehend the process of the self-fulfilling prophecy, they are in danger of retaining organizationally damaging prejudices that will ultimately oppress progress.

Even though it is not easy, the negative self-fulfilling prophecy cycle can be broken. This is done by abandoning flawed assumptions and introducing new definitions into the consciousness. Essentially, this demands the introduction of new expectations or significantly reshaping existing expectations. “Only then does the belief no longer father the reality” (Merton, 1957, p. 424).

Merton (1957) addressed this issue through the methods of adaptation used by individuals to embrace or reject a defined culture. First, he identified cultural structure and institutionalized norms as two phases of the social structure that had to be maintained in order to ensure “effective equilibrium” within the organization. Cultural structure speaks to the defined goals, purposes and interests of the organization while institutional norms define, regulate and control how those goals are reached (Merton, 1957). These two phases remain very visible components within today’s organizations.

The players within those components identify with one of five modes of adaptation: conformity (the most common); innovation; ritualism (the least common); retreatism; and rebellion (Merton, 1957). It is the last mode, rebellion, which speaks directly to the potential for reshaping the expectations of roles within the organization. Merton (1957) says this mode

“represents a transitional response seeking to *institutionalize* new goals and new procedures to be shared by other members of the society. It thus refers to efforts to *change* the existing cultural and social structure rather than to accommodate efforts *within* this structure” p. 140.

This is the mode in which change agents find their home and in which real change is affected within the organization either positively or negatively. Affecting change outside the organization in a way to strengthen equity issues may be a larger issue altogether. In many ways, society expectations mirror the entrenched gender prejudices within the organizational structure.

Social Role Theory

The society in which we live, work, and interact is a powerful force in terms of imposing a presumed order on its players. Social role theory (Carless, 1998) describes individual behavior as driven by societal expectations. With respect to gender differences in leadership, social role theory argues that any differences can be accounted for by socialization of the individual leader and his/her subordinates, each then coming to the table with their own set of expectations for themselves and each other depending upon gender. In other words, this theory contends that we are a part of where we come from. For example, a woman growing up in the deep South is more likely to have been socialized to be deferential in all ways to the dominant male structure of her society than a woman born and raised in New York City who may have a greater tendency to practice greater independence in thought and action as a result of a more diverse society in which she was reared. These would be their

expected social roles and straying from them in any significant measure would have a tendency to cause disruption of the social order.

Because gender roles tend to be behaviorally confirmed (Eagly, 1987) they highlight the differences found within the sexes, particularly in terms of leadership. The distribution of men and women into specific social roles (men's work versus women's work) indirectly supports stereotypes of the genders because these are the expectations people hold about male and female characteristics (Eagly, 1987). These expectations have made it difficult for women to effectively seek or assume positions of leadership

The social-role theory of gender differences impacts the question of effective leadership in a number of ways. The categorization of men and women into neat, specific social roles will naturally develop different skill sets and different means of interaction. Women demonstrate different leadership styles and behaviors than men and, because of that, they have often been unfairly labeled as weak or ineffective leaders. In fact, Carless (1988) suggests that the general socialization process for girls and women encourages female leadership development that includes more of the behaviors and style one would expect to find in transformational leadership. Women are naturally socialized towards skills in participative leadership, collaborative group management, and quality interpersonal relations. It has only been very recently that this management approach has been recognized as an effective leadership method for women, as well as men.

Because men and women are not proportionately represented in specific social roles, social behavior and social life has remained fundamentally gendered (Eagly, 1987). Therefore, differences in legitimacy in the workplace can mean that men and women who hold equivalent positions are actually operating in different social contexts (Ridgeway & Smith-Lovin, 2002). Recognizing that this difference does not necessarily equate to being a deficiency but, rather, an alternate approach is key in overcoming these inherent barriers. As this awareness grows, so will the level of representation of women in the leadership ranks. As traditional incubators of new ideas, institutions of higher education should feel compelled to lead the way.

Women will continue to expand the roles of working professionals and preparations must be made on the part of organizations and women themselves to assume leadership positions. Organizational futurist Charles Handy (1995) suggests that for organizations to survive in a diverse and global society, they will need to acquire professionals who can multi-task, who are more concerned about power and influence rather than title or status, who can be tough and tender as well as focused and friendly. It will be women who will possess these qualities. It will be women who ultimately lead. It will be women who are the key to the future success of organizations, including colleges and universities.

Research Questions

This study examines women leaders within the field of university advancement, and the internally created and externally created factors and influences that have shaped their professional development to positions of

leadership. Three questions will be asked: a) What are the beliefs women hold regarding the affect their workplace culture has on female leadership success in the area of university advancement?; b) How has gender role socialization affected women's perceived leadership opportunities within university advancement operations?; and c) Do males and females in university advancement differ in attribution style and self-efficacy?

CHAPTER THREE

Methodology

Chapter two presented the following research questions: a) What are the beliefs women hold regarding the affect their workplace culture has on female leadership success in the area of university advancement?; b) How has gender role socialization affected women's perceived leadership opportunities within university advancement operations?; and c) Do males and females in university advancement differ in attribution style and self-efficacy?

A mixed method approach was used to survey participants in order to effectively limit or neutralize the biases that might emerge through the use of only one method of data collection. Data gathering and analysis was conducted in two phases beginning with qualitative interviews followed by a quantitative electronic survey. The interviews were conducted first to help form the basis for the development of the quantitative survey. Analyzing and interpreting the interviews for points of convergence or emergent themes can better inform the construction of the electronic survey.

Phase One began with personal, face-to-face, semi-structured interviews with 9 female fundraisers who have attained the role of chief advancement officer (CAO) or chief development officer (CDO) at an institution of higher education. This was done in an attempt to bring to the surface internal and external influences that may present themselves as impediments to perceived leadership success. Because the participants being interviewed shared a familiarity with the terminology associated with fundraising, the interviewees experienced a

sharedness of meanings thus engaging all parties in a better contextual understanding of challenges for women in the profession (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). In other words, there was no confusion or misinterpretation of the language of fundraising discussed in the interviews.

Using an interpretivist paradigm, this phase of the research project employed discourse analysis to examine and investigate the relationship between individuals, their language, and organizational structure in modern fundraising. Discourse analysis is the study of words and signifiers, including the form or structure of words, a contextual use of language, and the interpretation of discursive practices (Fairhurst & Putnam, 1998). It is used to examine the whole interview rather than just selective sentences or keywords used by the interviewees. The ontology of interpretivism presents a constructed framework that relies on the shared experiences and perceptions of the engaged participants. The epistemology of interpretivism provides for multiple realities based on experience. It is a constructed knowledge based on experience and participation. Interpretivists contend that to understand people's actions one has to understand those actions in the way that participants do. Fundraising is a profession that relies heavily on engagement and experience for success in leadership and, therefore, is a natural fit for the interpretivist paradigm.

Discourse includes the universe of the spoken and written word, as well as signed language and multimodal/multimedia forms of communication (McIlvenny, 2003). Because the profession of fundraising is a profession built upon creating effective relationships and partnerships through communication, discourse

analysis will provide an appropriate forum to allow the researcher to engage the study participants through rich dialogue and inter/intrapersonal communication.

The measurement instrument for Phase One was constructed to have three distinct sections. Section one included questions that examined the perceived external barriers in the workplace that may be perceived as obstacles to women in their quest for advancement into a leadership position in university advancement. Areas examined were exclusion from networks, perceptions of the organizational environment in which they work, their professed leadership style, and their personal acknowledgement of professional accomplishments.

Section two of the interview instrument focused on perceived internal barriers to advancement that may be perceived to be obstacles to leadership positions for women in university advancement. These questions encompassed the four areas of self-efficacy that influence an individual's belief in their abilities to accomplish a particular task: 1) mastery of experience; 2) modeling through vicarious experiences; 3) social persuasions; and 4) reactions to somatic and emotional states. An outline of the questions directed to the respondents is included as Appendix I.

Section three of the interview instrument consisted of the General Perceived Self Efficacy (GSE) scale. This scale was a primary component to the survey, providing an additional layer of consistency to the data collection by undergirding the responses of participants to the questions posed in section two of the interview instrument.

The GSE is a 10-item psychometric scale that is designed to assess optimistic self-beliefs to cope with a variety of difficult demands in life. It was designed to assess self-efficacy, what Bandura (1994) describes as the belief that one's actions are responsible for outcomes. Developed by Matthias Jerusalem and Ralf Schwarzer in 1981, the results garnered from the application of this unidimensional scale have strong validity, having been administered to hundred thousands of participants. In samples from 23 nations, coefficient alphas ranged from .76 to .90, with the majority in the high .80s. Responses are made on a 4-point scale. The sum of the responses to all 10 items yields the final composite score with a range from 1 to 4. Higher scores indicate a stronger belief in self-efficacy (Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995).

Throughout the interview process, attention was paid to the verbal as well as non-verbal communication models including: proxemic communication, the use of interpersonal space; chronemics communication, using pacing in speech; kinesic communication, using body language; and paralinguistic communication which includes vocal and tonal qualities used during an interview (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). These non-verbal forms of communication were examined and analyzed following the conclusion of each interview.

Procedure – Phase One

Data gathering for Phase One was conducted over a 60-day period beginning September 1, 2004 and concluding October 31, 2004. Qualitative interviews were conducted at the respondents' home institutions or at a neutral location and the conversations were subsequently transcribed. Examination of

the transcripts for points of convergence and the emerging divergent patterns followed and are detailed in Chapter 4. In Phase One, participants were identified and initially approached for their participation through a letter sent from the researcher. All interview participants were female chief advancement officers at institutions of higher education. A follow up telephone call was made to confirm their interest and to schedule a time for the face-to-face interview. In-depth interviews were conducted using a combined approach of a standardized interview format and an open-ended question format. Participants were presented with a statement of confidentiality prior to the beginning of the interview. A code number was assigned to each participant to guarantee anonymity to the participants throughout the data analysis and evaluation stages.

Respondents were first asked a series of demographic questions including their age, the number of years they have worked in the university advancement profession, what type of institution they worked for, the highest level of education they had completed, their marital status, and whether or not they had children. The second part of the interviews focused on questions relating to organizational culture including their perceptions of their workplace environment, their perceptions of expectancies of success by both their supervisors and their male peers, whether or not they perceived their gender has created barriers to their professional advancement, the importance of receiving and offering mentorship, and their inclusion or exclusion from internal or external networking opportunities. The third section of the interview focused on the respondents' leadership style and if they perceived it had changed during their careers. The fourth section of

the interview asked a series of questions related to traditional social and gender roles associated with women and how those roles have shaped or impacted their professional lives. The final section included the questions of the General Perceived Self Efficacy (GSE) scale. A copy of the interview questions is included as Attachment I.

Each interview lasted approximately one hour. Each interview was audiotaped. Participants were formally interviewed one time only. Each interview was transcribed and a copy of the transcription was given to the research participant to ensure the veracity of the information and to allow for any necessary clarification of meaning to questions asked and answered. One audio tape was used for each interview. Following the transcription of each interview, the audiotape was stored in a fireproof and locked location and will remain there until the study formally concludes. Audiotapes will be destroyed three years after the study is published. Participants were identified by name on the audiotape and demographic data was collected at that time. At the time of transcription, the names of the participants were replaced with demographic identifiers that allowed the researcher to know their identity but ensured anonymity when using their information for publication.

Procedure – Phase Two

Phase Two data gathering began in March of 2006 through the creation and distribution of the web-based electronic survey to advancement professionals in the southwest region of CASE. This region includes the states of Arkansas, Louisiana, New Mexico, Oklahoma and Texas. The questions

formulated for the electronic survey were designed as either closed-ended questions or questions that offered nominal choices to the survey respondents. Also included were several open-ended questions which allowed respondents an opportunity in an expanded format to provide more a more detailed narrative on their perceptions of success they have achieved in their position. Using this type of methodology on these questions strengthened the validity of the answers obtained from the survey by limiting or avoiding some potential problems that might be associated with generally subjective responses.

This survey was constructed with three distinct sections. The first section of the survey featured the Revised Causal Dimension Scale (CDSII). The CDSII assesses the causal dimensions of locus of causality, external control, stability, and personal (internal) control for the open-ended causal attributions that individuals assign to a particular outcome. Participants were asked to read a brief scenario and then predict the ultimate outcome of that scenario. Following their prediction, each respondent was asked to respond to a series of 12 questions designed to assess the locus of causality dimension (whether it is perceived to be internal or external to the participant), the stability dimension (whether it is perceived to be stable or unstable), and the controllability dimension (whether it is perceived to be within their own personal control or if it is external to their control). Results from the CDSII have been shown to have a strong reliability, reinforcing the value of this measurement instrument. The coefficient alphas for the four subscales of locus of causality, stability, personal control, and external

control ranged from .60 to .92 across four different studies (McCauley, Duncan & Russell, 1992).

Section two included all 10 questions of the GSE scale, interspersed with organizational culture questions that focused on external barriers that may be perceived to be detrimental to the advancement of women into positions of leadership in university advancement operations. These questions focused on organizational culture including the influence of gender in the workplace, leadership style, mentoring, and personal sacrifices made for career advancement and were reflective of the questions asked of the participants in Phase One of the study.

The third part of the survey was designed to gather demographic information, organizational culture information, and institutional information such as what type and size of college or university the respondent was employed. Fifteen questions comprised this portion of the survey with the last three questions structured to be open-ended to ascertain why the respondent chose this profession as a career, to what they attributed their success, and if there was a “defining” moment in their career path that helped shaped their perceptions of success. Answers to these questions allowed for richer descriptions into the insights of respondents as they considered their careers in institutional advancement. The survey is included as Appendix II.

The Phase Two survey was electronically distributed by CASE national offices in Washington, D.C., via email to all members in CASE District IV with valid email addresses (N=1,525). The survey was distributed only once with one

reminder sent one week after the initial distribution. The survey was estimated to require 20 minutes for completion. Via an embedded link, the email directed each respondent to a secure website where the survey was housed. No identifying information was required of respondents to take the survey. Respondents were, however, required to complete an informed consent form before being allowed to begin the survey. An option for exiting the survey at any point during the completion of the survey was available at all times. All responses were automatically downloaded into a secure database. This database allowed for the creation of a detailed codebook, as well as the exporting of data into a computerized program for data analysis.

As a means to test the content validity of the research instrument, a pretest of the survey instrument was conducted. This pretest was distributed to working advancement professionals in CASE District IV prior to its distribution to the entire CASE District IV membership accessible via email. No substantive changes were deemed necessary to the instrument.

Sample Population – Phase One

Because a mixed methods approach was employed in this design, two samples from the same target population were examined. The sample population for Phase One included nine women who had achieved the status of chief advancement officer for their respective institutions. All held the title of Vice President or Vice Chancellor.

Sample Population – Phase Two

The sample population for Phase Two, the quantitative electronic survey, was much larger. This sample encompassed over 1,500 advancement professionals from a five state region: Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, New Mexico, and Texas. Advancement professionals for this exercise included chief advancement officers, chief development officers, and other individuals defined as advancement professionals by generally accepted title and areas of assigned responsibility.

A robust response to the Phase Two survey was predicted. A 2002 CASE membership survey showed a significant increase in the number of female respondents (65%) compared with any previous survey conducted by the association. “In the 1996 survey, women constituted 54% of advancement professionals. The 1982 and 1986 CASE surveys found men in the majority” (Netherton, 2002, p. 15). This survey also resulted in the self-identification of 5.8% of respondents as racial or ethnic minorities (Netherton, 2002).

Conclusions

This study is designed as a guide to understanding the current hierarchical structures inherent within the field of institutional advancement and, perhaps, to provide a basis for why women are not better represented within the leadership ranks of the profession. It is the researcher’s hope that this effort will further the study of this important issue and continue to encourage organizations to critically examine their organizational cultures to ensure equitable opportunities for advancement are equally offered to men and women. It is also hoped that

women will embrace a critical self-examination of their culturally, morally, or intrinsically embedded belief systems to pro-actively affect personal and professional change specific to this area.

CHAPTER FOUR

Presentation and Analysis of Data

The results of this study are presented first with an analysis of Phase One: the sample population, the structure of the qualitative interviews, the profile of the participants, the influences on success, and measures. The results of Phase Two are presented in the following order: the sample population, the structure of the survey, the profile of the participants, measures, correlations, analysis of variance, and an examination of the open ended questions.

Results and Analysis of Phase One

Sample Population

Phase One of this study included extensive interviews with nine female vice presidents for institutional advancement. The women ranged in age from 46 to 60. With the exception of two respondents, all had been divorced and remarried. Two held bachelor's degrees, four held master's degrees, and three respondent's held doctoral degrees. Four of the nine respondents were employed at doctoral degree granting institutions with student populations in excess of 10,000, two respondents were employed at doctoral degree granting institutions with student populations less than 10,000, and three respondents worked for master's degree granting institutions. The nine respondents have 115 years of total combined experience in institutional advancement with a range of 1 year to 30 years in the field. The average of experience was 13 years. The purpose of the qualitative interviews was to gather a rich source of data that

would provide an accompanying narrative to the analyzed results found from the quantitative survey.

Structure of the Interviews

The interviews were structured in three distinct parts that were then subsequently replicated in the quantitative survey. The first section gathered demographic data. The second section focused on attributions toward the respondent's perceptions of leadership success in the areas of organizational culture (networking, culture of the environment in which they work, leadership style, and acknowledgement of professional accomplishments). The third section focused on the aspects of self-efficacy (mastery of experience, modeling, social persuasions, and the somatic and emotional reactions to challenges).

Each of the interviews was analyzed for particular points of convergence through the use of a codebook that examined responses to 34 questions that encompassed demographics (9 examination points), organizational culture (9 examination points), leadership style (2 examination points), traditional social and gender roles (5 examination points), self-efficacy (4 examination points), and general observation points (5 examination points). See Appendix XX.

Profile of the Participants

The respondents in the interview sessions had more similarities than differences in the responses they gave to the interview questions. All of the nine women interviewed said that their career in fundraising either started by circumstance or after they had already completed a full career in a different aspect of education.

Respondent One was a waitress who was “discovered” by a fundraising professional at a local university who sensed she had potential. She is a 46-year-old Caucasian who has three children; two are grown and one is still at home. She is married (her first). She has a bachelor’s and a master’s degree in education and also holds a juris doctorate. Her husband stays at home full-time. She is the primary bread winner. She works at a large, comprehensive university at a health-science branch campus. She holds the title of Vice President for University Advancement, a position she has held for seven years. She has worked in fundraising in one form or another since her first professional position in 1983.

Respondent Two is a 56-year-old Caucasian who has no children but one grandchild through her second marriage. She holds an Ed.D and works at a small regional state university. She has been the Vice President for Development at her institution for 26 years. She has spent her entire career at one institution.

Respondent Three is a 60-year-old Caucasian who has three children and is married (her second). She holds a bachelor’s degree. She works at a large, state-assisted urban university with a largely non-traditional student population. She is the Vice Chancellor for University Advancement, a title she has held since she came on board two years ago. She is new to higher education advancement, but has a very strong history in fundraising, specifically with non-profit organizations.

Respondent Four is a 47-year-old Caucasian who has two children and is married (her second). She has a bachelor’s degree and works at a mid-sized

private Catholic university that is doctoral granting and has a medical school. She has been with the university for eight years during which time she was successively promoted to greater positions of responsibility, most recently to Vice President for University Advancement. Prior to her career at this university, she worked as a fundraiser in the non-profit sector.

Respondent Five is a 56-year-old African-American who is married and has two grown children. She holds a master's degree and works at a large, private urban Catholic university that is recognized as a Historically Black College or University (HBCU). Its president is nationally recognized as one of the longest tenured presidents of any university in the nation. This is the second university for which she has worked and, cumulatively, has less than ten years experience in university advancement.

Respondent Six is a 51-year-old Caucasian who is married (her second) and has two grown children. She holds a Ph.D. and works at a large, state-assisted public university at its associated medical branch campus. She has been the Vice President of University Advancement for just over two years. Prior to this position, she held three professional development positions, each with increasing levels of responsibility at different institutions. She has been in advancement work for ten years. This is her second career.

Respondent Seven is a 57-year-old Caucasian who has one grown child and one grandchild. She is married (her third). She holds an Ed.D. and works at a small, private university affiliated with the Presbyterian Church that just marked its first century of service. She has been the Vice President for Institutional

Advancement for six years. Prior to this position, she was the chief development officer at the nation's largest public university whose student body is majority Hispanic. She has spent the majority of her professional career in higher education fundraising.

Respondent Eight is a 57-year-old Caucasian who has two grown children and has just celebrated her 35th wedding anniversary. She holds a master's degree and works at a small, private university affiliated with the Baptist Church where she is the Vice President of University Advancement, a position she has held for one year. Prior to this position, she had spent her entire career as an administrator in the secondary school system. She is the first female to hold the title of Vice President at her institution.

Respondent Nine is a 47-year-old Caucasian who is married (her second) and has two grown children. She holds a master's degree and is a certified public accountant. She works at a mid-sized state-assisted regional university where she has been for 29 years in various capacities, but none in fundraising. Following the resignation of the previous Vice President for University Advancement three years ago, the president asked her to assume the role.

These interviews were conducted as attempts to understand the world from the subjects' point of view and to unfold the meaning of their experiences (Kvale, 1996). In these semi-structured interviews an assessment of the respondents' non-verbal communication styles was assessed and key themes relating to internal and external challenges to leadership were examined. The non-verbal observations will be addressed first followed by the verbal responses

the respondents gave in response to influences they believed to be important to their professional success.

The non-verbal communication models that were applied in the analysis of the Phase One interviews included: proxemic communication, the use of interpersonal space; chronemics communication, using pacing in speech; kinesic communication, using body language; and paralinguistic communication which includes vocal and tonal qualities used during an interview (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000).

Proxemic Communication: The use of interpersonal space

Proxemics was introduced by anthropologist Edward T. Hall in the late 1950s to describe measurable distances between people as they interact (Hall, 1959). Having an awareness of space in human interactions can not only improve interpersonal and cross-cultural understanding, it can also assist in eliminating discomfort people may feel if the interpersonal distance is too large or too small. Comfortable personal distances depend on the culture, social situation, gender, and individual preference. Within the realm of higher education and, particularly, within the field of university advancement, personal awareness of space is critical in building relationships.

Respondent One: The interview was conducted in a conference room and not in the respondent's office. She chose to sit on one side of the table and asked that the interviewer sit directly opposite her. She did not elect to take the

“head” of the table position. The distance between the respondent and the interviewer would be, by Hall’s distance model, considered personal.

Respondent Two: The respondent met with the interviewer at a professional conference and the interview was conducted in her hotel suite. The interviewer and respondent sat in chairs that were close to each other with a small round table behind them. The distance between both would be considered personal.

Respondent Three: The interview was conducted in a small conference room that was nearly taken up by one large table. The interviewer took a seat first near the head of one side of the table and the respondent walked around to the other side in order to face the interviewer directly. She did not elect to take the “head” of the table position. The distance between the respondent and the interviewer would be considered personal.

Respondent Four: The interview was conducted at the respondent’s office which included a very large conference table in it. She chose to sit at the head of one end of the table which was farthest from her desk and the interviewer sat directly next to her on the side of the table. Although the distance between the respondent and the interviewer would be classified as personal, there were many occasions throughout the interview when the respondent moved closely toward the interviewer while responding to a particular question. During these moments, the distance would have been considered intimate by Hall’s model. Her office was tastefully decorated but with few observable personal effects. There were three personal framed photos of a young child on her credenza behind her desk.

The only thing on her desk was a telephone, a rolodex, and two in/out trays for correspondence. There were a number of artificial plants in the office.

Respondent Five: Prior to meeting with the respondent, the interviewer was asked to wait in the reception area for approximately 10 minutes. She was then escorted to the respondent's office. The respondent was behind her desk and stayed there for the entire interview. She stood behind her desk as the interviewer entered and offered her hand from across the desk. The interviewer was invited to sit in a chair in front of her desk. The distance between the two would be described as social in Hall's model. In addition to her desk and two chairs in front of it, there was a small table with two chairs in the office. The table was covered with several piles of documents. Her office was cluttered but filled with many personal framed photos, various awards, and objects that appeared to be mementos from trips.

Respondent Six: The interview was conducted around a small table in the respondent's office. She asked the interviewer to sit and then chose the seat directly opposite. The distance would have been considered intimate. The office was somewhat cluttered but filled with personal, framed photos and lots of plants. There were several piles of documents in several locations of the office.

Respondent Seven: The interview was conducted in the respondent's office which was located very close to a large workspace that had much activity. She was gracious in inviting the interviewer to sit in a chair by a small table and she took the chair next to it. The distance would be described as personal. It was not a well appointed office in that none of the furniture seemed to match, there

were few wall hangings. She had a few framed photographs on the bookshelf behind her desk. At the end of the interview, the respondent gave the interviewer a hug as she left the building.

Respondent Eight: The interviewer met the respondent at a professional conference to conduct the interview. The interview was conducted in a small session room. Both sat in a single row of chairs with one chair separating them. The distance would be described as personal.

Respondent Nine: The interview was conducted in the respondent's office around a small, round meeting table. There were only two chairs. The distance between the respondent and the interviewer would be described as personal. The office had a very lived in look in that the walls were decorated with a mixture of personal photographs and art. The desk and credenza had more personal photos and a number of live plants.

Chronemics Communication: The use of pacing in speech

Chronemics is the study of the use of time in nonverbal communication. In terms of vocal delivery, the pacing of speech can be perceived in many ways. Measured delivery of speech may be perceived as deliberative and thoughtful, while rushed speech may be perceived as extemporaneous and not as thoughtful. The way people react to speech is particularly important in a fundraising environment where trust is critical in relationship building, and helps set the early stages of the communication process. Researchers have discovered a direct correlation between the power of an individual in an organization and their conversational style (Guerrero, Devito & Hecht, 1999).

This includes the length of conversation, turn-taking in conversation, and who initiates and ends a conversation. Those with more power in an organization will speak more often and for a greater length of time (Guerrero, Devito, & Hecht, 1999).

Respondent One: The respondent was very engaged throughout the interview and seemed unaware of time. This interview lasted twice as long as most of the other interviews conducted. There were a number of instances of significant pauses in answering a number of interview questions. These pauses generally preceded a request by the respondent in asking for reassurance that the answers provided would be kept confidential.

Respondent Two: The respondent had pre-prepared for the interview and began the interview by stating, "I read the interview questions earlier and just wanted to offer a few thoughts that I had on a few things." This individual was engaged and articulate throughout the interview, but had a tendency to want to direct the interview. The interviewer had to firmly manage the question and answer process to ensure all points were covered. She had very few pauses in her answers to the questions posed to her. It was apparent that she had given much forethought to the interview and was concise and direct in her responses.

Respondent Three: This respondent was thoughtful in her responses throughout the interview. When describing herself and her accomplishments, the pace of her speech was consistent. When answering a question that she had not considered, such as the importance of building internal networks, her pace of speech slowed considerably, as if she was formulating and re-formulating her

answers while she spoke. She often restated key words of the question while giving her response.

Respondent Four: The pacing of the respondent's answers varied greatly throughout the interview. Responses given during the first half of the interview were fast and, at times, disjointed. The interviewer intentionally tried to slow the pace of the interview by consciously speaking slower when asking direct questions or offering follow up questions to statements offered by the respondent. During the last half of the interview, the respondent's responses did not seem so rushed. There were many more pauses in her answers and subsequently were more refined.

Respondent Five: Prior to the start of the interview, the respondent let the interviewer know that she had a limited amount of time and stated that she had an appointment at the top of the following hour. While very pleasant and kind, the respondent exhibited a clear sense of urgency throughout the interview. During the first half of the interview particularly, for each question that was asked, the respondent would interject several "mm-hmm's" before the interviewer was able to complete the question. This was perceived as a means to "hurry up" the question. During the last half of the interview, this happened with less frequency.

Respondent Six: The respondent was engaged and did not exhibit any appearance of feeling rushed or short on time. She thoughtfully engaged in every question and took her time in answering. Her responses were peppered with many pauses but they were not lengthy enough to suggest confusion or hesitancy to answer.

Respondent Seven: The respondent was relaxed throughout the interview and did not seem at all concerned with the length of the interview. She was fully engaged in the interview process and the interviewer did not perceive a sense of being rushed at any point. Her speech delivery, though, was rapid fire.

Respondent Eight: The respondent met with the interviewer at the end of the day of a professional conference. This time was specifically chosen by the respondent so as not to feel rushed for time. Because of the relaxed nature of the conference, both the respondent and the interviewer were dressed in casual clothing that contributed to a more casual and relaxed setting for the interview.

Respondent Nine: The interview was conducted toward the end of the workday and the respondent noted that this was her last appointment of the day. A mutual acquaintance brought the interviewer to the respondent's office and approximately 15 minutes was spent with introductions of various office personnel and discussions of shared acquaintances within the profession. The interview followed a similar, relaxed manner.

Kinesic Communication: Use of body language

Kinesics is the act of communicating by body movement and is an important part of non-verbal communication behavior (Birdwhistell, 1970). The movement of the body may convey specific meanings but the interpretation of those meanings is very culture bound. Even though many of these body movements are exhibited subconsciously, they can carry a significant risk of being misinterpreted (Knapp, 1972).

Ekman and Friesen (1969) in their seminal work on this topic classify kinesics into five categories: emblems, illustrators, affect displays, regulators and adaptors. Emblems are non-verbal messages that are accompanied by a verbal counterpart. Illustrators are used to describe what is being said. Affective displays are less conscious and less frequent body or facial movements that usually display emotions. Regulators are non-verbal cues that regulate, modulate and maintain the flow of speech in conversation such as the nodding of the head or eye movements. These can be both kinesic, such as the nodding of a head, as well as nonkinesic, such as eye movements. Fatt (1998) suggests that these are one of the most culturally determined kinesic signs. Adaptors include body changes made at a low level of awareness such as posture or leg movements that make a person feel more comfortable in the context of a conversation.

Respondent One: Most of the answers given in this interview were direct albeit lengthy. Only once did the respondent use an illustrative example when discussing her leadership style. Throughout the interview, the respondent often incorporated a number of affective displays when responding to questions. When answering questions about her personal decisions relating to her career advancement, her facial expressions would display emotions that related directly to her verbal responses. She employed speech regulators consistently, particularly when trying to explain the decision process employed in taking a certain course of action, and she also incorporated physical adaptors throughout the interview. She would often lean forward to emphasize a particular point and would return to a more relaxed, reclined position when receiving questions.

Respondent Two: No emblems were used by the respondent in this interview. She did employ a few illustrators that focused on masculine leadership styles and how that affected her approach to leadership. She had many affective displays when trying to underscore a particular point and those included expressions of surprise or steady eye contact with the interviewer. Regulators, such as the nodding of her head during questions posed by the interviewer, were frequent. She employed many adaptors throughout the interview including leaning forward to make a particular point, crossing her arms when considering a question related to a challenging contract negotiation

Respondent Three: The respondent used no emblems in this interview, but she employed a significant number of illustrative examples in describing herself, how she perceived a development team, and how she had learned to overcome challenges or obstacles. She was very animated on a number of occasions when underscoring a particular point through the use of facial expressions and hand gestures. When considering answers to some questions to which she did not have an immediate answer, she would often frown and look elsewhere until she formulated her response. She displayed adaptors such as leaning away from the interviewer, particularly when speaking about lessons learned from difficult situations.

Respondent Four: The respondent used no emblems in this interview, nor did she employ the use of illustrators in any of her answers. Her affective displays were frequent throughout the interview. When making a specific point, she would often raise her eyebrows or nod while giving an answer. She

constantly tucked her hair behind her right ear while speaking and her hands were always in motion, not in the air as to punctuate a statement, but rather in holding or setting down her eyeglasses, moving a pen around on the table or adjusting her wedding ring. These regulators seemed to be more ingrained habits than motions made from nervousness or being distracted. She continually shifted in her chair and often moved closely toward the interviewer when very engaged in offering a response to a particular question.

Respondent Five: Little overt body language was exhibited by the respondent during this interview. No emblems and very few illustrators were employed. Affective displays were limited but did display themselves when topics focused on gender challenges such as perceived leadership abilities due to motherhood and salary disparities. These took the form of raised eyebrows and the shaking of her head accompanied by expressions of disbelief. With those exceptions, the respondent moved very little throughout the interview. She assumed a relaxed position at her desk and kept her hands clasped in front of her for the majority of the interview.

Respondent Six: The respondent did not employ emblems in the interview and she used only one illustration to describe her outlook on leadership within an organization. Her affective displays were limited, as well, mainly involving a knowing smile when discussing her perception of the existing differences and disparities when considering gender. Her use of regulators was a bit more pervasive and she often nodded her head while the interviewer was posing a question as if to suggest she could relate to what was being asked.

Respondent Seven: No emblems were used by the respondent in this interview, and only one illustrative example was shared in response to a question about how she had been influenced by role models. Her affective displays were regular and frequent including smiling a great deal during both receiving and answering a question, and opening up her hands and arms when expanding on a particular point. In regard to regulators, the respondent would nod frequently during the delivery of a question, as well as crossing and uncrossing her legs. On at least two occasions, she concluded a statement or an answer with a laugh and simultaneously reached over and touched the interviewer's forearm.

Respondent Eight: There were no emblems used by the respondent in this interview, however the use of illustrators was prevalent throughout. She employed illustrative examples when discussing perceptions of performance, organizational culture, perceived value to the organization, mentoring, and the traditional roles of women in the workplace. The respondent had fewer affective displays but employed a large number of regulators (shaking her head affirmatively or negatively as questions were asked) and adaptors (constantly leaning forward and backward in her chair, crossing and uncrossing her legs, and arranging and rearranging her arms).

Respondent Nine: No emblems and very few illustrators were employed during this interview. The respondent, while relaxed, appeared reserved and did not vary her facial or body movements significantly. Regulating motions were the most prevalent but, still, rather limited. The respondent began the interview

leaning back in her chair with her hands clasped in her lap and, with only minor variations, maintained that posture throughout the interview.

Paralinguistic Communication: *Use of vocal and tonal qualities in speech*

Paralinguistics refers to the non-verbal elements of communication that speakers use to modify meaning and convey emotion. Paralanguage is expressed consciously or unconsciously, and it includes the vocal and tonal qualities such as rate, volume, pitch, inflection, quality, intensity, and silence (Robbins and Langton, 2001).

Paralinguistic properties of speech play an important role in speech communication (Traunmuller, 2005). All utterances and speech signals have paralinguistic properties due to the fact that speech requires the presence of a voice that can be modulated. Voice and speech are affected by emotions (usually expressed without intention) and attitudes (usually expressed intentionally), but attempts to fake or to hide emotions often happen (Traunmuller, 2005). These aspects are a concern of linguists and are current topics of paralinguistic communication research.

Respondent One: The respondent employed a large number of paralinguistic communication devices throughout the interview. Her speech, for the most part, was quick and expansive. Volume rates were fairly consistent with the exception of the part of the interview when she spoke about the personal sacrifices she had made in her career advancement. Her responses would often run on and were punctuated with vocal bridges such as *um* and *ah* throughout. The quality of her voice was consistent throughout the interview. It was strong

with a neutral accent. A clear sense of intensity was present throughout the interview, representing the passion she has about her work and her current leadership position.

Respondent Two: There were few, if any, pauses in her communication style and no uses of *ums* or *ahs* in her sentences. The pace of her speech was rapid. There were minimal variations in volume and pitch, and the intensity remained high throughout the interview. The one exception to this came during a segment of the interview where she was discussing what she called her *reference group*. This group is comprised entirely of female friends and mentors that have gathered fairly regularly for more than a decade to discuss personal and professional aspects of each others' lives.

Respondent Three: The respondent was soft spoken but unquestionably firm in her responses to questions. The rate of her speech was very measured throughout the interview. Her language was formal and sophisticated. Her inflection would slightly change from well-modulated to slightly more animated when expanding on a point that she felt strongly about, particularly relating to her ability to succeed as a woman in a field dominated by male supervisors. There were no gaps of silence in the interview. She employed tactics of restating all or parts of questions rather than quietly considering her responses before answering.

Respondent Four: The respondent had a somewhat loud voice accented with a heavy southern accent. Her language was not formal and could be described as folksy in a number of areas of the interview. Her responses were

heavily injected with qualifiers as if to ensure her point was understood. Levels of intensity varied, but when responding to questions about her style of leadership, she was particularly animated and strong in her answers. There were few periods of silence in the first half of the interview, with the last half employing more pauses injected in her responses.

Respondent Five: The respondent had a very measured delivery with a neutral accent. She was soft-spoken and well-modulated in her vocal responses, and she was fairly formal in her responses. The respondent employed a particular vocal bridge throughout her answers, very often interjecting the phrase *you know* in the middle of sentences as if to ensure she was being understood. The frequency of the employment of this device suggests that it is an ingrained habit rather than a conscious need for agreement with her statements.

Respondent Six: The respondent was soft spoken and refined in her voice. She was very measured in the pace of her responses almost to the point of being languid. She had a pronounced southern accent. Like the previous respondent, she often interjected the phrase *you know* in the middle of sentences as if to ensure she was being understood. This appeared to be a vocal habit rather than the formulation of a direct question.

Respondent Seven: The respondent was very measured in her delivery and modulated in her voice. She spoke on the quieter end of the volume scale. She had a distinct southern accent and her vocabulary was often very formal. When the respondent was particularly intense, she would employ the use of the

word *love* in her answers. The word *love* or *loved* was cited 11 times throughout the interview. There were no gaps of silence during the interview.

Respondent Eight: During this interview, the respondent employed a large number of paralinguistic devices that were noted by the interviewer. The respondent had a quick rate of speech and it was delivered in a loud voice. Her pitch and inflection were heavily influenced by the southern geographic region in which she grew up and where she still resides. She employed colloquialisms in her speech and maintained a high level of intensity throughout the interview. There were no periods of silence.

Respondent Nine: The respondent had a strong southern accent. Her vocal delivery was well modulated and quiet with only slight variations in volume and pitch. While she seemed very comfortable in the interview, she did not project a strong sense of intensity or passion about the subjects of which we spoke. There were few moments of silence throughout the interview.

Influences on Success

The individuals described in detail the influences they perceived as important or contributory to their professional successes. For the most part, these influences were attributed almost equally between external factors and internal factors:

“I was very, very fortunate to sort of be there at that time and have people who believed in me.” (External)

“I really didn’t have the foggiest idea really what to do.” (External)

“Don’t ask me to do something unless you want it to happen.”

(Internal)

“I quit a tenured job. I recruited a board. I raised the money. I designed the exhibits. I hired the staff. I wrote the payroll. If I didn’t make enough money to pay the electric bill, I wrote a check out of my own account and had a wonderful time.” (Internal)

“I don’t think there is anything inherent in a woman as opposed to a man which would make them successful in this field. I’ve seen successful women and I’ve seen not so successful women come and go. Success depends on the individual.” (Internal)

“To be successful early on in my career, I learned that I had to pull in so many different people and resources that I became dependent upon others for success.” (External)

“I know how to take this organization and build the blocks that need to make it a good organization.” (Internal)

“I told them when I interviewed, if this doesn’t work you won’t have to ask me to leave. I’ll be telling you I’m gone.” (Internal)

An examination of the influences of organizational culture on the respondents' perceptions of leadership success uncovered a variety of responses as they answered questions relating to networking, organizational culture, leadership style, and their willingness (or unwillingness) to celebrate their professional accomplishments.

Higher education is an environment dominated by men, particularly in areas of leadership. Networking successfully, therefore, can be challenging “because men have historically dominated high level hierarchical positions, women are less likely than men to be included in these information, high-level interactions” (Brass, 1985, p. 329). The majority of respondents did not believe they were personally or intentionally excluded from existing networks that would be essential in contributing to their success in the workplace. Many, however, qualified their answers and acknowledged that personal choice or entrenched cultural norms may have prevented them from gaining full access to those important social and professional networks. In some instances, they noted, women have to work much harder to gain entrée into critical networking groups or to be perceived as someone who can add value to the mix:

“Institutions are looking for women to take over leadership positions. In the push to diversity, I think that being a woman has actually opened more doors than closed them. However, I have three children and a family and have to do quite a bit of traveling just for my job. When I have a spare minute, I want to be at home.”

“I feel like I work in still a pretty patriarchal social structure. I think that my PhD and my academic past gives me credibility internally that’s never been there before.”

“As you have more time in your job, your credibility and good experience with those people, you have a great deal more power to make changes in that position.”

“When there has been a restriction in access, it’s been because of the image of the institution or such that the network or the individuals or business contacts that we were trying to access and trying to get in to would not give you a chance to see what you were doing.”

“When I arrived, I realized that I had no existing internal or external networks. That actually was a concern because people raise money from people they know. By connecting first with my staff, I was able to gain assistance in opening doors to relationships within the university and within the community where I was an unknown.”

“In particular, there are business-related social functions – power lunches, power breakfasts – that are still very male-oriented. It’s just something you couldn’t work your way into.”

“It was an adjustment for me when I realized probably for the first time that my social connections were not going to hold me in good stead. I then had to begin to do a lot more networking than I’d ever had to do before. I learned that remaining genteel and a bit reserved is very good in the south.”

“I’m not sure my networking success hasn’t been laced with a bit of luck. You have to align yourself with people who will be ready and willing to leverage themselves on your behalf. I’ve had the good fortune of having a few of those in my path throughout the years.”

“I’ve been at the university for 29 years, so I had many long-standing relationships that gave me a level of status that another woman just coming in to the position might not have had. However, there are still times when I am sometimes “forgotten” to be included to particular events or activities.”

Influences of Organizational Culture

Examining the culture of the organization and, in some instances, the region in which the respondents worked garnered a broader and less uniform scope of responses. In many instances, the women who assumed leadership positions perceived that they encountered resistance, particularly when they attempted to introduce change into the workplace. Gains were not easily won,

but there did not appear to be an expectation on the part of these women that this would happen. In almost every instance, the respondents believed that, more than anything, their gender was the source of friction.

Historically, the leadership positions they now hold had always been held by a male, and the introduction of a female to the chief advancement officer role introduced new tension within the organization. This sometimes caused them to doubt their own leadership abilities. However, a commonality in each of the interviews, was the belief that if their actions remained aligned with their core, internalized values and beliefs (Harvey, Martinko, and Gardner, 2006), these women would ultimately find success in their environments:

“There was not a lot of tolerance for entrepreneurship or creativity for doing things differently. I was having a lot of trouble working with some of the really strong men in the organization because part of it was that they were dismissing me. And part of it was that they were doing that and part of it was my reaction to it. I was not only expecting it, but feeling I deserved it. I just think that we are so programmed sometimes a women to act and expect to be responded to in a certain way that it’s hard, sometimes, to break out of that alone.”

“I almost hate to say it, but being an attractive woman complicates the issue of perceptions of effective leadership. This is not part of what you’re doing but I do think it is a factor. Top level leadership,

while they want the traits that these women carry, they don't necessarily want those traits in women. There's a cultural conflict in that."

"Existing cultures are hard to change. My style is to sit quietly and watch it for a little bit before I decide to change it. Sometimes people think of changing an organization by virtue of fighting within the organization. I don't so much think of fighting with it but I work hard and people know I do."

"The bottom line here has always been the most important indicator of performance, and all of us have been judged that way. I do believe, however, that having a doctorate has given me more credibility within the academy."

"I think the adapting to the culture has been a challenge, but not because of my gender."

"In this region of the country, men are still viewed as the 'breadwinners' for the household, even in instances where both spouses work. I think women have a tendency to sit at the table and look at a [salary] package and not do a lot of negotiation for possibly better opportunities. I also think that women who have

managed to 'break the glass ceiling' have not been comfortable even with themselves because it was maybe perceived that they were there for reasons not of their own merit."

"I went on the board because I thought I could help them since I'd been a staff member for a foundation. And that was difficult as well because again you had the old guard, the old male guard and I was the only female in that group and it was difficult for them to listen to me. So they would talk over me on occasion. And so what you do is you begin to do like I know you've done, you're in the fundraising field, you do all kinds of things, I began to write notes. I'd write notes to all of these gentleman or I'd take one of them to lunch or whatever just to get an idea across that I knew I wasn't going to get across in a group situation. So those are time consuming kinds of things that you have to do but in terms of just glass ceiling, yes. In fact the president of the museum told me that when I was getting ready to leave there, that it was probably good because they were going to need to hire a man to be the director of development."

"After working for so many years as an administrator in large secondary school systems, I came to the realization that I had proven myself. I'd reached a point where I'd arrived. I didn't have to prove anything to anybody anymore and that has been very freeing."

Success, as well as having access to appropriate training, is the way you change the culture and climate of an organization.”

“I am fortunate to work in an organization that is very nurturing and dedicated to advancing individuals from the inside. There is a great deal of internal mentoring that goes on here and contributes to what I would call a ‘culture of stability’.”

Women have historically suffered from negative perceptions about their value to an organization due to the fact that they may often choose to interrupt their careers to have and raise children. The respondents all note that personal sacrifices have been made in order to attain their professional goals. Only two of the nine women interviewed have not gone through a divorce, and one woman says that she and her husband “switched roles” in order to achieve a desirable work/life balance. These women reinforce a recent study of younger respondents who have stated that “job interference” with their personal lives is “moderate to very severe” (Yin, 2002). Because of this, they are often faced with limited or slowed advancement into positions of leadership or penalized through a lower wage when compared to men in similar positions.

The women interviewed in this study experienced this type of discrimination. Whether it occurred directly or indirectly, they had enough awareness about it that they chose to work harder as a means to overcompensate in an attempt to alleviate any concerns of their employers that

women might not be as effective employees as men. Often, this was perceived to have a detrimental affect on their families:

“I have had to make choices and I’m not necessarily proud of those choices. We know this and we’ve always known it, but it is not possible to have it all. It isn’t. My husband now stays home with our children. I would say, though...it still haunts me that I didn’t get to spend more time with the children and, of course, they think that they’re not my priority. That work’s my priority. And work is my priority but it’s not above them.”

“Women have to make sacrifices. They do. Men don’t make career decisions based on who is going to take care of their children. And women always have to fight for other issues like salary equity. When I interviewed for my current job and found out that they were offering me \$35,000 less than my predecessor I had to say, ‘What you’re offering me is more money than what I make, but I know it’s not what he made. I feel like this is a good faith gesture on your part, that if you offer me what you gave him that it’s a vote a confidence. In a sense, it’s your blessing.’ I’m happy to say I got that salary.”

“I’ve been hired by women and I’ve been hired by men. I’ve been promoted and encouraged by both women and men. I can’t say one

more than the other. I've just been really lucky. I have had to run double time to make sure no one ever questioned my ability or commitment to get the job done. No one has ever suggested that. I'd probably pop them on the head if they did. And, yes, I've raised a child as a single woman and I've had all those challenges. I guess I like to say I think higher education is a more flexible environment in general."

"I'm paid the same as my male counterparts, but I do feel like I have had to 'go the extra mile' to alleviate any concerns about my ability to perform."

"I think that the social and cultural perceptions of women as caregivers do have an impact on hiring and salary levels. I suppose this could be a positive or a negative considering the position you're hiring for, but I believe it does play a role. I do, think, also that generational perceptions may play just as an important a role in the process."

"I believe my gender has been a positive influence in my career, particularly early on when I worked with mostly 'female-focused' organizations like the Girl Scouts and the YWCA. I think being a woman in the management ranks has been valued for a variety of

reasons including the fact that we are good nurturers as well as good managers. We bring something else to the table in our ability to nurture and to be a little more rational sometimes.”

“I don’t think I’ve been negatively affected by the fact that I am a mother, however I didn’t enter the field of fundraising until after my children were adults. I have noticed that it becomes an issue very often when women have small children in terms of fulfilling job commitments.”

“I figured out many years ago that I could make as much money as my male counterparts as long as I believed I could. This is true for any woman. You just have to be able to be worth what you say you are worth. You have to add value to the organization, and you have to be willing to assume an enormous amount of responsibility and pressure that goes along with it. I think many women are not necessarily prepared to step into those roles without a support system and without a good amount of experience.”

“I’ve been fortunate. I think I have always been a valuable part of this university. I think it’s because the people I’ve worked for and up to this point have all been men. I know that there are places where

salary differences exist, but I'm not any lower paid than the lowest paid male vice president."

Much is written in the literature about the leadership differences between men and women. The comparative research of leadership styles between men and women find both the presence and absence of differences between the sexes. Initial studies done in the 1970s, and later research conducted well into the 1980s, identified successful managers exclusively with male traits (Vinnicombe & Kakabadse, 1999). Stereotypical views of men's leadership are results-oriented, assertive, decisive, bold, and hierarchical, much like the masculine stereotype (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001). Women are consistently categorized more as *communal* leaders. Communal leaders are classified more as transformational in their leadership style. However, some research asserts that attributing gender as a source of differences in leadership style is a myth and that the factors that influence leadership relate directly to tenure, age, and individual attitude, not gender (Vinnicombe & Kakabadse, 1999). This supposition is reinforced by a 2005 study of 46 meta-analyses conducted during the last 20 years that shows men and women are alike when considering personality, cognitive ability, and leadership (Hyde, 2005). This longitudinal study presented evidence that gender differences are not stable. That is, they are shown to fluctuate with age, growing smaller or larger at different times during the life of the subject. Because the successful male-oriented leadership style is so strongly embedded in organizations, female

leaders are pressured to conform to it, which can result in confounding research results (Vinnicombe & Kakabadse, 1999).

With one exception, the subjects interviewed for this paper could be categorized as communal leaders with some qualifications. For the most part, they embrace their femininity as a positive aspect to their management style, but they also acknowledge having had to find a balance through the employment of more male-like or agentic leadership qualities. As they have matured and grown into their current leadership positions, most respondents said their leadership style has changed somewhat over the years. However, the acknowledged changes are attributed to personal transformation and not influences of organizational culture:

“I think I have adjusted my leadership style. Giving up control was a big challenge for me. The hardest thing for me to do when I first began to be a manager or supervisor was to learn to delegate. I was used to doing everything myself because then I could control it. It just took more time to tell someone how to do something than to just do it myself.”

“My leadership style is very similar to what my professorial style was and it has changed very little in the last 20 years. I think that I offer parameters and direction and expectations. I make decisions with my head. I’m not a heart person. Now, somebody’s feelings

and those emotions become part of the data for me, but I don't make emotional decisions. And I don't understand people who do."

"My leadership style has changed as I've assumed greater levels of responsibility in my career. I came to realize that I could work 24 hours a day, every day, all the time and still not be able to accomplish the tasks at hand. I could only be successful through the efforts of other people. I now know that the boss knows some things, doesn't know a lot of things, and acts like a traffic cop. And, in my opinion, the boss that I want to work for and the one I try to be is one that doesn't just parcel out all the work but takes part of the burden and therefore earns the respect and cooperation of those people that are working with them."

"I have completely changed from the person I was when I began my career in advancement. I no longer feel like I need to know every last detail. If you have people that you have to micromanage, there's a real problem. Even if they're not qualified, or they don't have the skills, there's other ways for them to gain training and learn the operation. You have got to tell them what the job is and let them go, and let them make mistakes if that's what it takes."

“As my responsibilities have grown, I’d say that my leadership style has changed to one that is more inclusive and nurturing. I like to think that I run an empowered organization and hopefully give those who are a part of the organization the tools and resources they need to get the job done. I see my job is to be clear about what the goals and expectations are, and I think my decision making skills have become more honed over the years. For example, if you’re not pulling your weight, I’ll let you go. It’s not a field that will allow you to linger. It’s just not.”

“I guess I’d call myself a consensus builder, a trait I picked up from my former female supervisors. If I can engage multiple constituency groups, the final decision is usually stronger. I like to get buy-in as early as possible. You can get things done without it, but you pay a big price at the end. I also think, though, that all good leaders have to have good managers. The visionary and the strategist are critical components of an effective team.”

“I don’t think my style has changed at all. I have always tended to be a team leader rather than someone sitting at the top issuing down orders. I work with a plan. That’s sort of the way I lead. I guess if I had a criticism about myself, it would be that I could be more visionary.”

“When I became more comfortable with who I was, I think I changed and became a more effective leader. It made making hard decisions easier. I’m fairly direct and always want a focus and a plan of action. I want to know where we’re going. I want a road map. I don’t mind leading that and I don’t mind supporting. I like to lead by example, but I don’t necessarily believe that a decision should be made by consensus. I’ve experienced some resistance to change along the way, but as long as I had a plan, I was confident in my success.”

“My leadership style has been shaped by a lot of mentors, but I don’t believe it has changed significantly over the years. I’m pretty much an organizer and an analyzer. I kind of have the philosophy that I expect people to do their jobs and I try very much to support them to the best of my ability. I don’t micromanage and I won’t try to solve problems for my employees. I want to try to make them stretch a little bit. I think others would describe me more as ‘supportive’ and ‘dependable’ rather than ‘dictatorial’ or having ‘unrealistic expectations’.”

Self acknowledgement of professional successes has been a difficult task for any of the respondents to embrace without qualification. With a few exceptions, most of the women were content to let their accomplishments speak

for themselves and did not seek, personally or professionally, recognition for their achievements, even when they thought that this aversion to notice might not be in their best interests. This tendency is indicative of leaders who possess high levels of emotional intelligence. Unlike IQ, which most argue does not change throughout one's life, emotional intelligence is a skill that can be developed. In fact, emotional intelligence tends to increase through each decade of life (Lambert, 1998). The respondents appear to be comfortable in giving credit where, they believe, credit is due without jeopardizing their perception of their own success, but most of them agree they also need to credit themselves, too:

"I'm more comfortable in promoting the accomplishments of our group rather than what I might think are my own personal accomplishments."

"I think up until this position, it was real important to me to make sure that I go due credit for what I did. Now, I'm more likely to turn that over and let my staff take credit for that because that's better for all of us."

"I think it is much more effective if others speak to my successes. I'm not shy about it, but I am suspicious of people who spend a great deal of time and effort in self-promotion."

“Even though you go through periods when you’re real confident and you’re just out there running and you’re really feeling good, and then something will happen and it kind of knocks you off your feet. Someone will let you know that women really aren’t supposed to be quite out there.”

“I hate to say this, but I really don’t consider myself my best advocate. I’d like my work to speak for itself or let my team speak to our accomplishments, but I guess that’s not my way. I’m always amazed by men. I mean, it seems like they wake up in the morning and they’re patting themselves on the back.

“I am probably my best and my worst personal advocate. I think my accomplishments should speak for themselves and I shouldn’t have to verbally articulate the things I have done. I’ve moved along the ladder because of my achievements not because I put out a resume or sat down with people and told them why I am the best candidate. So, in that respect, it has definitely been a good thing.”

“I don’t think I’ve done a very good job celebrating my own accomplishments but I am sensitive to not being perceived as too assertive. This may be more generational than anything as I don’t see the same mannerisms I have in younger women.”

“I don’t have a problem saying in the areas I’ve worked in, it has worked out well. I don’t feel like going and gloating about it, but I don’t have a problem saying it when asked.”

“This isn’t easy for me. Something I’ve had to learn to do is if the president compliments me in front of a board member, I have had to learn that there are times that I need to just accept that graciously and go on. It’s only been recently that I’ve been able to say ‘thank you’ and not qualify it.”

General Perceived Self-Efficacy (GSE) Scale

As part of the interview process, each respondent was asked a series of questions that related to the four aspects of self-efficacy. Following the questions, each respondent was asked to complete the General Perceived Self-Efficacy (GSE) questionnaire in an effort to compare their verbal responses to the results of the standardized questionnaire.

Self-efficacy is described as an individual’s judgment of his or her capabilities to organize and execute courses of action necessary to attain a specifically desired level of performance. The four primary factors of self-efficacy are: mastery of experience, which is learning a new skill successfully; vicarious experience, which is modeling your behavior after successful examples; social persuasions, which is the reaction to the verbal judgment of others, good and

bad; and then also the somatic and emotional states, which is how a person reacts when faced with anxiety, stress, or some other challenge.

The scores of each respondent were as follows: Respondent One, 3.7; Respondent Two, 3.7; Respondent Three, 3.6; Respondent Four, 3.7; Respondent Five, 3.7; Respondent Six, 3.9; Respondent Seven, 4.0; Respondent Eight, 4.0; and Respondent Nine, 3.6. The mean score of all respondents was 3.766.

The expanded responses to open-ended questions on each of the four components of self-efficacy were reflective of these scores.

In regard to the first factor, mastery of experience, each of the respondents felt very confident in their ability to learn new skills successfully and apply them to their individual work environments:

“I feel confident in my ability to accomplish any task that is given to me. Now, publicly, I don’t need any recognition. What I do need is two things: I want to be paid in accordance with my contributions and I want to know that my direct supervisor appreciates what I bring to the table.”

“You know, I grew up in the south and it was always ‘what do we wear, what do we eat, what will the neighbors think?’ I’m still concerned about clothes but I gave up a long time ago caring what the neighbors think.”

"Sometimes you don't want public acknowledgement because you don't want the public to know that you didn't already know it. Even if I don't have a complete grip on the situation, I'm pretty good at paddling underneath and looking calm on the outside. As long as my boss knows that I've accomplished this or that specific task, that's all the acknowledgement I need."

"I have a strong, personal belief system about what I can do...about my own professional capabilities...and I know other's opinions can be as important as my own in terms of what I think I can do. If you have a low opinion about yourself, it can affect your ability to produce professionally and emotionally."

"I can learn anything I put my mind to and that's what is important to me. I come from a place that has always said 'good deeds speak for themselves'. Public acknowledgement is nice, but it isn't necessary."

"I may feel very confident about approaching a task and being successful, but there has to be a parallel perception by others that I am competent and capable. It's also important to me that my success is viewed that way, not only by my staff but by the external constituents that I work with, whether they're deans or senior

administrators. If they don't acknowledge that, then the critical trust I need to be successful may not be there."

"I've always been very comfortable and very assured in my abilities to accomplish any task. There's an old expression about a really, really good fundraiser makes their supervisor look good, and I think in many ways I do that exceedingly well."

"Early on in my career, it was important to me when I was taking a leadership role on something that I had some sort of public or community response that reinforced that what I was doing was the right thing. Did I always get it? Not necessarily. But I think I passed through that phase through maturity."

"I have often second guessed myself in terms of my ability to successfully accomplish a task. Often I feel like the jack of all trades and the master of none. I have tried to overcome this personal deficit by listening to others in my profession who have more experience and continually learning from them."

Modeling others' successful behavior is a tactic that each of the respondents said they have done; some with more success than others. However, all of the interviewees recognize that this aspect of self efficacy is extremely important and can have a strong, positive impact on their leadership

capabilities. Additionally, they suggest that there are many paths to achieving success through modeling and that it is critical to adapt successful styles in order to match them to their own or to their organizations' particularly personality:

“Personally, you know, there are people I model who I would like to be more like, and I’m not there. I’m not even close. But I know how I would like for people to perceive me.”

“I think I have a high degree of social awareness so, you know, I’m kind of a student of people. I watch their behaviors and see what works. You know, um, I’m not real quick on the uptake sometimes. I’m always intrigued with how people can do that, and smooth that over. My best skill sets are sometimes just life experiences. I’ve lived it and I know how to manage it.”

“I am always eager to learn what others have done to successfully accomplish a task or project. Your own rendition of that will have its own mark just by circumstance, but if someone can give you a roadmap, I think it’s very smart to follow the roadmap.”

“Learning from others – particularly from men in leadership positions – has been critical to my success. The smartest people aren’t always the most successful. It’s those who know they need to learn what they don’t know who will continue to find success. It’s

people who have the desire, the tenacity, the energy, the synergy...just keep being able to push ahead. Persistence is so much of it. The desire to want to achieve.”

“Modeling successful behavior is one way that I learn. My parents were my first role models for success so I grew up observing what worked well, how they handled challenges, how they interacted with people. When I say model, I mean I’m actually observing. I’m seeing. And I like to be around people who are doing things to see how they do it...particularly around here because this is such a different culture for me.”

“I’m inclined to model the successful behavior of others in order to capture their approach to challenges, their work style, and their leadership style. However, rote imitation isn’t my style at all. I try to gauge what I could do to improve on the process. That may even include sitting down with a mentor and asking some probing questions that dissects a situation into digestible pieces.”

“I think I’m more likely to follow a successful pattern and not necessarily a successful person. I find that I’m often disappointed in people who don’t perform at the level I think they are capable of performing. I know everyone is driven differently, so I want to find

models that will help me retain my staff and maximize their potential for success. I think this has been a challenge for women in leadership positions because I think there is an expectation that, perhaps, women will respond the same way as men, and we're as different as every man out there."

"I think it's natural to take something that is perceived to be successful and adapt parts of it to your own operating system. I'm sure I am more like the people that I've worked with that I've perceived to be successful than I was before I met them. I've always tried to consciously pick and choose the successful things they've demonstrated and carry them forward."

"I'm always trying to look for things that work and apply them to my own professional situation. There is no point in reinventing the wheel. At the same time, I think that modeling must include adapting my own style to a model that is successful because everyone's workplace has its own personality and ideas should be tailored in order to be effective. You're going to hear something new, but you're going to have to put your own stamp on it."

Social persuasions, or how others' opinions affect a person's abilities to succeed or perceive to be successful, are an important component of the self-efficacy equation. In considering this question, the respondents answers vary in

regard to the importance of this aspect in terms of building their belief systems about their professional capabilities to lead:

“I think that I have changed a lot in the past 20 years. When I first started, I think it was terribly important to me that my parents thought I was great or that my peers thought I was great or that superiors thought I was. I don’t worry about that as much any more.”

“You know, someone told me years ago that it didn’t bother Pat Buchanan that he never thought that he couldn’t be president, so he ran anyway. But you and I wouldn’t run unless we thought we could win. We don’t do things unless we think we can be successful. Don’t ask me to do something unless you want it to happen.”

“My opinion has always been more important to me than others’ opinions. I think people who need a lot of external praise are dangerous people possessing a neediness that can verge on desperation. I don’t believe anyone does their best thinking under desperate circumstances. I really don’t. And I think they’re dangerous people because they’re people who will do something that to you looks really half-cocked and I’ve seen many of them crash and burn, you know, cause themselves terrible trouble.”

“Overcoming your own insecurities is critical to achieving success and you have to adopt an attitude, sometimes, of taking it one step at a time. When I feel like this is going to be tough, I can figure out some way to make this work or make this happen, or I’ll get experience or I’ll learn how to do it. I feel like there is nothing much I can’t do as long as I have the right attitude. And I like to think I usually do.”

“I entered higher education directly into the leadership ranks, so I had to have a fair amount of self-belief in order to be successful. This perception is important but I also think it’s important to have reinforcement from my constituencies to ensure that I’m reaching people with my message.”

“The opinion I have about myself and the opinions others hold of me are really interrelated. Success is not achieved in isolation. To be successful early on in my career, I learned that I had to pull in so many different people and resources that I became dependent upon others for success. I think the process is like closing a gift – many people are involved at many different levels and in many different roles, but all of them have an influence on the process, and all of them are very important to the end result.”

“Obviously, producing results in the fundraising world is a big part of whether you’re successful or not. But, even if no accolades are forthcoming, I know intrinsically that getting results will get my organization where it needs to be and I’m comfortable with that. I know how to take this organization and build the blocks that need to make it a good organization. And so if there’s not a lot of feedback from that right now, at least I know it’s moving in the right direction.”

“My life took a real change when I came to grips with who I really was. Prior to that, I think other people’s perceptions of me mattered more than they do now. I just wish I could have come to that realization earlier. I’ve always said that by the time you get enough experience to add value to the organization, you’ve retired.”

“I’ve always been my own worst critic and I suppose my supervisors have always seen my potential before I saw it myself. Even though I have charted a specific path for my own success and I’ve worked hard to obtain advanced degrees, professionally I would have to say that the fact that others believed in me and saw the potential had more to do with my success than anything else.”

The final component of self-efficacy, somatic responses to challenges, was almost uniformly answered by the respondents. None of those interviewed

suggested that they veered away from any sort of challenge in the workplace. Rather, they either embraced proactively or they strategically approached it, broke down its components and tried to solve it more methodically. None of the respondents seemed to have experienced a negative experience when facing a challenge:

“My initial reaction almost always is to jump in and just do something. Just jump in and go. And that’s good and bad. I’m certainly not afraid of a challenge. But sometimes, I don’t always stop and think about you know...okay, back up...take a minute...talk to a few people. It’s always to embrace it.”

“If I’m clear on what I need, of course if I’m smart enough to know what I didn’t know, I don’t mind asking for help. I don’t mind asking for direction. But, once you explain it to me and I have a grip, don’t interfere. You’ve given it to me, so let me have it.”

“I’ll have to admit I’ve experienced fear at times in my career when I’ve faced a challenge that I’m unfamiliar with. But, I try to face them methodically and strategically. I remember a story that my dad told me. He was uneducated yet he talked himself into a job driving earthmovers at a construction site. He’d never driven anything like that before but he said if somebody else could drive that machine, then he could, too. And, following a couple of near misses involving

a cliff, he did. I've always remembered that story. If somebody else could do it, there was a chance that I could learn to do it. And not that I would be born with the knowledge, not that I'm brilliant. But I'm a really good learner and if somebody else could learn it, probably I could learn it. That's pretty much my philosophy."

"Clearly, overcoming insecurities is critical to achieving success. I think you have to take on challenges with an attitude of taking it one step at a time. When I feel like this is going to be tough, I can figure out some way to make this work or make this happen, or I'll get experience or I'll learn how to do it. I feel like there is nothing much I can't do as long as I have the right attitude. And I like to think I usually do."

"In getting something done – because something big, it can be a little overwhelming – I don't flee. What I do is actually just try to shut other stuff down and focus. I'm facing a challenge right now in trying to launch a capital campaign and I'm struggling with managing the expectations that come along with that."

"The initial reaction to any challenge ought to be a positive one. It should just mean that the winds have turned in a different direction and we need to move the sail. If you're a leader, you have to be able

to put a Plan B into place to identify new hurdles and overcome obstacles to success. For me, it's if I don't address it now, it will probably get worse before it gets better. So, as soon as you see it coming, you just deal with it."

"I am more likely to feed on a challenge than flee from it. I came into fundraising at a time when there wasn't much technology and I think, because of that, I am better able than some to break down challenges and see them more clearly than, perhaps, younger professionals out there. For me, those challenges have been the fun kinds of things that I add to my regular workday."

"Ever since I was a young girl, I've always loved challenges and, to be honest, I've always been pretty confident in overcoming any challenge presented to me whether it was swimming across a big pool, running in a race, or putting a school back on the right track. I just haven't ever walked away from a problem. I just haven't done that. Maybe that's the height of stupidity but I just have always felt like if you take the problem, broke it down into small enough pieces, you could eat the whole whale."

"I wasn't ever sure how I would respond to a big challenge until one hit me. My supervisor had been in a terrible motorcycle accident

and I had to assume the duties of controller for the university...and I didn't feel like I was ready for that. However, I knew that there was nothing to do but get it done and to recruit the people I needed to help me get it done...and I did it. I would say that, in retrospect, mine was more the 'fight' mentality rather than the 'flight' mentality. After all, what doesn't kill you will make you stronger."

Results and Analysis of Phase Two

Sample Population

There were 412 individuals who began the survey, but of that figure, only 207 completed *all* questions on the survey. All respondents were professional members of CASE District IV. This sample encompassed advancement professionals from a five state region: Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, New Mexico, and Texas. Advancement professionals for this exercise included chief advancement officers, chief development officers, and other individuals defined as advancement professionals by generally accepted title and areas of assigned responsibility.

Structure of the Survey

The structure of the qualitative surveys provided the basis for the construction of the quantitative survey. The single survey instrument was designed to ask similar questions found in Phase One but included a larger number of individuals. In addition to demographic information, there were several open ended questions provided at the end of the survey that were included based on information gleaned from the qualitative interviews that the

researcher thought would be important to include to enrich the overall context of the data collected. The survey was constructed in three distinct sections with a total of 21 questions. Some questions included scales. See Appendix III for survey instrument.

Profile of the Participants

Of the respondents, 32% were male and 68% were female. The majority, 75%, indicated they were married, 14% were single, and 10% were divorced. More individuals described themselves as working parents (26%) than not (23.5%). The latter percentage could indicate that the respondents either have no children or, as would be suggested by the interviews conducted in Phase One, their children may be grown and out of the house. A small number of respondents (4.1%) defined their spouses as stay at home parents, but the majority of respondents (34.5%) said their spouses are not stay at home parents. An additional 10.7% indicated were not married and, therefore, the question was not applicable.

The length of tenure in the university advancement profession ranged from less than one year to 35 years, with 53.1 percent having 7 years or less experience. The average length of tenure in the field was 9.88 years with a standard deviation of 8.159. The standard Carnegie classification of institutional types was used in the survey. The majority of respondents, 37%, were employed at doctoral/research institutions with a student body in excess of 10,000. Of the remaining respondents, 19% worked for master's degree granting institutions, 14% for doctoral/research institutions with student populations less than 10,000,

11% for baccalaureate degree granting colleges or universities, and 7% for community colleges. The respondents were well educated. Of those who responded, 39% held bachelor's degrees, 39% held master's degrees, and 11% held doctoral degrees. Only two individuals noted holding associate's degrees, with the remaining noting they held "other" degrees.

In regard to this group, 40% said they are not currently pursuing a degree, while 9.5% of the respondents said they are pursuing a degree. When asked for the reasons cited for not pursuing a degree, the majority of the respondents (29.1%) indicated their reasons fell outside the bounds of personal or professional reasons, but the survey did not allow for an alternative choice. An additional 10.2% cited personal reasons, and 1.2% cited professional reasons. When asked for the reasons cited for pursuing a degree, 49% cited their reasons fell outside the bounds of personal or professional reasons. Less than 1% cited professional or both personal and professional reasons for pursuing a degree.

Measures

General Perceived Self-Efficacy (GSE) Scale

The GSE scale was implemented as a means to measure the perceptions of the respondents of their capabilities to organize and execute a course of action that is required to manage a particular situation. An examination of the respondents' scores on the 10-item GSE scale showed a wide spectrum of responses and reinforced its validity in this study. The number of respondents was 207 and the resulting coefficient alpha was .878 with a standard deviation of 4.067. The mean score of all respondents was 16.49.

Revised Causal Dimension Scale (CDSII) Findings

The CDSII scale is designed to assess perceptions of the cause or causes of a specific event. The four attribution variables of locus of causality, stability, internal control, and external control were measured on a 12-item scale. It was included in this study and compared with the GSE scores of each participant to gain a better understanding of how women and men perceive their leadership capabilities. The number of respondents was 207. The variable of locus of causality had a mean score of 17.53 with a score reliability of .459. The variable of stability had a mean score of 15.16 with a score reliability of .559. The variable of internal control had a mean score of 17.07 with a reliability score of .816. The variable of external control had a mean of 12.24 with a reliability score of .705.

Correlations

When comparing self-efficacy to the four attribution variables of locus of causality, stability, internal control, and external control, there are no statistically significant correlations. Male and female respondents possess equal levels of self-efficacy. However, there were several positive correlations to report. The strength of the positive correlation between stability (.343) and locus of causality would be described as medium according to Cohen's (1988) guidelines for the interpretation of a correlation coefficient. The variables of internal control (.639) and locus of causality had a positive and large correlation, and the variables of internal control (.335) and stability had a positive and medium correlation. These findings suggest a dispositional, or internal, point of view on the part of the

respondents is prevalent and that responsibility for success or failure of a particular event is controlled more by the individual rather than by the situation.

TABLE 1
Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Reliabilities

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5
Self-Efficacy	16.49	4.067	(.878)				
Locus of Causality	17.53	5.021	.099	(.459)			
Stability	15.16	4.976	-.012	.343*	(.559)		
Internal Control	17.07	6.201	.130	.639*	.335*	(.816)	
External Control	12.24	5.383	-.052	-.162	.130	1.114	(.705)

Note: $N=207$; Coefficient alphas are shown in parentheses on the diagonal. Correlations that are statistically significant at the $p<.05$ level are asterisked.

Analysis of Variance

The differences in self-efficacy scores between males ($M=16.35$, $SD=3.54$) and females ($M=16.61$, $SD=4.29$) was not statistically significant [$F(1, 201) = 0.17$, $p>.05$]. Each group would seem to hold equal levels of confidence in their overall sense of self and their abilities to respond to any given situation. When examining locus of causality, the differences in scores between males ($M=16.88$, $SD=3.98$) and females ($M=17.85$, $SD=5.18$) was not statistically significant [$F(1, 82) = 0.70$, $p>.05$]. This tells us that the men and women who responded to this exercise not only possess similar levels of self-efficacy but also hold a shared belief in their dispositional points of view. The

differences in stability scores between males ($M=13.88$, $SD=4.57$) and females ($M=15.59$, $SD=4.90$) was statistically significant [$F(1, 201) = 5.66$, $p < .05$]. This suggests that men hold a stronger belief in their perceptions of a situation are less prone to change than women. The differences in internal control scores between males ($M=15.68$, $SD=5.95$) and females ($M=17.79$, $SD=6.01$) was also statistically significant [$F(1, 201) = 5.50$, $p < .05$]. This would suggest that women feel they have a greater perception than men in their personal ability to influence or affect outcomes of a particular situation. The differences in external control scores between males ($M=12.25$, $SD=4.70$) and females ($M=12.01$, $SD=5.40$) was not statistically significant [$F(1, 201) = .094$, $p > .05$]. This would suggest that abilities to control external influences are perceived in predominantly the same way between men and women.

CDSII Results Along Gender Lines

An examination of the findings purely along gender lines revealed significant differences between men and women in their determination of who, in the CDSII workplace scenario, was ultimately awarded the job. While more males chose the internal candidate (48.5%), they were slightly less likely to choose the external candidate (40.9%). Interestingly, women were much more likely to choose the external candidate (57.4%) compared to the internal candidate (36.07%). These results were statistically significant [$\chi^2(2) = 4.92$] at the .085 level.

Examination of the Open Ended Questions

In regard to the question, "Why did you choose a career in this profession?", the respondents were almost evenly divided in acknowledging that their entry into the field of institutional advancement was intentional versus unintentional. Of the respondents to the survey, a majority 24.5% stated their entry into the profession was an intentional choice. An additional 19.7% stated that their entry into the profession was an unintentional choice. This varies significantly from the responses given by the respondents in Phase One and warrants further study in regard to influencing factors, particularly age and gender.

A sampling of responses provides additional insight to these statistics:

"I stumbled into it and enjoyed it so much I stayed in the profession."

"I believe in fundraising and the many opportunity it holds for those who acquire skills necessary to advance in the field. The university setting is one that I have recently fallen in love with and I intend to remain at a university for the majority of my career (that is my plan for now). I enjoy being surrounded by academics and learning about the wonderful research projects that they are working on campus-wide."

“I chose this career because I believe deeply in the promise of education and think of educational institutions as sacred in our society.”

“Attending college had a dramatic impact on my life. After working in the state legislature, I decided to go into higher education and thought my personality and skills fit best with external affairs and fundraising.”

“I worked for 8 years in the corporate advertising/publishing industry. I wanted to return to my alma mater to work, to work in a more fulfilling environment where I could make a positive difference.”

“I prefer the organizational structure and atmosphere of the non-profit industry, and I am turned off by the business practices of the corporate industry.”

“I fell into the profession by assignment to the development office as a college work study employee. I developed a passion for higher education and discovered a natural skill set for success in fundraising during college and pursued it after graduation.”

“I enjoy the combination of strategic, analytical thinking and connecting people and building relationships for the success of a higher purpose.”

“I have been in the business communication consulting field for the last four years--and wanted my work to mean something.”

“It was a natural outgrowth of volunteering experiences. - Offered flexible hours for family, work-life balance - Offered opportunity to help make the world a better place.”

In regard to the question, “To what do you attribute your success in this profession?”, a wide variety of responses was received, but a majority 31.3% indicated that their individual success was internally driven without the assistance of mentoring. The next highest percentage of individuals (6.8%) indicated that their success is attributable to both internal and external drivers, but still without the assistance of mentoring.

A sampling of responses provides additional insight to these statistics:

“Mainly, people find me loyal and likeable. I don't believe I profess superior technical or professional skills.”

“Hard work, discipline, tenacity, taking risks, getting out of my comfort zone as often as possible, a couple of great mentors.”

“Tenacity.”

“Personal skills, timing, and hard work.”

“Hard work, perseverance, good instincts about people, a strong sense of fairness, a willingness to put the institution first and a disinterest in partisan/territorial issues, and a tendency toward a rational/analytical approach to my work.”

“My mentor encouraged me to pursue this career and gave me the freedom to be creative within the university administration. He seemed to recognize my abilities before I even realized them!”

“Personal effort and talents that are God-given and managed.”

“Hard work, staying current with latest research and policy, the ability to depersonalize, communication and consensus building.”

“Ability to think strategically, create lasting relationships, manage people and projects, pure hard work and a sense of humor.”

“I haven't achieved success yet. Ask me next year!”

In regard to the question, “Can you describe a “defining moment” in your advancement career that had an impact on your success as a leader?”, a majority 19.2% of respondents stated that they had “no defining moment.” The next highest percentage of individuals (15.3%) indicated that their “defining moment” was attributable to external influences, and not something that they perceived to be internal.

A sampling of responses provides additional insight to these statistics:

“Not really. I think a culmination of striving for accuracy and being willing to hear multiple sides on an issue then stress a consensus approach.”

“Sitting down with my president one day and telling him that if he did not make some immediate changes, he was going to be fired. From that day on, I had his respect and that of the senior administration.”

“Being asked a tough question by a VP and answering it, knowing that it was not what he wanted to hear. It was the same question he had asked others, and I was the only one to not tell him what he wanted to hear, but what he needed to hear. I gained respect that day, and in turn have been given a greater leadership role in the organization.”

“An undeserved criticism about my performance actually helped me focus more on the 'continuing educational' side of the field and resulted

in better production and a more organized method of completing projects and campaigns.”

“I am not really the leader yet. I know I have leadership skills, however, I am still a development officer. I look forward to the day I will be offered the chance to advance in this department.”

“I think my career success has been more of a gradual evolution than a particular (one or two) "defining moments.”

“Yes, when I decided to take myself to the next level and got myself noticed.”

“I have had really great bosses and really horrible bosses.... along the way, I learned what works. And I don't believe in "brown-nosing" your way to the top. As a result, I will never be at the "top.”

“My first supervisor, the vice president of advancement for Texas Scottish Rite Hospital for Children, was exactly what I wanted to be as a leader. During my first month of employment, I made a large mistake which cost the institution a six-figure gift. She brought me in privately and told me that if I ever made the mistake again, I would be immediately terminated. Several months later, she brought me in to her

office and informed me that a colleague of hers (with greater seniority at the institution) had told her that I had made a similar major error. She asked me to prove that I had not. When I did so, she told me that she knew I hadn't, and had bet the colleague one month's salary. Because she believed in me, I learned to believe in myself. Because I learned to believe in myself, I began to teach others to believe in themselves. This is how I have derived much success as leader.”

“I left work at 8:30 one evening and asked myself what I thought someone else would be doing with that job. I was confused, feeling inadequate and uncomfortable with everything, working long hours and feeling like I was treading water. In that moment I opened the door to a different approach to work which has ultimately been of benefit to the university and me. I'm more effective with this job and the university is reaping the rewards of two strong leaders who complement each other and are thriving doing work they love.”

“Supporting my husband in his doctoral studies and pursuit of a teaching career and then being divorced from him two years later - and saying that I would never again put someone else's career ahead of my own.”

“When a male mentor told me that if I would not take care of myself, no one else would.”

“My first thought is that I'm still waiting for that!”

“Moving from Director of Development to Associate Vice President for Development after one year on the job was a defining moment in my advancement career. The fact that I raised more than \$13 million for an Historically Black College/University in 12 months helped me to reach this milestone.”

“No, I think of my career as a continuum, with many little “defining moments” along the way - primarily my experiences with several women mentors who have worked at different times in this area, all of whom were very smart, very real and who believed strongly in the “lift as you go” philosophy of working and living.”

Chapter Summary

Nine women participated in Phase One of this study. With the exception of GSE scores, all responses were examined and analyzed qualitatively. In Phase Two of this study, a larger number of respondents (N=207) was analyzed. Descriptive statistics, correlation coefficients, and ANOVA were utilized in analyzing the responses.

It was hypothesized that 1) an internal locus of control coupled with high levels of self-efficacy would positively correlate to positive perceptions of leadership success; and 2) an external locus of control coupled with low levels of self-efficacy will positively correlate to negative perceptions of leadership success.

In regard to the first hypothesis, Phase One participants demonstrated high levels of self-efficacy and a demonstrated internal locus of control as derived from an examination of their qualitative interviews. Therefore the first hypothesis was accepted and the second hypothesis was rejected.

In regard to the second hypothesis, Phase One participants did not demonstrate an external locus of control nor did they have low GSE scores. This resulted in a rejection of the hypothesis. Within Phase Two, self-efficacy measures between men and women were found to have no significant variation. However, there were several significant correlations found between men and women among the attribution variables of locus of causality, stability, internal control, and external control. This indicates that while confidence in abilities to respond to particular situations are relatively equal between men and women, way in which they respond to those situations varies depending on the perceptions held by each group in regard to the origin of causality.

Chapter Five will conclude the study with a discussion of these findings, conclusions, limitations of the study, and recommendations for future research.

Chapter Five

Summaries, Conclusions, and Recommendations

This chapter presents the conclusions drawn from the results of this study and the implications for leaders in the field of university advancement. This study provides critical new information to a field of study that is sorely lacking in empirical research. In particular, information gleaned from the responses of women will provide useful data for the formulation of new strategies to prepare members of this group to assume greater responsibility in the field of institutional advancement and educate the current leadership of the value of diversifying the leadership ranks of the profession. The research will more clearly define the characteristics possessed by women who have been successful in achieving leadership positions in university advancement operations. The limitations of the study and suggestions for further research in the areas of women and leadership in the field of university advancement will be discussed.

Discussion

This study was an attempt to find and provide insight into the role of women as leaders in the field of institutional advancement. Within the last decade, the profession has moved to be predominantly female in all areas except recognized positions of leadership. There are many questions that should be asked in relation to this current professional reality about why women are less equitably represented at the highest levels of advancement leadership. Is this a result of the historic male hegemony within the leadership ranks of the academy? Could this be as a result of women not being aggressive enough advocates on

their own behalf? Are social or cultural influences at play in the slow progression of women to the leadership levels of the advancement ranks? The current study sought to examine a number of intrinsic and extrinsic variables and their impact on the perceptions held by women of their ability to achieve success as leaders in the field of institutional advancement.

Results

Three research questions were proposed in Chapter Two. The research questions asked: a) What are the beliefs women hold regarding the affect their workplace culture has on female leadership success in the area of university advancement?; b) How has gender role socialization affected women's perceived leadership opportunities within university advancement operations?; and c) Do males and females in university advancement differ in attribution style and self-efficacy?

Phase One Qualitative Interviews

Organizational Culture Observations

All nine female vice presidents interviewed for this study suggested that the workplace culture has had negative impacts on them at various times throughout their careers in university advancement. A number of the respondents reported restrictions in accessing existing networks or being "forgotten" when meetings of male colleagues were convened. One respondent described the culture as "patriarchal" while another suggested that successful women might not be comfortable with their success due to a sense of not having earned it in the same way men do. All women said they benefited from mentoring early on and

throughout their careers. There was a general agreement that each of the respondents had to succeed in spite of the organizational culture rather than because of the organizational culture. They believed their organizations had entrenched external (unstable) influences that would be easier to overcome than to change.

The responses given by these women may not be representative of those women who live in other regions of the country. Many of the respondents were from the South which may have a stronger, negative influence on women seeking leadership positions. The culture of the southern United States is very entrenched in terms of gender roles and women historically have encountered greater resistance in achieving leadership equality.

Gender Role Socialization

The respondents noted that they made personal sacrifices men did not have to make in order to achieve success within their organizations. Each expressed in one way or another having to step outside expected traditional roles in order to effectively adapt to the culture in which they worked. In one particular instance, the respondent noted that she and her husband switched traditional roles with her being the primary earner and he being the stay at home parent. Those women who had children expressed regret at giving up time spent with their kids in order to prove their effectiveness at their jobs. The majority of respondents were from the South and many suggested that existing “old boy networks” had some observed hesitations toward women who achieved positions of leadership.

Attribution and Self-Efficacy

Each of the respondents scored very high on the 10-point GSE scale. Because no men were interviewed in Phase One, these responses are not comparable. However, in regard to attributions for leadership success, the respondents primarily exhibited internal locuses of causality that were stable and internally controlled, as well as unstable and externally controlled.

Phase Two Quantitative Findings

General Perceived Self-Efficacy Scale (GSE) Findings

There were 207 individuals who completed the GSE scale. The mean score of all respondents was 16.49, and the coefficient alpha was .878 with a standard deviation of 4.067. The mean score of these responses were significantly lower than the scores of the Phase One respondents. However, the male and female respondents in Phase Two held positions within university advancement that ranged from entry-level development professionals to senior level administrators. It is not surprising, then, that the female nine vice presidents interviewed in Phase One would score cumulatively higher on the GSE.

Revised Causal Dimension Scale (CDSII) Findings

When compared to women, a higher percentage of men (48.5% compared to 36%) determined that they would be the selected candidate for the workplace scenario in the CDSII. The percentages were significantly reversed when men and women determined that the external candidate got the job (40.9% compared to 57.4%). These findings indicate that men are more confident in their candidacies for a position of Vice President for Institutional Advancement than

are women. This provides anecdotal support as to why there are more men than women in such positions in the advancement profession.

Reliability

The data from questions 3 and 4 in the first section of the quantitative survey were analyzed for reliability by employing the revised Causal Dimension Scale (CDSII) solution offered in the McAuley, Duncan, and Russell (1992) article where the CDSII was first introduced in the literature. The coefficient alpha was calculated on each of the four control constructs – locus of causality, external control, stability and personal (internal) control – to determine the internal consistency of these four scales. An examination of the results of each of the four scales of the CDSII showed strong reliability for internal control (.816) and external control (.705). However, there were reliability concerns for variables of stability (.559) and locus of causality (.459) as they fell below the acceptable range of .70.

A number of explanations can be inferred by these results. The scale itself could be problematic based on the small number of responses analyzed in this study. Additionally, these results could be as a result of the respondent's interpretation of the scenario and his or her subsequent responses.

Correlations

The men and women who responded to the survey exhibited equal levels of self-efficacy. So, in terms of their sense of ability to control a particular situation, gender did not have an impact. Three positive correlations were found among the variables in the attribution scale. There was a medium positive

correlation between stability (.343) and locus of causality, internal control (.639) and locus of causality had large positive correlation, and internal control (.335) and stability had a positive and medium correlation.

These results suggest that the respondents have a general perception that they have influence on the outcome of who is ultimately selected as the candidate for Vice President of Institutional Advancement in the CDSII workplace scenario. That is, there appears to be a dispositional, or internal, point of view on the part of the respondents that responsibility for success or failure of a particular event is controlled more by the individual rather than by the situation. These results positively reinforce the first hypothesis presented in the study.

However, these results might also indicate that a person with a low self-efficacy score would perceive their influence on affecting the outcome of who is chosen for the job is outside of their locus of control. This is an area that warrants further study,

Discussion of the Analysis of Variance Findings

The ANOVA found no statistically significant differences in self-efficacy scores between males ($M=16.35$, $SD=3.54$) and females ($M=16.61$, $SD=4.29$) [$F(1, 201) = 0.17$, $p>.05$]. Each group would seem to hold equal levels of confidence in their overall sense of self and their abilities to respond to any given situation so it begs the question why there are not equal numbers of women in leadership positions in university advancement operations. The answer, of course, is that confidence alone is often not enough to advance to the leadership ranks. Other

factors, not the least of which is organizational culture, come in to play when leadership opportunities come in to consideration.

In regard to locus of causality, there were also no statistically significant differences in scores between males ($M=16.88$, $SD=3.98$) and females ($M=17.85$, $SD=5.18$) [$F(1, 82) = 0.70$, $p > .05$]. Men and women would appear to possess similar dispositional points of view. In other words, they react from within rather than as a result of a situational shaping their perspective. This coupled with a high level of self-efficacy would suggest a strong potential for intrinsic leadership capabilities.

There were measured differences in stability scores between males ($M=13.88$, $SD=4.57$) and females ($M=15.59$, $SD=4.90$) [$F(1, 201) = 5.66$, $p < .05$]. The findings suggest that men who hold a stronger, internal point of view in regard to a situation may be less prone to change that point of view than women. While this might suggest inflexibility by some, it may be that a male-dominated work culture would perceive this as decisive. As the literature shows, women are often stereotyped as collaborators rather than singular decision makers.

The differences in internal control scores between males ($M=15.68$, $SD=5.95$) and females ($M=17.79$, $SD=6.01$) was also statistically significant [$F(1, 201) = 5.50$, $p < .05$]. The findings indicate that women perceive they have a greater personal ability to influence or affect outcomes of a particular situation. This would underscore the generally accepted theory that women are more communal than agentic when it comes to leadership. Collaboration, persuasion,

and team-building would be concepts that are traditionally more associated with the female leader, so this finding is not surprising.

The variable of external control was not significantly different between males ($M=12.25$, $SD=4.70$) and females ($M=12.01$, $SD=5.40$) [$F(1, 201) = .094$, $p>.05$]. There would appear, then, to be a shared sense between men and women in their abilities to affect or control external influences.

Findings for Organizational Culture Questions

When considering the influences of gender, the importance of receiving and providing mentorship opportunities, and perceptions of leadership style on respondents' perceptions of leadership success, no correlations were found. A subsequent examination of the mean scores showed nearly identical results between male and female respondents when considering the same variables.

These findings suggest that, as a whole, both male and female respondents to these organizational culture questions indicated that the variables of gender, mentoring, and leadership style did not positively or negatively impact their perceptions of how they are perceived in their workplaces or on how they perceive their leadership success.

An examination of external control and gender showed an interesting effect between men and women. Specifically, the data indicates that, for men, external control increases as professional tenure increases. Conversely, for women, external control decreases as professional tenure increases. These findings could indicate a number of things and should be considered anecdotal unless given further examination. However, this information could suggest that

women enter the profession with greater optimism in regard to their leadership potential than they ultimately realize as their tenure in the profession increases. It could be that, when entering the profession, women are less likely to hold supervisory or leadership positions but that as they advance professionally and gain greater entrée into the leadership ranks, they may feel stymied by their lack of ability to affect change (i.e., be perceived as decision makers). Because the literature underscores the fact that this field is comprised with a majority of female employees overall but that the preponderance of leadership positions is held by men, this explanation would make sense. Conversely, and in keeping with the overall leadership structure of the profession, the data could indicate that the traditional leadership trajectory for men into key decision making positions is perceived by the men responding to this survey as the natural progression for their careers.

An Examination of the Open Ended Questions

In regard to the question, "Why did you choose a career in this profession?", the respondents were almost evenly divided in acknowledging that their entry into the field of institutional advancement was intentional versus unintentional. This varies significantly from the responses given by the respondents in Phase One and warrants further study in regard to influencing factors, particularly age and gender.

In regard to the question, "To what do you attribute your success in this profession?", a majority indicated that their individual success was internally driven without the assistance of mentoring. The next highest percentage of

individuals indicated that their success is attributable to both internal and external drivers, but still without the assistance of mentoring. These results are interesting in that the respondents in Phase One uniformly state that mentoring played a significant role in their rise to leadership positions within the field of institutional advancement. The literature also states that mentoring is considered to be a critical component for women in achieving leadership success. These responses warrant further study particularly in the influence of mentoring in perceptions of leadership success.

In regard to the question, "Can you describe a "defining moment" in your advancement career that had an impact on your success as a leader?", a majority of respondents stated that they had "no defining moment." The researcher included this question as a means to determine if there were, indeed, areas of influence on perceptions of leadership success that needed to be examined but had not, as of yet, been described in the literature.

Limitations

A notable limitation to this study is found in the number of people who responded to the Phase Two web-based survey. Based on previously distributed surveys by CASE, the researcher expected a much higher response rate than was ultimately received. Because more than half of the initial respondents to the survey elected for one reason or another not to complete the survey, the amount of data analyzed was more limited than was anticipated. A significant drop off of respondents occurred following Question 3 of the survey which was the lengthy workplace scenario and which required an open-ended response from the

participants. The response rate might have been better sustained by placing the CDSII portion of the survey in the second or third section of the document.

Implications for Leaders in Institutional Advancement

Those who are leading institutional advancement operations can learn much from the data provided in this study. First, it would behoove those who lead to understand the concept and the importance of self-efficacy and attribution theory for themselves and, perhaps to a greater degree, for their subordinates. As high levels of self-efficacy are critical to leadership success, and understanding the attribution of causality is equally as important, it would be wise for leaders to examine self-efficacy levels within their own staffs. This would allow for identification of individuals well-suited for the assumption of leadership positions. More importantly, however, it would allow leaders to provide the necessary support and training to effectively groom future leaders in the profession – particularly women.

Where causality is unclear or ambiguous, attributional style becomes more relevant (Peterson, Maier, & Seligman, 1993) for both leaders and followers. Situations that are perceived to be multidimensional in cause or construct, or that may lack an explanation that can be easily associated with social or cultural influences, provide a broad spectrum for diverse attributions. When this happens, an individual is likely to resort to his or her own perceptions about why things happen in a particular way. Therefore, if a pattern cannot be easily attributed to the “norm” of an organization, it is important that researchers be aware of how those decisions are attributed (Ashforth and Fugate, 2006).

Implications for Future Research

Several interesting items are worth mentioning that the researcher believes would deserve additional examination in future research. In regard to gender and opportunities for advancement, 45% of respondents rather disagreed or completely disagreed that gender has positively influenced their opportunities for advancement. Additionally, 43% of respondents rather disagreed or completely disagreed that their gender has contributed to the creation of barriers to advancement in their profession. Also, 71% of survey respondents either completely agreed or rather agreed that gender influences how others perceive their leadership potential. The data was examined to determine if any of these questions were answered predominantly by male respondents or female respondents. No predominance was found.

In regard to mentoring, the majority of respondents completely agreed or rather agreed that they received positive mentoring experiences throughout their careers and, in fact, that it was important for them to positively mentor others. However, as has been previously stated, the responses to the open-ended question about mentoring suggested a completely opposite response. A majority of those responding to the question (31.3%) attributed their success to internal factors and that mentoring played no role.

In regard to leadership style, 80% of those responding to the statement “I would describe my leadership style with the following terms: nurturing, empathetic, team player” either completely agreed or rather agreed that their leadership style would be described in this manner. Additionally, the following

statement on the survey “I would describe my leadership style with the following terms: decisive, assertive, team leader” resulted in 82% of respondents either completely agreeing or rather agreeing. An analysis was run to see if there was a preponderance of gender influencing either question. None was found. This could suggest that both men and women who responded to this survey believe that they possess a nearly equal measure of *communal* and *agentic* qualities when considering their leadership style.

After conducting the interviews, analyzing the data, and reflecting on the information provided throughout the entire process, I found that there are promising changes being wrought within the culture of an institutional advancement operation. Of the respondents in Phase One of the data collection, there was a slight but not imperceptible generational difference in the approach to leadership opportunities. Women over the age of 55 were more inclined to have adopted agentic qualities in their leadership styles throughout their careers, while women younger than 55 seemed more inclined to have a more balanced leadership style. That is, they adopted equal parts of agentic and communal leadership qualities. As an individual breaking into these same leadership ranks, I found myself profoundly grateful to those women who had blazed the trail before me and contributed to the culture shift within institutional advancement operations.

New Theories

Many theories have been and will continue to be proffered that try to explain the lack of female leadership within organizations. While the glass ceiling

theory has been the most prevalent, there are some theories that suggest different reasons for this phenomenon. One recently spotlighted theory is that women are not fully represented not because of discrimination or organizational culture, but rather because they are making the deliberate choice not to grab the brass ring of leadership. Coined as the *Opt-Out Revolution*, some suggest this movement has developed as a result of women changing their life priorities once they become mothers (Belkin, 2003; Wallis, 2004). This theory is explained with research that points to 26 percent of women at the cusp of a senior level promotion turn it down (Catalyst, 2003). Additionally, a study done by Fortune magazine found that of the 108 women who have appeared on its list of the 50 most powerful women over the years, 20 have chosen to leave their jobs for a less stressful existence (Catalyst, 2006).

However, the data stand in opposition to the media attention recently given to this topic. In spite of the personal anecdotes shared in many news articles, research shows women are not dropping out of the labor force due to child-based decisions. Rather, these declining labor force participation rates directly correlate to economic downturns that began in 2000 (Boushey, 2005). Regardless of what popular media might suggest, research shows that most women are very conflicted about leaving the workforce. Women who have invested in years of education and additional time in professional development have used these experiences to help shape a large part of their identities. If a woman does make the decision to leave the workforce, the data suggest it is often due to employers not making a concerted effort to alter the working

environment to better fit the lives of working mothers (Catalyst, 2007). This provides additional reinforcement to the negative influences of organizational culture on women's professional advancement as outlined in the literature review.

However, a new theoretical perspective is challenging the glass ceiling as an analogy for limited leadership opportunities for women. A new theory explaining the lack of representation of women in the leadership ranks suggests the glass ceiling is, in fact, a myth. Eagly and Carli (2007) propose that women are not crashing into a glass ceiling in their attempts to reach the top of the leadership ranks but rather stumbling over the many visible and invisible obstacles that are thrown in their path on their way up the corporate ladder. The researchers suggest that the glass ceiling metaphor describes "an absolute barrier at a specific high level in organizations" (p. 64). By suggesting that there is only one defined barrier that limits women from reaching the executive suite fails to consider the complexity of the many challenges that women face along their leadership journeys and not just when they get near the top. In fact there is little evidence that indicates the odds are stacked higher against women with each step up the ladder. It appears, instead, that a general bias against women operates at all levels (Eagly & Carli, 2007). "If we want to make better progress, it's time to rename the challenge" (Eagly & Carli, 2007, p. 64).

Eagly and Carli encourage women and organizations to consider this challenge more as a labyrinth rather than a glass ceiling. The labyrinth as a symbol conveys the idea of a complex and often arduous path toward a wanted

goal. "Passage through a labyrinth is not simple or direct, but requires persistence, awareness of one's progress, and a careful analysis of the puzzles that lie ahead" (Eagly & Carli, 2007, p. 64). In examining the leadership landscape, it appears only a few women have successfully navigated this labyrinth to land at the center of power. But as for the rest "there is usually no single turning point where their progress was diverted and the prize was lost" (Eagly & Carli, 2007, p. 69). Not surprisingly, it appears that the most fateful turns in these organizational labyrinths are the ones taken that relate directly to family responsibilities. Women, more than men, are most likely to interrupt their careers for the family and, therefore, collectively accumulate less job experience. This, in turn, tends to slow their career progress and reduce their earning capacity (Blau & Kahn, 2007).

If organizations and women begin to change their perspective and view their path to leadership in this new prism, changes may follow. Accepting the glass ceiling metaphor suggests women are looking *up* and can see where their ultimate goal lies but continue to be stymied by that invisible barrier to leadership success. This ground-level perplexity and frustration make every move uncertain (Eagly & Carli, 2007, p. 71). However, if one were to look *down* upon a labyrinth, the obstacles and wrong turns seem infinitely more solvable, and the right path easier to navigate. "When the eye can take in the whole of the puzzle – the starting position, the goal, and the maze of walls – solutions begin to suggest themselves" (Eagly & Carli, 2007, p. 71)

Conclusion

This study provides important insight into the internal and external drivers that are held by women (and men) in the field of institutional advancement and how those drivers positively or negatively affect their perceptions of leadership success. Self-efficacy is a critical component for each individual to understand in order to appropriately grow, adapt and, ultimately, effectively lead an organization if that is where their professional goals lie. Understanding how we attribute our efforts toward leadership success plays an equally important role.

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APPENDIX I

Qualitative Interview Questions

USER CODE _____

PROJECT TITLE

The Ties that Blind:

The Role of Self Efficacy in Leadership Development for Women Fundraisers

Introduction

My name is Kayla Acebo and I am a PhD candidate at the University of Oklahoma in Tulsa. I am conducting my dissertation research in the area of women and leadership. Specifically, I am attempting to examine the internal (self-imposed) and external (organizationally instituted) barriers to women in leadership development in the field of fundraising at institutions of higher education. Part of my data gathering will include personal interviews such as this. This will take no more than one hour.

Background of Research

I am a practicing professional in the field of fundraising, holding the position of Assistant Vice President for Development at the University of Oklahoma – Tulsa. My research interest has been an extension of my professional life for many years. This is a field where females represent approximately 61 percent of the profession but only 14 percent of the top leadership positions (e.g. chief advancement officers). Through a series of prepared questions followed up with various standardized open-ended questions and the administration of the General Perceived Self Efficacy test, this research will attempt to discover the factors that contribute to this significant imbalance in leadership equity.

My Role in this Process

I will be acting as the interviewer and facilitator in this process. With your permission I will be tape recording the entire interview and will provide a transcript for you within ten working days. If at anytime during the interview you feel uncomfortable with the taping of the conversation, please tell me and I will turn the recording off. Your anonymity will be guaranteed and you will not be identified by name. I will be asking a series of questions that will focus on challenges that have historically presented obstacles for women in assuming leadership positions (e.g. the glass ceiling concept), while also examining internal drivers that guide decision making.

QUESTIONS

First, let's begin by gathering some basic background information about your tenure in higher education fundraising.

1. Tell me how you came to first work in the field of educational fundraising.
2. Please tell me how many years have you worked in the profession and describe for me the various fundraising positions you have held.

Now, let's examine external issues that may or may not have presented challenges to your advancement to your position of leadership. These will focus on structural and attitudinal factors that have been cited by reports such as the Glass Ceiling Commission as being leadership barriers to women.

<http://www.ilr.cornell.edu/library/downloads/keyWorkplaceDocuments/GlassCeilingRecommendations.pdf>.

1. Networking is defined as developing business contacts for your business relationships, increase your knowledge, expand your business base, or serve your community. In your advancement to the position you hold today, how important has networking been for you?
 - a. Has your network been more internal (e.g. within your own institution) or more external (e.g. through colleagues who work outside your own institution)?
 - b. Do you believe you have ever been restricted in your access to important networks?
2. In your opinion, how has your being a woman impacted your perceived value to the organizations for which you have worked?
 - a. Have you experienced salary parity?
 - b. Have you experienced promotion parity?
3. Because you are a woman, has your ability or your commitment to fulfill your professional duties ever been questioned either directly or through other means?
 - a. Have you ever experienced a loss of a job promotion?
 - b. Have you had any negative performance evaluations?
4. Have you ever had a role model who has contributed to our professional success? Describe your experience with role models.
 - a. Were your role models primarily female or male?

- b. Were they within the organizations for which you worked, or were they found elsewhere?
- c. How did you find them?

Bennis and Nanus (1997) describe leadership as the act of articulating and defining what has previously remained implicit or unsaid; then they invent images, metaphors and models that provide a focus for new attention...an essential factor in leadership is the capacity to influence and organize meaning for members of the organization.

5. How would you describe your leadership style?
 - a. Has your leadership style changed over the years?
6. Do you believe that perceptions of the traditional social and occupational roles of men and women influence hiring or promotion decisions in fundraising?
7. How would you describe your ability to professionally promote yourself over the years?
 - a. Would you describe yourself as your best personal advocate?
 - b. Would you describe yourself as reticent to talk about your successes?

**Self-efficacy
is defined as
an individual's judgment
of his or her capabilities
to organize and execute courses of action
necessary to attain
a specifically desired level of performance.
(Bandura, 1977)**

Now I would like to take some time to ask some questions about internal drivers and motivators. Specifically, I am going to ask questions that relate to the four primary factors of self-efficacy; mastery of experience; vicarious experience (modeling); social persuasions (exposure to the verbal judgment of others); and somatic and emotional states (anxiety, stress and arousal).

Examples of these factors are:

- **Mastery of Experience:** Learning a new skill successfully and being successful in applying that skill.
- **Vicarious Experience:** Watching the success of others and modeling your behavior to experience the same sort of success.

- Social Persuasions: Experiencing success through positive reinforcement from others.
 - Reactions to somatic and emotional states: How an individual reacts to a particular situation based on his or her emotional reactions.
1. Please think of a particular task that you would identify as a challenging experience to master (ex: strategic planning, capital campaign execution, personal decisions, budget management, etc.) Now consider your success in mastering that particular task.
 - a. How important is public acknowledgement of your success?
 - b. How important is self acknowledgement of your success?
 2. Would you say that you are more or less inclined to model the successful behavior of others when attempting to master a new challenge? Why or why not?
 3. In reflecting on your career, has the opinion of yourself or others been more important in building your belief system about your professional capabilities?
 4. How influential is your initial emotional reaction in determining how successful you will be in completing that task? (e.g. Does experiencing negative thoughts or fears about your capabilities lower your perception of your ability to do the job?)

The General Perceived Self Efficacy Scale

Self efficacy is commonly understood as being very specific. In other words, you can have more or less firm beliefs about your capabilities in different areas or in particular situations of functioning. The purpose of the following set of questions is to determine your level of general self efficacy. Please answer each question using the following response format:

- 1 – Not at all true
- 2 – Barely true
- 3 – Moderately true
- 4 – Exactly true

1. I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough.

1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---
2. If someone opposes me, I can find the ways and means to get what I want.

1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---

3. I am certain that I can accomplish my goals.
1 2 3 4
4. I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events.
1 2 3 4
5. Thanks to my resourcefulness, I can handle unforeseen situations.
1 2 3 4
6. I can solve most problems if I invest the necessary effort.
1 2 3 4
7. I can remain calm when facing difficulties because I can rely on my coping abilities.
1 2 3 4
8. When I am confronted with a problem, I can find several solutions.
1 2 3 4
9. If I am in trouble, I can think of a good solution.
1 2 3 4
10. I can handle whatever comes my way.
1 2 3 4

This concludes the questions I needed to ask.

Is there anything you would care to add?

If necessary, may I contact you for follow up questions?

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

NAME: _____

TITLE: _____

INSTITUTION: _____

MAILING ADDRESS: _____

YEARS IN ADVANCEMENT (circle one): 1-5 6-10 11-15 16-20 21+

HIGHEST LEVEL OF EDUCATION COMPLETED: (circle one):

HIGH SCHOOL AA/AS BA/BS MA/MS PHD/EDD

ARE YOU PURSUING A DEGREE CURRENTLY (circle one): YES NO

IF YES, ARE YOU PURSUING A DEGREE FOR PERSONAL OR PROFESSIONAL REASONS (circle one): PERSONAL PROFESSIONAL

AGE: _____

MARITAL STATUS (circle one): Single Married Significant Other

ETHNICITY (optional): _____

NUMBER OF CHILDREN: _____

APPENDIX II

Phase One Qualitative Question Coding Instrument

The research question:

This study will examine women and their leadership status within the field of university advancement, and the internal and external factors and influences that shaped their professional development to positions of leadership. The specific question to be examined is, "What are the defining characteristics of women who have achieved executive leadership roles within university advancement?"

The definition of Self Efficacy:

Self-efficacy is defined as an individual's judgment of his or her capabilities to organize and execute courses of action necessary to attain a specifically desired level of performance.

Coding areas for examination in the transcripts:

The following focus areas are of particular importance to me for my research and I am studying the interviews for information that supports or contradicts them. I have created a codebook to note the responses in the following areas:

<u>ITEM</u>	<u>COLUMN</u>
RESPONDENT'S ID	1 – 3
 <u>DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION</u>	
Respondent's Age	4
1. 30 – 39	
2. 40 – 49	
3. 50 – 59	
4. 60 +	
Years in University Advancement	5
1. 1 – 5	
2. 6 – 10	
3. 11 – 15	
4. 16 – 20	
5. 20+	
Years in current position	6
1. 1 – 5	
2. 6 – 10	
3. 11 – 15	
4. 16 – 20	
5. 20+	
Type of institution at which respondent is currently employed	7
1. Four Year Public Research/Doctoral degree granting	
2. Four Year Private Research/Doctoral degree granting	
3. Four Year Public Baccalaureate degree granting	

4. Four Year Private Baccalaureate degree granting	
5. Two Year Associate degree granting	
Highest level of education <u>completed</u>	8
1. High School	
2. AA/AS	
3. BA/BS	
4. MA/MS	
5. PHD/EDD	
Currently pursuing a degree	9
1. Yes	
2. No	
IF yes, for personal or professional reasons	10
1. Personal	
2. Professional	
Marital Status	11
1. Single	
2. Married	
3. Significant other	
Number of Children	12
1. 1	
2. 2	
3. 3	
4. 4 or more	

ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

The respondent's predominant perception of the organizational culture in which she has operated professionally is:

1. Positive
2. Negative
3. Neutral/No Influence

13

The culture of a group can be defined as: A pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid and therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems. (Schein 373-374)

The respondent's predominant perception of the organizational climate in which she has operated professionally is:

1. Positive
2. Negative
3. Neutral/No Influence

14

The climate of a group can be defined as: a combination of shared history, expectations, unwritten rules and social mores that affects the behavior of everyone in an organization. Or, more simply, it is a set of underlying beliefs that are always there to color the perceptions of actions and communications.

The respondent's perception of an underlying expectancy of success by her supervisor is:

1. Positive
2. Negative
3. Neutral/No Influence

15

This may include public acknowledgement of her professional successes, increasing levels of assigned responsibility, mentoring and/or professional development opportunities.

The respondent's perception of an underlying expectancy of success by her male peers is:

Have her male peers been supportive or dismissive or uncooperative? Does she believe she has to work harder or longer hours to gain their respect and support?

16

- 1. Positive
- 2. Negative
- 3. Neutral/No Influence

Being a woman has influenced opportunities for Advancement into leadership positions: 17

Does the respondent have a positive viewpoint of her own gender as being influential in advancing her career?

- 1. Positively
- 2. Negatively
- 3. Neutral/No Influence

Being a woman has created challenges or barriers for advancement into leadership positions through issues such as salary parity and title equity: 18

Did she ever have to justify her title or her salary requirements?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No
- 3. Neutral/No Influence

The respondent believes she has benefited from mentoring opportunities. 19

These opportunities may be from within the organization or from an external source. She may have sought them out personally, or they may have naturally occurred through the work environment. They may be formal or informal.

- 1. Yes
- 2. No
- 3. Neutral/No Influence

The respondent believes it is important for her to offer to be a mentor to other women. 20

1. Yes
2. No
3. Neutral/No Influence

This may be done through professional development opportunities, through advice offered for personal or professional growth, through advocacy for salary issues, or workplace issues such as maternity leave policies, etc.

The respondent believes she has been included in legitimate internal and external networking opportunities: 21

1. Yes
2. No

Does she feel she would be invited to socially participate in groups that have influence or affluence? Is she proactive in seeking new relationships with decision makers?

LEADERSHIP STYLE

The respondent's expressed leadership style reflects: 22

1. Communal (traditionally female) qualities
2. Agentic (traditionally male) qualities
3. A combination of communal and agentic qualities

Communal: empathy, inclusive, shared decision making, nurturing, team player

Agentic: direct, decisive, top-down, assertive, control

The respondent's expressed leadership style has: 23

1. Remained consistent over the years
2. Has evolved over the years to its current style

TRADITIONAL SOCIAL AND GENDER ROLES

Has being a mother and a leader created internal or external dissonance within the respondent's professional world? 24

1. Yes
2. No
3. Neutral/No Influence

Has she felt she has had to over compensate in order to be a mother and still be perceived as an effective employee? Has motherhood, by choice or by circumstance hindered her advancement in her career?

Are personal sacrifices noted by respondent as having been made in pursuit of a leadership position? 25

1. Yes
2. No
3. Neutral/No Influence

Has she mentioned having to "give up" any part of her personal life to properly fulfill the requirements of her job?

Does respondent perceive that she has been shaped by a "traditional" gender, social, or cultural role throughout her life? 26

1. Yes
2. No
3. Neutral/No Influence

This influence would be provided by parents, grandparents, the society in which she grew up, the education she received.

Does the respondent believe that she has had to
 eschew the familiar “traditional” gender, social, or
 cultural roles she has been accustomed to in order
 to become a leader in her profession? 27

Has she had to fundamentally change parts of herself in order to effectively operate in a male dominant leadership realm? This could include communication style, dress, maternity, etc.

1. Yes
2. No
3. Neutral/No Influence

To whom or what does the respondent attribute
 her “inner strength” or drive to succeed? 28

1. Parents
2. Religious Faith
3. Spouse/Partner
4. Herself
5. Does not indicate

SELF-EFFICACY

Please examine the specific questions related to the factors of self-efficacy: mastery of experience, vicarious experience, social persuasion, and emotional reaction.

Following the mastery of a particular experience 29
 (ex: strategic planning, capital campaign execution,

personnel decisions, budget management, etc.),

what is most important to the respondent:

1. Public acknowledgement of her success
2. Self acknowledgement of her success
3. Both public and self acknowledgement of her success

In mastering a new challenge, is the respondent: 30

1. More likely to model the successful behavior of others
2. Less likely to model the successful behavior of others

In reflecting on the respondent's career, what is more 31

important is building her belief system of her professional capabilities:

1. The opinion of others
2. Her own personal opinion
3. A combination of both the opinion of others and her own personal opinion

In considering how successful the respondent will be 32

in completing a particular task, how influential is the

respondent's initial emotional reaction?

1. Positively influential
2. Negatively influential
3. Not influential at all

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

In examining the respondent's overall interview, 33
 what is most prominently reflected in the text:

Does she believe in her capabilities to be a leader? Is she confident, sure of herself, etc.

1. A primary confidence in her leadership capabilities
2. A primary lack of confidence in her leadership capabilities

In examining the respondent's overall interview, 34
 where is self-doubt expressed

1. Professionally
2. Personally
3. Self doubt is not expressed

In examining the respondent's overall interview, 35
 to what does the respondent predominantly
 attribute her advancement to a Vice President's position

1. Personal drive/determination
2. Opportunity through moving from one institution to another
3. Recognized leadership potential
4. Other

In examining the respondent's overall interview, 36
 how does she perceive her advancement

to the Vice President's level

1. Quickly with little advancement experience (luck)
2. Gradual with a great deal of advancement experience (hard work)
3. Respondent does not address

In examining the respondent's overall interview, the 37
predominant perception of her current position is

1. Positively challenging
2. Negatively challenging
3. Not challenging

APPENDIX III

Phase II Survey Instrument

The Ties that Blind: The Role of Self Efficacy in Leadership Development for Women Fundraisers

I would like your involvement in a research project being conducted under the auspices of the University of Oklahoma-Tulsa Campus that I am sponsoring, entitled **The Ties that Blind: The Role of Self Efficacy in Leadership Development for Women Fundraisers** (IRB# 10012).

This study will examine perceptions of success in the field of fundraising as individuals seek positions of leadership within institutional advancement organizations.

Please take the time to fill out the questionnaire. This will probably take about 20 minutes. Participation in this study is completely voluntary and you are guaranteed complete anonymity.

To participate in this study, you have to indicate that you agree with the informed consent statement by clicking the 'continue' button below and the 'I AGREE' button on the following page. You will then be automatically advanced to the questionnaire. After completion of the questionnaire, please send us your data by clicking the 'send' button. If you do not wish to participate, please click the 'exit' button below.

Thank you very much for your collaboration!!!

... Click here to continue

...Click here to exit

INFORMED CONSENT FORM FOR RESEARCH BEING CONDUCTED UNDER THE AUSPICES OF THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA-NORMAN CAMPUS

INTRODUCTION: This study is entitled “The Ties that Blind: The Role of Self Efficacy in Leadership Development for Women Fundraisers.” The person directing this project is Kayla K. Acebo, candidate for the Ph.D. at the University of Oklahoma, Tulsa Graduate College. This document defines the terms and conditions for consenting to participate in this study.

DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY: The goal of this study is to gain a better understanding of the perceptions of success held by individuals working in institutional advancement organizations. In the web-based questionnaire, you will be asked a series of questions relating to the workplace and your role within your organization. Filling out the questionnaire will take approximately 20 minutes.

RISKS AND BENEFITS:

We do not anticipate any foreseeable risks from participation in this study beyond those present in routine daily life.

CONDITIONS OF PARTICIPATION: Participation is voluntary. Refusal to participate will involve no penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. Furthermore, you may discontinue participation at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled.

CONFIDENTIALITY: Participation in this study is completely anonymously. Findings will be presented in aggregate form with no identifying information to ensure confidentiality. The data records of the experiment will be stored on password secured computers.

CONTACTS FOR QUESTIONS ABOUT THE STUDY: Participants may contact Kayla K. Acebo at kayla-acebo@utulsa.edu and at 918-631-3288, or Dr. Brigitte Steinheider at bsteinheider@ou.edu and at 918 660-3476 for questions about the study.

For inquires about rights as a research participant, contact the University of Oklahoma-Norman Campus Institutional Review Board (OU-NC IRB) at 405/325-8110 or irb@ou.edu.

PARTICIPANT ASSURANCE: I have read and understand the terms and conditions of this study and I hereby agree to participate in the above-described research study. I understand my participation is voluntary and that I may withdraw at any time without penalty.

Click here to indicate your acceptance if you want to continue the study

I AGREE

Click here if you do not want to continue

I DO NOT AGREE

A) Workplace Scenario:

The first section of this survey is designed to measure responses based on what your reactions would be to a particular work-related situation. Such a situation is articulated below. Please carefully read the following scenario and respond to the question at the end.

You have been a member of the Institutional Advancement team of your university for more than 10 years. You began your career in at a mid-level position and you have had two significant job promotions in the decade that you have been a part of this operation. You have been recognized a number of times with service commendations and you are well regarded by your colleagues. You have supervisory and budget management responsibilities. You consider yourself an integral part of the team.

Recently, the Vice President of Institutional Advancement announced his retirement and a national search was begun for his replacement. You strongly believe you have the skills necessary to assume this leadership position and you formally apply as a candidate. You are encouraged by the words of the departing Vice President who says, “This is a natural next step for you and I think you’re ready. Good luck.”

During the formal interview process, you discover you are one of four individuals chosen as finalists for the position: two women and two men. You are the only internal candidate. The external candidates have the same professional qualifications you possess but two of them come from somewhat larger institutions. The other one has an advanced degree and knows the outgoing Vice President through pre-existing professional affiliations. As you go through a series of interviews with the selection committee, you feel fairly confident in your ability to promote yourself for this position even though you sense you may suffer somewhat from being “too familiar” as a candidate. You feel comfortable with the selection committee and the interview process.

Three weeks after the interview process ended, all four candidates are sent an email from the University President announcing who was selected for the position of Vice President of Institutional Advancement.

Which candidate do you think was named as the new Vice President for Institutional Advancement and why?

Please provide your answer below:

Now, please think about the reason or reasons you have answered the above question. The items below concern your impressions or opinions of the causes of your perceived performance during the fictional interview process described above. Click one number for each of the following questions choosing a number that best represents the range you most identify with.

Is the cause(s) something:

- | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|--------------------------------------|
| 1. That reflects an aspect of yourself | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | Reflects and aspect of the situation |
| 2. Manageable by you | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | Not manageable by you |
| 3. Permanent | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | Temporary |
| 4. You can regulate | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | You cannot regulate |
| 5. Over which others have control | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | Over which others have no control |
| 6. Inside of you | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | Outside of you |
| 7. Stable over time | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | Variable over time |

8. Under the power of other people Not under the power of others
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
9. Something about you Something about others
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
10. Over which you have power Over which you have no power
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
11. Unchangeable Changeable
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
12. Other people can regulate Other people cannot regulate
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

[Click here to continue ...](#)

B) Personal and Professional:

In this section of the survey, please respond to the following statements by choosing one of the four choices listed.

	<i>Completely agree</i>	<i>Rather agree</i>	<i>Rather disagree</i>	<i>Completely disagree</i>
1. I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. I feel that the organizational culture of the organization in which I work is positive.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. If someone opposes me, I can find the means and ways to get what I want.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4. I believe that my gender has positively influenced my opportunities for professional advancement.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5. I believe that my gender has contributed to the creation of barriers to professional advancement.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
6. It is easy for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
7. I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected results.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
8. I have received positive mentoring experiences during my career.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
9. It is important for me to offer mentoring experiences to others.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
10. Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle unforeseen situations.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
11. I would describe my leadership style with the following terms: nurturing, empathetic, team player.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	<i>Completely</i>	<i>Rather</i>	<i>Rather</i>	<i>Completely</i>

	<i>agree</i>	<i>agree</i>	<i>disagree</i>	<i>disagree</i>
12. I would describe my leadership style with the following terms: decisive, assertive, team leader.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
13. My leadership style has not changed over the course of my professional career.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
14. I can solve most problems if I invest the necessary effort.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
15. I can remain calm when facing difficulties because I can rely on my coping abilities.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
16. I have had to make personal sacrifices to professionally advance my career.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
17. When I am confronted with a problem, I can usually find several solutions.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
18. I believe my gender influences how others perceive my leadership potential.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
19. If I am in trouble, I can usually think of a solution.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
20. I can usually handle whatever comes my way.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

[Click here to continue ...](#)

C) Demographic Information

In this section of the survey, please respond to the following questions.

1. What is your age? _____

2. What is your gender?
 - Male
 - Female

3. How many years have you been employed in a university advancement operation?

4. What is your current title? Choose the title most closely related to your area and supervisory responsibilities.
 - Director of Alumni Relations
 - Assistant Director of Alumni Relations
 - Director of Public Relations/Marketing
 - Assistant Director of Public Relations/Marketing
 - Director of Donor Services
 - Director of Development
 - Assistant Director of Development
 - Assistant Vice President for Institutional Advancement
 - Associate Vice President for Institutional Advancement
 - Vice President for Institutional Advancement
 - Other: _____

5. How would you classify the organization in which you are currently employed? Choose from the following categories.
 - Doctoral/research college or university (more than 10,000 students)
 - Doctoral/research college or university (less than 10,000 students)
 - Master's (comprehensive) college or university (more than 10,000 students)
 - Master's (comprehensive) college or university (less than 10,000 students)

- Baccalaureate College – liberal arts
 - Baccalaureate College – general
 - Community College – associate’s degree granting
 - Other
6. How many years have you been in your current position? _____
7. What is the highest level of education you have completed?
- High School
 - AA/AS
 - BA/BS
 - MA/MS
 - PHD/EDD
8. Are you currently pursuing a degree?
- Yes
 - No
9. If yes, for what reason?
- Personal
 - Professional
10. What is your marital status?
- Single
 - Married
 - Divorced
 - Divorced but remarried
11. Would you describe yourself as a working parent?
- Yes
 - No
12. If yes, could your spouse be defined as a full-time “stay at home” parent?

- Yes
- No

13. Why did you choose this profession?

14. To what do you attribute your success in this profession?

15. Can you describe a “defining moment” in your advancement career that had an impact on your success as a leader?

**Thank you very much for your collaboration!
Click here to complete this survey and send the data.**

Send