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Women in Leadership: Factors that affect the Achievement of Women in Higher Education Administration At Four-Year Public and Private Universities in Texas

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WOMEN IN LEADERSHIP:

FACTORS THAT AFFECT THE ACHIEVEMENT OF

WOMEN IN HIGHER EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION

AT FOUR-YEAR PUBLIC AND PRIVATE UNIVERSITIES IN TEXAS

A Dissertation

by

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DEDICATION

This study was started on the foundation that women have moved up through the administrative ranks within higher education and our society to overcome challenges to be an example to their children and themselves. With this, I wish to dedicate this dissertation to my grandmothers and great-aunt, Aurora V. Serna, Dora Loretta G. Ramirez, and Maria Antonio Franco. Their sacrifice, love, and personal stories have given me that courage and strength to get me through the difficult times.

Abstract

Women in Leadership: Factors that affect the Achievement of Women in Higher

Education Administration At Four-Year Public and Private Universities in Texas

By: Dawn Marie Ramirez

Dissertation Chair, Absael Antelo, Ph.D.

University of the Incarnate Word, 2012

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the factors that affect

women administrators in higher education at four-year public and private universities in

Texas. By comparing private and public universities, the research provided an assessment

of similarities and differences of the factors impacting achievement of women in higher

education. This study surveyed ($N = 288$) female administrators in higher education, who

are currently working in private and public institutions of higher learning. Family and

educational factors were examined with descriptive and inferential analysis. A chi-square

statistical procedure indicated significant association between private and public four

year universities and certain factors impacting women achievement in higher education.

The study added to the framework of literature and presented an understanding of the

nature of the field of women administrators in higher education in Texas.

Results confirmed that women administrators at four-year public and private

universities in Texas have significant demographics differences. However, they had

similar factors that impacted their achievement as women administrators. The important

factors that most affected women administrators included *educational level, higher

education teaching experience,* and not having *children*. There was a strong positive

relationship between the participants mother earning a four-year degree and the

participants father earning a four-year degree (r = .55, significance level = .000). Since

the variables were found to be significant, mother and father earning a four-year degree

was a factor that affects women in becoming administrators.

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Chapter I Introduction

Despite all the growth in the numbers of female administrators and their commitment to augment those numbers, there is still a concern for how few women there are in higher education administration. Dominici, Fried, and Scott (2009) observed that women are less represented among academic deans and chairs, raising some questions about causal factors contributing to inequity. Women have made progress in higher education and their numbers have increased in several positions in universities. By the early 1990s women earned half of the associate, bachelors, and master's degrees earned by students. Women earning doctorate degrees increased from 13% in 1970 to 39% in 1994 (National Center for Statistics, 1997). Overtime, women have earned more degrees in some areas and less in others. As women have earned degrees, they have moved into higher education and the administrative ranks.

The advancement of women in higher education administration has not been equal to the number of graduate degrees awarded to them. A recent study among college presidents showed that progress for women attaining presidency has slowed in recent years. Over a 20 year span, from 1986 to 2006, the number of women grew from 10 to 23% (American College President, 2007). As for minority women presidents, their number has only grown 6% over 20 years. Indeed, their numbers have not changed since 1998. Women--especially minority women--tend to lead community colleges. The pipeline to the presidency and the other administrative positions is not a straight one. This may be attributed to many reasons, including marriage and family factors.

The results to this study can potentially encourage women to pursue higher education and women in general to overcome whatever barriers there are. Women bring a unique

perspective to leadership and should therefore be represented in all levels of an institution.

Historically, the administration of higher education has been mostly dominated by males (American Council on Education, 2007). Still, in recent decades there have been a few women who have found their way to the top of the administrative ranks. Yet, there has been an underrepresentation of women in general in higher education administration. "A study done by the American Council on Education revealed that women—most of them white—made up 45 percent of senior administrators. Only 16 percent of senior leaders surveyed were members of minority groups" (June, 2008, p. 1). Table one gives a percentage distribution of university presidents from 1986-2006. This table presents the percentages by year and ethnicity. Over a 20 year period the numbers have not really changed.

Table 1

American College President Table on Percentage Distribution of Presidents, by Gender and Race/Ethnicity, Including Recently Hired Presidents: 2006-1986

Women	All Presidents, 2006 Percent	Recently Hired Presidents, 2006 Percent	All President, 1986 Percent
White	81.1	79.2	89.4
African American	8.1	11.7	3.9
Asian American	1.0	2.6	0.8
Hispanic	6.7	5.2	5.1
American Indian	1.5	0.0	0.8
Other	1.7	1.3	*
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Note: Adapted from the American College President.

In order to understand the paucity of women administrators in higher education, one must examine how much education women receive and what contributing factors

help them to become successful. Furthermore, it is important to discover what the contributing factors are that help women in higher education succeed.

Statement of the Problem

Despite some growth in the number of women administrators, they still remain underrepresented in higher education administration (Ross & Green, 2000). Historically, women administrators have encountered obstacles and challenges in becoming administrators in higher education. These challenges come in many forms and are specific to family responsibilities, education level, and institution type. Madsen (2006) reported that numerous studies revealed that only a few women had risen to leadership positions of administration. The author noted that few studies and research projects have focused on the background of successful women leaders. The reason for this is because there are, in fact, very few women in higher education administration. But instead of preventing further study, the paucity of women in higher education should encourage investigation on what factors effect of women in administration.

The few studies on women in higher education administration that have been conducted have been regional or state-specific (Gorena, 1996). It has been pointed out that despite the presence of women in colleges and universities there are still very few women administrators at four-year schools and fewer women in executive positions (Nahavandi, 2012). Although the data for four-year public colleges reflects slow growth, the number of senior-level women leaders in community colleges has risen historically in the past few decades. Indeed, women administrators are more likely to lead community colleges than four-year universities public and private two-year colleges, "the number of female chief executive officers increased from 45 in 1975 to 154 in 1990" (Giannini,

2001, p. 201). In the community college arena, women represent 21% of deans at community colleges, which provide a stepping stone to the presidency (Eddy, 2008). It has been found that "a significant and growing number of women are serving as community college presidents" (Lui, 2007, p. 833). Specifically, "there has been an increase in women community college presidents from 11% in 1991 to nearly 28% in 2001" (Lui, 2007, p. 833). Community colleges have been perceived as receptive to advancing women in their career paths (Eddy, 2008).

Perhaps --most interestingly-- is that it is apparent that women tend to lead community college and not four year universities. It is important to obtain a depiction of what factors contribute to their success at the administrative level. Currently, more is known about the barriers (e.g., glass ceiling, glass cliff, gender and race discrimination, and so forth) than is known about contributing factors that affect their success.

Exploring the educational attainment of these women administrators at the university level may inspire other studies that will add to our understanding of how women achieved success in these occupations.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the factors that affect women administrators in higher education at four-year public and private universities in Texas. The women in this study occupy administrative positions (president, assistant to the president, chancellor, provost, deans, chairs, vice presidents, assistant dean, directors, assistant directors, and coordinators).

Research Questions Guiding the Study

This study seeked to determine the factors that affect women administrators in higher education at four-year public and private universities. This study seeks to answer the following questions:

1. What are the educational and family factors that affect women administrators and in their working as administrators?

2. Does this differ for women administrators in private or public universities?

Theoretical Framework

This study was conducted following the framework of Latino critical theory which stems from the roots of critical theory and critical race theory that was developed in the Frankfurt School. The theory seeks to liberate people from the circumstances that enslave them and provides the descriptive and normative bases for social inquiry (Horkheimer, 1982). While critical theory usually refers to the Frankfurt School that begins with Horkheimer and Adorno, it can include a broader critical race theory. Critical race theory exposes the nature of racial discrimination and classism that shaped our universities. Critical race theory challenges the discourse on race as it relates to education by discussing how education theory and practice are used to subordinate ethnic groups. This framework acknowledges "commitment to social justice and offers a laboratory or transformative repose to racial, gender and class oppression" (Solorzano & Yosso, 2001, p. 2). Latino critical theory is a framework that arose from legal studies that helped improve our knowledge of issues associated with gender inequality in society. Specifically, it addresses issues that were related to race and ethnicity for Latinos (Villalpando, 2004). Latino critical theory helps to expose seemingly neutral social

justice and race institutional policies that enable ethnic subordination. In addition, it discloses ethnic and cultural experiences Latinos go though in higher education. This framework assists the researcher to assess overarching factors leading to successful women administrators. Latino critical theory seeks to empower the underrepresented minority groups including women administrators which are the focus of this study. This study uses Latino critical theory because it can be used to support the goal of providing equal opportunity for women in higher education and sets the scope of the study. Its major components include: an account of family backgrounds of the women being studied, their workplace experiences, and the type of institutions they have served. Figure 2 shows the research that will help to frame the context of successful women administrators and Latino Critical theory.
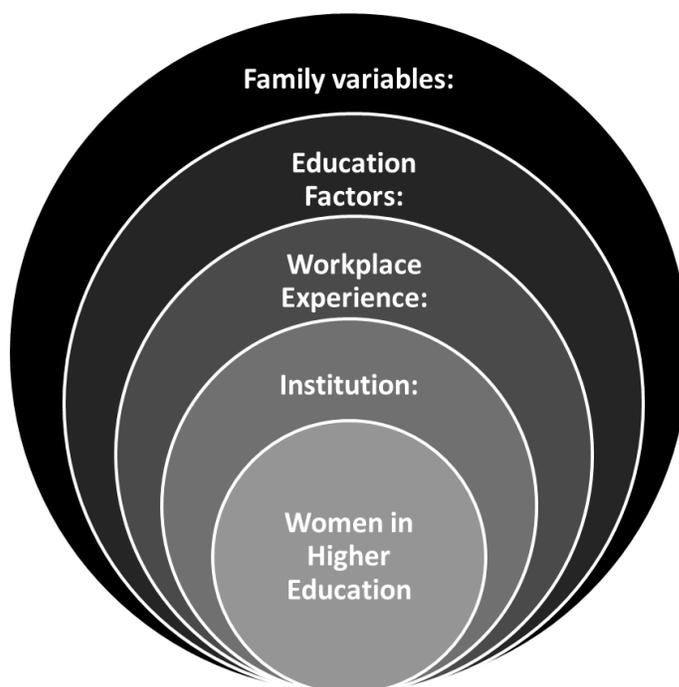
Figure 1. *Teleological Model: Latino Critical Theory.*

Limitations

Limitations of the study refer to the ability to generalize the results to the true population. These are:

1. Completeness of the participants' responses and how many participants will respond to the survey.

2. Interpretation of success or achievement could be different for each participant;

3. Only female university administrators at private and public universities in Texas are examined and

4. Sample size of this population and whether the return rate will be a true reflection.

Significance of the Study

This study helped to understand the importance of what factors affect women in becoming leaders in higher education. It is important to evaluate what are personal and professional characteristics that influenced women in becoming leaders and aided them in succeeding. This population is increasing in leadership positions and is getting the attention of educational administrators and researchers; yet there are still challenges. Over the past several decades women have moved up in the ranks of administration proceeding in different parts of the academic and public arena. Even though the number of administrators may be increasing, there clearly is a shortage of women in these positions. In a study conducted by the American Council on Education, "the data show …almost imperceptible changes since 1986 in the ascension to the presidency for individual minority groups. For instance, the share of African-American presidents rose

from 5 percent to 6 percent over 20 years. Hispanic presidents, at 5 percent in 2006, saw the most growth from 1986, although it was from a low base of 2 percent (Chronicle of Higher Education, 2007).

This study further broadened the literature on woman administrators in higher education and on the factors that contribute to their success. It may help women who are currently in leadership positions in higher education to understand their own experiences as women administrators. Recently, the main focus has been on leadership in the field of women's studies for the past quarter century, but recently there has been attention paid to race, class, and gender (Trigg, 2006). The "successes in the future will depend on how far researchers are willing to go in questioning the assumptions behind our current system for supporting women faculty and administrator" (White, 2005, p. 22). Certainly, directors of human resources departments and leadership policy makers in large institutions will benefit from this study. Experts in human resources or leadership training can possibly train future leaders who have "resiliency and perseverance that are demanded of leaders" (Trigg, p. 25). It has been stated that higher education should take a more proactive inhibition in women's career development by providing training and support in career development, creating an institutional culture that is supportive of women's career development for faculty and administrators (Thomas, Bierema, and Landau, 2004). This study provided detailed information to assist another generation of women administrators. It is important to understand the background and influences on women administrators because they are different and it is important to measure those factors. Even though women are not fully represented at the very highest ranks of higher education, it is important to understand what factors have affected their administrative

levels. It is particularly imperative to provide this information to the different layers of other organizations in higher learning. Furthermore, it is critical that our nation, for future prosperity, correct the needs of the women. Women leadership in higher education is crucial to the future of higher education. Understanding the dynamics of who populates the leadership positions in universities will help in understanding why women leaders are important to higher education.

Definitions

The following are operational definitions of the variables and terms used in the study.

1. Family Support - The backing that a family unit gives to a child including financial, social, and emotional support.

2. Higher Education - A formal course of study beyond secondary school, including studying in community colleges, junior colleges, four-year colleges.

3. Leadership - A person who leads an institution and who has a commanding authority or influence.

4. Resources - Tangible and intangible support systems that facilitate an individual's ability to achieve goals.

Organization of the study

Chapter 1 provided the introduction to the topic and states that there are different factors that facilitate women moving into leadership positions at private and public universities. These women are still underrepresented in higher educational leadership roles. While most of the research has been focused on examining existing barriers to women administrators in general, this study took a concentrated approach to comparing

how women fared in private and public educational institutions in Texas. Few quantitative studies have examined how women leaders fared at public and private universities.

Chapter 2 is presented in several different sections. First, the literature review discussed the history of women in higher education. Then, the chapter explored barriers women face in higher education administration positions and describes the female presence in administration. Finally, the chapter provided data about the women, the educational backgrounds of the women and the common barriers they face.

Chapter 3 presented the discussion of the method that will be used in this study. It included the specifics of the design of this study and provides details about the population studied. It included the instrumentation, data collection and a statistical analysis of the study.

Chapter 4 provided the findings from the statistical analysis and outcomes. This chapter included all the charts tables and survey results.

Finally, Chapter 5 is a summary of the findings and provides an explanation, conclusions, and recommendations made as a result of the survey.

Chapter II Review of the Literature

This review of the literature served as a backdrop for this study of women in higher education administration. The literature stated that it is important to have a detailed background review in order to give an accurate understanding of the significance of a study. Creswell (2009) stated that when writing the literature review for a quantitative study, it is important to incorporate a substantial amount of literature in the beginning of a study to provide direction for the research questions or hypothesis. It is specifically important to have an extensive amount of literature in order to support a quantitative dissertation.

This literature review is divided into these five sections:

1. Women in higher education.

2. Barriers to higher education administration positions.

3. Leadership, practice and gender.

4. Women presence in administration.

5. Women in the work place.

According to Thomas, Bierema, and Landau (2004), women are underrepresented in the leadership ranks across society. In 2006, Madsen stated that there was no institutional focus on the development of high level women administrators in higher education. Furthermore, the literature continuously mentioned the lack of women leaders in high level and, indeed, there are only few studies and research projects that focus in depth on a exploration or investigation of backgrounds and experiences of successful women leaders (Madsen, 2006). Key factors explained the scarcity of women in higher education, on their achievements, and on their successes in higher education. The literature on women

in higher education reflected the fact that they are not well represented within the academic or administrative structures (Gorena, 1997). It is important, therefore, to examine the influences, backgrounds, and career paths of women who have succeeded at high levels of administration. Additional studies are essential so that the understanding of women leadership development as a whole can be deepened and broadened (Madsen, 2006). It has been noted that those women who are already in leadership positions are often in small institutions (with less than 3,000 students) and/or are in bureaucratic structures, often reporting to a male chief executive officer (Chliwniak, 1997). This was explained further in more detail in the literature review. Moreover, women who are in these positions already face other obstacles and factors that determine how rapidly they can progress.

Women in Higher Education

According to Carmen (2002), women did not enter the realm of higher education until the mid- to late1800s in America. Since that time many changes have been made. Clearly, in recent times, women have been ascending the administrative ranks in higher education. But in trying to acquire leadership positions in higher education, women have chosen a difficult road, facing many challenges. There are many significant road blocks for women moving into administrative leadership positions. One of these was not having other women mentors and leaders in the field of higher education for networking and support. This was an obstacle not just for minority women, but for all women. In order to have a better understanding of women in higher education administrative positions, it is important to portray the history of women in higher education.

A general but clear pattern emerges within the literature related to women in higher education administration leadership positions. Presently, there are many reasons why women do not move up the education ranks and are not successful in higher education administrative positions.

The American Council on Education detailed the gender gap in higher education which appears to be stabilizing for most groups, for whom the gap between men and women continues to rise (Gender Gap in Higher Education Holding Steady, 2010, p. 36). Arguably, these factors show a general pattern of what may be concluded about women administrators. It is clear from this information that this is the defining reason why there is still a shortage of women in higher education administrative positions. If these women are not earning undergraduate degrees in large numbers, then only a few are earning graduate degrees. Knowing this information, it is very unlikely that they will move at a more rapid pace in the administrative ranks of education. Gorena (1996) stated that doctorates awarded to all women and minorities increased in 1990 with a slight increase for minority women.

In the 1970s, "only one-fourth of minorities ages 18–24 enrolled in college, compared to over one-third of Whites" (Melguizo, 2008, p. 214). The National Center for Education Statistics (2010) reported that between 1971 and 2009 the percentage of all Americans who had attained a bachelor's degree increased from 19 to 37% for Whites, 7 to 19% for Blacks, and 5 to 12% for Hispanics. Additionally, of those attaining a Master's degree in 2009, only 2% were Hispanic. In order to better understand the slow ascent of women in higher education administrative positions, a quantitative study can find the

contributing factors that lead to women administrators' success in both private and public universities.

Chliwniak (1997) stated that although the status and representation of women in academe has improved since the 1960s, females in the faculty and administrative ranks still remain underrepresented on most campuses. In the early twenty first century, the number of women and minorities serving as college presidents slowed (Ward, 2003). From 1986 to 2002 the percentage of women college presidents had slow growth, from 9.5% to 21.1%, while the percentage of minority presidents changed from 8.1% to 12.8% (Ward, 2003). Over a span of almost 20 years the percentage of minority women grew by 3%.

From a historical prospective, writings about women showed some improvement of certain view of the conditions of females at private and public universities. Even though most are aware of the challenges that women have had to overcome, it is important to acknowledge the accomplishments. The status of women in the workforce has changed as increases in the number of women and minorities entering the workforce has changed (U.S. Department of Labor, 1991). Demographic projections exhibited the growing work force, in higher education and will continue to grow in a dramatic way. In this light women have become more visible within all areas of the workforce; to some extent in nontraditional positions previously occupied primarily by men. Gorena (1996) stated that the barriers that women have broken over the last 25 years are a result of enacted legislation.

Over the past 30 years, researchers have uncovered the patterns that shaped women's leadership in higher education (Shavlick, Touchton, & Pearson, 1989). For

instance, over the last 30 years researchers observed that women administrators have been nonexistent in higher education (Escobedo, 1980). Numerous studies found that women occupied fewer positions than men at the entry level of higher education administration (Touchton & Davis, 1991). This information clearly illustrated that women are not well represented in higher education, with no substantial increases in the underrepresented groups. Still, the literature does not show that women had found a specific career path to higher education administrative positions; it only pointed to the specific barriers to administration. There has not been a clear pathway to the administrative ranks, instead the literature focuses on challenges that the women overcome. This study found the differences between women administrators at public and private universities. Even though there will likely be patterns in their education and family situations, it is also important to determine if there are differences among the types of universities where they work.

The proportion of doctorates awarded to women has increased over time. Hess (1990) examined figures as early as 1978 and revealed that the proportion of doctorates awarded to women has increased over a decade. This information reflected that those women that earned degrees were more likely to move into higher education positions than men. Even though they enter higher education and work in the universities, they are slow to move into administrative ranks. Between 1978 and 1988, the facts reflected that the number of Hispanic women doctorates increased by 70%. If over the decades women have earned the appropriate degrees to achieve academic leadership, then why are they still facing barriers decades later?

Despite the progress of earned degrees by women, they are still underrepresented in administration. Dominici, Fried, & Zeger (2009) stated that women have difficulty moving up the administrative ranks, and they receive "lower salaries, are appointed to lower ranks, slower rates of promotion and [have] lower rates of retention" p. 1. (Dominici, Fried & Zegar, 2009) also mentioned that women have sluggish growth mainly because of conflicts between "biological and career clocks." This article also specifically stated that few studies have formally probed the experiences of senior women leaders (Dominici, Fried, & Zeger, 2009).

According to a 2004 American Council on Education report, during a 15 year span between 1986 and 2001 the percentage of female university presidents grew 9.5%. Overall there was movement during this time and the growth seemed to be positive. However, from 1998 to 2001, the progress was only a 1.8% progression.

Trigg (2006) stated that organizing women's and leadership studies is important to the future of female roles in administration. Trigg stated that developing a leadership program to educate women is imperative to better understanding the challenges women face. It is argued that growth and leadership are roots of having women look ahead can be interpreted and leadership positions can be considered. Trigg (2006) confirmed that leadership should be organized and analyzed in order to aid women's studies and make changes in the leadership arenas. Women administrators and leadership positions for women have not been a concern in women's studies but should be in the context of studying leadership as a whole. This study is a reflection of what women have had to overcome in the academic arena. It is important to study women leadership and women's studies to help the future of administration and world views on women leadership.

It is argued that women should either have careers or have children. Ewers (1991) affirmed that some of the slow progress of women in administration growth stems from women deciding whether they should have a career or have children. As the women realize that their biological clock is ticking, they also have to contend with their credential.

In addition, women candidates seeking certain positions have very few options. Ly (2008) noted that at Southern Illinois University at Carbondale the chancellor, Vice Chancellor, Provost and all 10 deans were men. The university searched for candidates to fill a Dean of Education spot; they found that there were a small number of women applicants for the position. This was a surprise because, nationally, education departments are dominated by women. The researcher believed that the sluggish measure of women administrators at this university level stems from the university's long history of male leaders.

Ross and Green (2000) looked at the demographics of American College Presidents. Their fourth study conducted on 2300 college and university presidents between 1986 and 1998. Its purpose was to gather information on common data of presidents across the country. The information included the president's gender, marital status, and most importantly for this study, the type of universities and colleges. The presidential report divided the demographics into major fields of study and highest level of education. Valdata, Mendoza, and Lum et. al. (2008), found that women and people of color still occupy comparatively few presidencies, in addition, the researchers supports the notion that minority women still lead community colleges. The research and demographics in the American college president study clearly defined occupational

classification and religious orders. The author provided different information, suggesting that even though the number of Hispanic and minority women administrators has continued to grow, their numbers among senior staff and faculty members will not improve until universities provide the pipelines for growth. The presidential report noted that "more than one in five Hispanic presidents (21%) headed a multi-campus institution or system compared to Caucasian (12%) and less than 8 percent of African Americans" (Ross & Green, p. 9). Ross and Green (2009) concluded that the "profile of the typical college or university president is slowly changing but continues to be White (87%) and male (79%)" (p. 9). Although much of this research serves as a foundation to studies done about race, class, and gender, it still does not depict the journey to success that Hispanic women administrators encountered at private and public schools. Hartley, Harold and Godin (2009), reported that it is highly likely that in the next ten years a significant number of university presidents will retire.

Fewer studies on women administrators have been done that demonstrate the background and experiences of women leaders. Madsen (2006) produced a short study on how women presidents in higher education are learning to lead in their current positions. She wrote that even though the literature does continuously mention the lack of women leaders in high levels of administration, few studies have focused on the exploration and investigation of the contributing factors impacting their achievement. Most importantly, the author emphasized that understanding the influences and backgrounds of the women who have succeeded is important because these women need to maintain their positions and inspire others to focus on their paths to success. Her study focused on the immediate family backgrounds and influences. Her data showed that all of the presidents were raised

in two-parent homes and nine out of 10 were raised with their biological parents. Most of

the women themselves established traditional households (eight out of 10 were home

makers). The study showed that education was as important for women as it was for men.

The focus of the study was not the early education of these women, but it nonetheless

clearly indicated that they were groomed for success at a young age (Madsen, 2006).

The need to have significant data about women is vital to understanding their

backgrounds. It is also important to understand what barriers they faced and to find out if

these barriers exist in public or private universities or in both.   Although it is stated in

countless diverse ways that the growth in the number of women and Hispanic women

administrators is slow, this is a true reflection of what is taking place in the academic

arena.

Barriers to Higher Education Administration

Ever since researchers began to study women administration they have pointed to

numerous reasons as to why women are not in the administrative ranks of higher

education. Many of these obstacles include, "marginalization, tokenism, isolation, lack of

support, absence of mentoring, stereotyping, double standards, subjection to greater

scrutiny, and questioning of competence" (Evens, 2007, p. 68). Other barriers included

racism and sexism (Singh, Robinson, & Williams-Green, 1995). These challenges are a

serious roadblock in the workplace that can stand in the way of women who aspire to be

administrators. There is no straight path to administration. Often, obstacles to higher

education administration are also factors that contribute to their success; these are

essentially family variables and education variables. Evans and Chun (2007) found that

another barrier to women administrators in higher education is that fundamental

challenges related to the hiring and inclusion of minorities and women in higher education have not yet been met.

Some barriers include women struggling to find their sources of power. Jackson and Harris (2007) reported that exclusion from informal networks, lack of preparation and lack of career goals were primary barriers to women administrators in higher education. Roppers & Huilman (1998) reviewed the existing literature of higher education, women's education, and feminist leadership. Roppers & Huilman's study found a common theme related to all feminist leadership, how to define power and power strategies. It is often the case that, even though women's leadership has been critical in "contributing to creating and maintaining our society, women leadership has not been fully explored" (Roppers-Huilman, p. 6). On the one hand, "to be female is not to have authority," and yet the women leaders find themselves redefining expressions associated with power and authority (Roppers-Huilman, p. 9).

Marital status is a possible barrier to women's ascent to and success in, administration in higher education. Moreton and Newsom (2004) reported that family and professional roles were sometimes in conflict and required her to juggle multiple responsibilities. Balancing a career and family is one of the variables that affect women in administration. There are many different reasons related to marital status that can affect a female administrator's move up in the ranks. Tenured female faculty members find that they do not have role models and are encouraged to get married or find spouses that support them moving up the academic ladder. Wilson (2009) reported that women faculty members that have more than two children are considered out cast among their peers.

Holmes (2004) explained that male presidents found that having a supportive wife who managed the households allowed them to concentrate more fully on building their academic careers. This meant, however, that their spouses would not pursue a career. By the same token, when the women administrators were studied, Holmes found that they were not as fortunate to have spouses who supported their move into higher education administration. One of the participants stated that her first marriage had ended in divorce because her husband had difficulty with the "presumed" role reversal of her being a senior-level administrator. This occurred prior to ascending to the presidency. She explained:

My first husband was insecure with my making more money than him, and my being in a position of significant authority. In many ways, it seemed my achievements became a personal affront to his manhood. He let over 20 years of marriage slip away because he was not comfortable with a wife who was perhaps more ambitious and successful than him. (Holmes, 2004, p.33)

In 2007, Wilson found a commonality among women administrators and non-tenured female faculty members. She found that women administrators who are moving towards tenure are discovering that even though they may be on their way to tenure it is very unlikely they will be tenured because of the history of their institution. Ironically, many of them "are now the role models without even having had one themselves" (Wilson, p. 1). Even though recruiting women is a top priority on many campuses, one of the universities studied still continues to struggle with the hiring process. Another common issue was that many of the single women are encouraged to get married as soon

as possible (Wilson, 2007). One female faculty person was actually told to get married. It was a warning that her domestic status would affect her chances of earning tenure. This is important information because getting tenure, according to many studies, is one of the steps into administration.

The marriage question is only one of the barriers that affected women who attempted to succeed in higher education administration. Family is a very important factor in anyone's life, and it can be studied under several aspects. Family can be children; it can be elder parents or spouses and partners. In any of these circumstances, balancing family and career remains a contributing factor for how women in higher education move up the ranks in administration. Women must overcome various challenges: moving into tenure positions, the glass ceiling, the maternal wall, stereotyping, and quarrelling among women (Williams, 2004). Williams looked at the different ways that women are disadvantaged as they pass through their academic careers. The author's study was done using the 1999-2000 AAUP's Committee report on academic status of the profession. This data reflected solid evidence related to the common barriers women face and why they do not move up the ranks in the higher education arena. Additionally, it was observed that some of these factors themselves impact each other and this causes great concern. This study notes that a common barrier women encounter in the higher education administration arena is the proverbial glass ceiling. Williams (2004) observed that the glass ceiling has two components. The first section is that women are perceived as incompetent and the second is that women often times have to provide more convincing demonstration of their work. According to the study, women struggled to be perceived as competent in many and extraordinary ways.

Another common barrier for the women is that they hit the maternal wall. This study

explored patterns and bias of stereotyping affect mothers and women in general. Women

face specific forms of bias in the academic world when they become pregnant or prepare

for maternity leave. The women studied stated that pregnancy often times triggers

"negative assumptions" reflecting in the performance reviews they receive when they

returned from maternity leave. Finally, other barriers among women are conflicts among

women such as those between mothers against non-mothers.

Compounding existing barriers, race, and ethnicity add to the challenges that women

and minority women face. Women appear to encounter more hurdles and obstacles to

advance their careers than men (This Hispanic Outlook on Higher Education, 2004). The

addition of racial and ethnic minority identification only serves to compound existing

obstacles for women (Basset, 1990; Escobedo, 1980; Nieves-Squires, 1991; Shakeshaft,

1987). Women in general often encounter barriers to move up to administrative

positions. Minority women not only have to deal with gender issues, but they also

encounter ethnicity issues.

An added barrier to women administrators was that female presidents are most

likely to have earned a doctorate than their male counterparts (Corrigan, 2002). For

senior management positions, a doctorate is necessary (DiMaria, 2005). The research has

shown that 51% of female college president's report being single compared with less than

10% of male presidents, which may be due to the personal issues when dealing with

family situations (Corrigan, 2002). Family issues and earned education concerns are

believed to be one of the most important barriers that keep women from reaching the

administrative ranks. The strain of balance careers, family, and child issues contribute to

the difficulties women face when perusing administrative positions. Not only have family issues been a concern, but women have a lack of professional role models and mentors. Reaching and achieving graduate degrees is a very important part of pursuing administrative positions. According to Warring (2003), earning a doctorate will academically prepare women senior academic administrators.

Leadership and Gender

Researchers studying higher education administration often focus on leadership and gender issues. These issues concern universities greatly as reflected in the amount of information that can affect women moving into administration. June (2007) stated that even though there has been attention reported on diversity and women leadership, white males are still leading the way. June reported that over the last 20 years very little has changed in that an older white male with a doctorate still is the typical look of a president. Again, as shown in the supplementary literature, even though women and minority groups are increasing members of higher education administration, they are still lagging behind. The June noted that since the late 1990s the rate of diversification in leadership has been slow. June reported in 2006, 86% of presidents were white and 77% of them were male. In 1986, it was found that 92% were white and 91% were male. The author reported a shift among college chief executives. It showed that in 2006, presidents were older than their counter parts in 1986 suggesting that turnover in the academic presidency was impending (June, 2007). The average age of a president had risen. In 1986, there were 8% more presidents are 50 years or younger than in 2006. Additionally in 2006, almost half the presidents were older than 60 compared to only 14% in 1986.

Because men dominate the field, studies on both women and men leaders provided great detailed information. Much of the information that has been reflected about women and men leaders showed a much more detailed report of the men. Not only are the men older in age, but they are now staying longer in office. The average time that they were in office used to be 6.3 years but in 2006 the average was 8.5 years. The author states that, despite the slow gains since the 1990s, the number of female presidents had doubled in the last 20 years. In 1986, less than one out of 10 presidents were women; in 2006, it is one in four.

Women community-college presidents have increased significantly (Women Lead More Community Colleges, 2002). In 2001, women community college presidents made up 28% of the population (Lui, 2007). Women continue to lead community-colleges both at the presidency level and the administrative level. "At community colleges, women now hold more than half of all senior leadership positions" (Women make strides in Higher Education, 2009). It appears that women have the door opened right at the beginning of their community college careers. It was found that in the community colleges, up to three women could be competing for one job.

June (2007) reported that three Ivy League institutions: Brown, Princeton, and University of Pennsylvania were led by women. The June figures conveyed that the Ivy League women presidents had a higher number of children compared to the men. It also mentioned that many of the women administrators altered their careers for families and spouses. When some of the women testified back, they stated that the presidency position is for those that do not have spouses and children.

It has been stated that minority women categories are still lagging behind other races. When the June (2007) article described the details about the minority women, it only reported the information as college leaders in general, did not report specifically on presidents. It is believed that this happened because there was not much data to report. The article states that the statistics reported almost imperceptible changes since 1986. From 1986 to 2006 the number of African American college presidents only grew from "5 to 6% over 20 years" (June, p. 2). Hispanics experienced growth of just 2%. That report noted, as did others that colleges could do a better job of preparing and assisting members of underrepresented groups to become presidents. The June 2007 article also reported that the data for minority presidents has not changed at all since 1998. In 2008, June found that racial minorities in administration comprise only a small percentage of the entire cohort. Female presidents make up 45% of the senior administrators; of this group only 16% were from minority groups. Thirty eight percent of chief academic officers were women, and only 10% of those were African American, American Indian, Asian, or Hispanic. This reflects the slow progress of minority women trying to reach the upper administrative ranks. This small group of minority presidents, in turn, reflects the small number of full time tenured female faculty. And there is obviously a connection between the administration pool and the faculty pool. This article, however, showed a different pattern at "master's level colleges, where the chief academic officer job is more likely to be a member of a minority group than at other types of institutions" (June, p. 1).

Christman and McClellan (2008) studied a group of female higher education participants in educational leadership programs that explored how women administrators were preserved in their administrative roles. Despite women now having some access

into administration, their longevity is short, hence the need to study social, leadership, and gender issues. The primary purpose of this research was to understand educational leadership programs and how women who participated in these programs attained high level positions. It was found in this qualitative study, that there is a deeply complex process through which women obtain such high ranks. There was not one simple construction model. The participants were asked to identify a specific component of resiliency. The characteristics were then identified as masculine or feminine. An important theme that emerged was that the women could identify how they overcame the challenges they faced as administrators. Many of the women overcame adversity by having or creating relationships with other women administrators. Several of the women did not initially feel comfortable with categorizing issues specifically, words into themes, but they did go on to explain their experiences in depth. They did not, however, identify the barriers or challenges even as they explained how they overcame them. The researcher also did not find a common explanation for this, nor did they identify if the women were from private or public universities. Even though the study could not identify any specifics about their masculine or feminine leadership styles, very importantly they found that the women did overcome adversity.

Women Presence in Administration

Though the literature focused on the slow growth in the number of women administrators, it nonetheless demonstrates that women now have advanced in the workplace and have found a place in administration. Women presidents are more likely to have earned a doctorate than their male counterparts (Corrigan, 2002). They also have picked up other skills in order for women to be seen as leaders in their fields; they must

be more knowledgeable and be better prepared than their male counterparts (Jamieson, 1995).

Although the data for four year public universities reflects slow growth with number of women administrators, the ascent of women to senior level leadership leaders in community colleges has been historical over the past few decades. Perhaps there are specific reasons that women move up at community colleges as compared to four year public and private universities. The research states that there are many cases that women are moving up the ranks faster. Over the decades, community college presidents have grown significantly. In 2007, Lui reported that there were 230 females in presidential positions at community colleges in the United States. This is a total of 29% of presidential positions for all community colleges. The author stated that as early as 10 years ago, it was only at 11%. Still, even though female community college presidents are moving up the ranks at a faster pace, they still have to balance motherhood, administrative duties, and sometimes planning childbirth between May and August. The article states that balancing motherhood, family, and academic careers obligate women candidates and women are given only certain jobs within higher education (Lui, 2007). The jobs that are occupied by women are the support staff positions and are mainly in the counseling and student services area.

In the early 1970s, there was a trend not to collect data on women at senior-level positions in community-colleges because there were so few women in those ranks. By 1990 the number of female administrators and chief executive officers reached 126 in public institutions. "Combined with private two-year colleges, the number of female chief executive officers increased from 45 in 1975 to 154 in 1990" (Giannini, 2001, p.

201). But the thing that changed rapidly in the following decade was that, "a significant

growing number of women are serving as community college presidents. Specifically,

there has been an increase in women community college presidents from 11% in 1991 to

nearly 28% in 2001" (Lui, 2007, p. 833). "With more women holding presidencies at

community colleges as compared to other types of higher education institutions," it is

important that the paradigm shift is located when it is compared to four year schools"

(Lui, 2007, p. 833). Still, as the literature only demonstrates, the gains that were made at

community colleges and not reflected at four year schools. This is an area that needs

further research.

The "literature does continuously mention the lack of women leaders in high-level

positions; yet, few pieces and projects have focused on the deep exploration and

investigation of the backgrounds of successful women leaders" (Madsen, 2006, p. 28).

Learning these women's backgrounds and understanding what factors influence them is

essential to interpret the lens that these women view from.

The number of women presidents more than grew, "from 9.5 percent in 1986 to

21% of the total in 2001. Women were apt to be president of two-year institutions where

they made up 27% of the presidents of such institutions as compared to masters (20%),

baccalaureate (19%), specialized (15%), with the lowest number of female presidents

(13%) at doctorate granting institutions" (Corrigan, 2002, p. 1). While the growth in the

number of female administrators can be seen as a very positive step at community

colleges, the same cannot be said of women at four-year public universities. According to

the research, "at the current rate of growth it will take approximately 40 years for women

to hold the same portion of presidencies as their projected share of the U.S. population" (Corrigan, 2002).

Even though there is a dramatic change in the face of community college leadership this is not the case at four year schools.

Women in the Workplace

To get a better understanding of women's role in higher educational leadership, one must understand who makes up the overall population in administration. The literature revealed that this population is not very diverse. June (2007) found that 83% of the presidents were male and 90% of them reported being married. Another study recently published from the Chronicle of Higher Education noted that, "86% of university presidents were white while 77 percent of them were male in 2006. In 1986, when the study was first conducted, 92% were white and 91% were male" (June, p.1). In addition, "the average age of a president rose from 52 to 60 over the last 20 years. Meanwhile, almost half of presidents in 2006 were older than 60, compared with 14 percent of presidents in 1986" (June, 2007, p. 1). For example, Amey and VanDerLindon (2002) reported that community college presidents stated that they were only promoted to presidency because they were within the same institution.

Townsend (1993) speculated that community colleges may have less sexist atmospheres because the tenure process is usually based on length of service. This could be a good reason of why women administrators and faculty may be choosing two-year institutions over larger four year private and public universities.

It is perceived that women's leadership would provide more equitable and caring environments for faculty, staff, and students in higher education (Chliwniak, 1997).

Chliwniak (2007) found that even though the number of women college presidents has

grown since 1990, the data shows that the public sector has an even larger gap in

leadership than the higher education system. This, again, is consistent with the literature

supporting that there are more women leaders at independent universities and community

colleges than at four-year institutions. Furthermore, the independent sector in higher

education has provided the most opportunity for women leaders.

One study that looked at private and public universities, found that "presidents at

public institutions may earn less and are less satisfied with their pay than their private-

college counterparts" (Fain, 2005). Research conducted by Leenders and McCue (2003)

found that private and public universities are different in terms of "organizational

structure, supply chain responsibilities, the chief purchasing officer (CPO) and reporting

line, teaming and involvement in major organizational activities" (p. 57). Recently, in

private universities, Moreton and Newson (2004) studied 16 cases of female academic

officers serving at Christian universities. The study allowed women to discuss their issues

concerning their personal lives and academic backgrounds, marital status, faith. Of the 16

women who were studied, the average female academic officer was married and had at

least one child and averaged 50 years of age. Many of the women were initially inspired

to teach, originally did not think they had a calling for administration. As in all of the

other articles, the Christian university women leaders stated that they too, had to juggle

family and professional responsibilities in order to succeed, a process that seemed

necessary so that they could function from day to day. Surprisingly, the majority of the

women had been appointed to their administrative jobs. Only five of the 16 had actually

applied to their positions. Moreton and Newson described the forces that shaped the

women's lives and the barriers they had overcome. This study was like many others that only gave qualitative descriptions. It told the stories of chief academic officers, not all of the women in administrative positions. The purpose of this study was to identify factors that may be characteristic of the career paths to achieve the highest level of administration. Yet, none of the women actually described the process they underwent to get to the positions or details related to the challenges that they had to overcome while moving up the administrative ranks. Still, all of the women stated that motherhood was a strong influence to their careers. None of the women compared working at the private Christian school to any other school that they had previously worked at. This specific study did not ask if the women had worked at other universities. The most prominent commonalty among the women was that they were married and had children. They also all had terminal degrees and had entered administration through faculty ranks. This study presented a snap shot of the women that were in chief academic positions at specific Christian universities. It was not able to give views and opinions as to what experiences the women had to overcome and they were not given the opportunity to describe them.

White (2005), stated that the "large numbers of female undergraduates over time might yield larger numbers of women at the highest academic ranks" (p. 22). This means that if more women were recruited into higher education, then eventually more women would move into administration. Even though women have moved into higher education, the process of women moving into administration has not happened. White (2005) confirmed that women should have moved into full professorships because of the movement in graduate and professional degrees. She reported that the number of full professors has not increased over the past five years. It is believed that in order to reach

administrative ranks women must be in full professorate positions. White stated that "something about the pipeline is not working" and "our successes in the future will depend on how far we are willing to go in questioning the assumptions behind our current system for supporting and recognizing women" (2005, p. 22). The article stated that family formation and gender discrimination are the main factors for the lack of women faculty.

The issue of family formation addresses the "maternal clock" and when women administrators should bear children. While race and ethnicity may also be factors affecting tenure achievement, there is no doubt that family formation and family pressures do. Gender discrimination is a serious issue that needs to be addressed. One researcher observed that in "some department's women are clearly receiving an inequitable share of space, lower amounts of nine month salary paid from individual research grants and fewer teaching awards and distinctions" (Winter, 2005, p. 24). Gender discrimination involves unequal treatment in a variety of ways, resulting in women being overlooked in their careers. White suggested a complete change of focus in workplace: in that "rather than asking individual women to prove claims of mistreatment, the focus…shifted to institutional responsibility" (p. 25). Additionally, many of the women that earn graduate degrees and doctorates are making their careers at community colleges, (Lui, 2007). Family formation issues and gender discrimination results in "pipeline blockage" with implications that are far more reaching than the numbers show. Even though over the last 30 years, it is still important to show the dynamics of women in higher education and in administration and what barriers they had to go through to achieve success.

In a study done by Jo in 2008, she reported that several ex-administrators stated the reasons that women leave their job are "conflict with supervisor, inadequate advancement opportunities and incompatible work schedule" (Jo, p. 573). Figure 3 illustrates the timeline of the literature review.
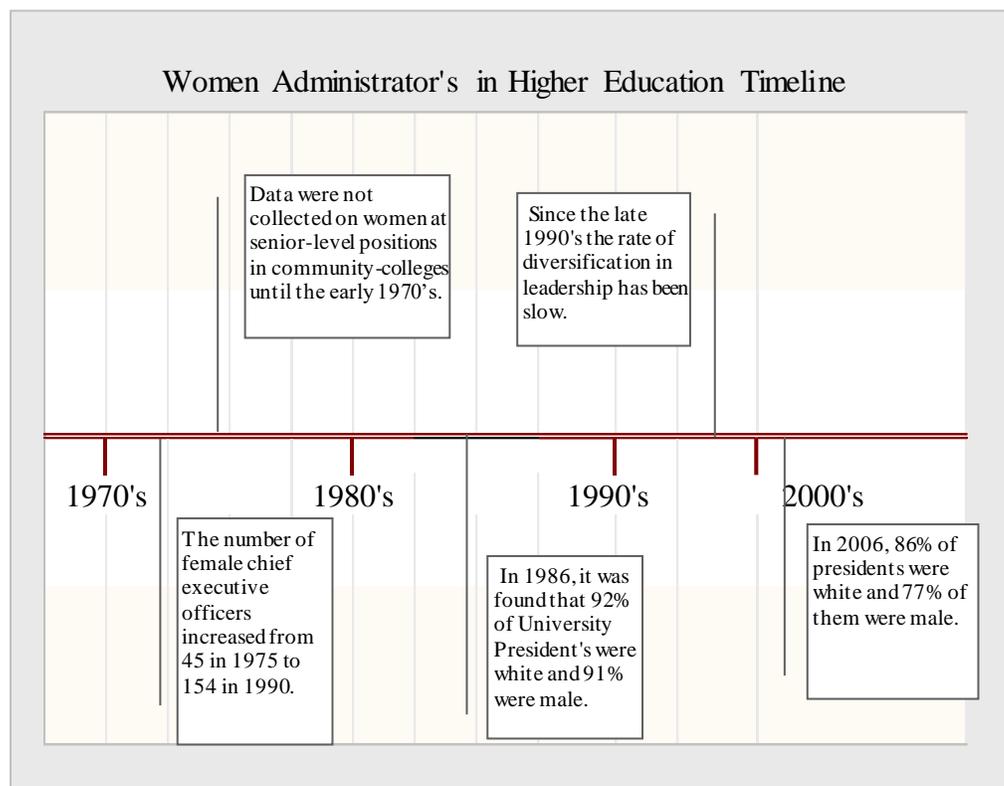
Figure 2. Timeline of Literature Review.

Summary

As this review of literature demonstrated, in the past quarter century women's studies has concentrated on the connections between race, class, gender, and critiquing the social constructions that have impacted women's lives (Trigg, 2006), it is important to bring to light the growth that has happened and what their experiences and backgrounds have been. The literature review presented all of the same condition that were in place from 1986 through 1990 continue without change, Chliwaniak forecasted

that women will achieve the same percentage of presidencies as their percentage of the general population (about half of the population) in approximately 50 years- the year 2040 (Chliwaniak, 1997). This dissertation not only looked at race, class and gender issues for women in administrative positions, but that it showed the importance of what factors affect their success.

Chapter III Methodology

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the factors that affect women administrators in higher education at four-year public and private universities in Texas. These participants occupy administrative positions such as president, assistant to the president, vice president, chancellor, provost, dean, assistant dean, chair, director, assistant director, and coordinators. Few quantitative studies exist that shed light on the backgrounds, family information, and career experiences of female administrators in higher education.

This chapter addressed the design and method that was used in achieving the objectives to understand and explore the study of women administrators in public and private universities. It was composed of the following sections: research design, instrumentation, participants, validity and reliability, permissions, data collection procedures, and data analysis. A quantitative methodology was conducted for this study.

Research Questions

1. What are the educational preparation and contributing factors that assist women in becoming administrators and in their working as administrators?

2. Does this differ between private and public universities?

Research Design

The current research design was conducted as a cross-sectional survey approach. The intention of this survey was to relate the characteristics and personal backgrounds of women administrators and compare the experiences of women between private universities to those in public universities. A cross-sectional survey allowed the researcher to collect data and allowed the researcher to obtain the information quickly

from the participants (Creswell, 2009). This research investigated the factors that influenced the achievement of women in higher education at public and private universities in Texas. These factors included: (a) level of education, (b) marital status, (c) highest positions held in administration, and (d) private or public university. The survey method was the technique of choice because of the population size and the formation in which the collection of data is completed, and the advantage of identifying attributes of a large population from a group of individuals (Babbie, 1990). Furthermore, identifying possible clusters in diverse settings of higher education will be most effective using a survey design research instrument to describe the differences among variables (Creswell, 2009). Therefore, a survey design was used because it increases the reader's understanding of large amounts of data.

Process Used for Data Collection

The process used for conducting the study was as follows:

1. Researcher acquired the email addresses for each administrator for the private and public schools in Texas.

2. A time-line was established to get the surveys returned and a contact person was identified for most of the administrators.

3. An information and consent form (see Appendix A) from the researcher was emailed several times to the participants and served as an overview to the study. The letter stated that the participation in the study is voluntary and the data would be collected through surveys.

4. The administrators were assured confidentiality and all information will be destroyed after its use.

Population and Sample

The population of this study consisted of 288 women administrators, of which 185 were from public schools and 103 were from private schools. In Texas, all four year public and private universities were used in which the researcher found participants for the research study.

The following criteria were used in the selection to of the participants:

1. Employed as a president, assistant to the president, vice president, chancellor, provost, dean, assistant dean, chair, director, assistant director, and coordinators.

2. Female

3. Employed at a private or public university located in Texas.

4. Willingness to participate in research study.

The convenience sample method used in the study involved a group of individuals who (conveniently) are available to participate in the study (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2008). Convenience sampling allows the researcher to select specific characteristics of the persons that are chosen for the study, specifically because they were available. The decision to choose Texas was because of access to these universities and the significant number of women. The subject's information was drawn from online records located from universities websites. These records were gathered from the directories of human resources data banks. A purposive sampling methods was used to identify respondents. Table 2 illustrates the total number of participants in the target population.

Table 2

Total Number Participants in the Target Population

	Total Population:	Total Participants:
Private University	185	60
Public University	103	92
Total:	288	152

Reliability and Validity

The existing instrument that was selected as the survey for this research is based on the "Educational Leadership Study," developed by Dr. Sandra Smith Jackson and was produced by means of existing surveys. The questionnaire was created because no predesigned instrument adequately met all the needs of the author (Jackson, 2003). Creswell (2009) explained that in order to test for reliability the instrument should be "administered two different times to the same participants and scores should correlate" (Creswell, 2009, p. 162). For the reliability of the survey instrument, a pilot study was conducted to increase consistency (Jackson, 2003). This survey instrument is valid in that the individual's scores make sense and are meaningful (Creswell, 2009). While Jackson did not adequately report internal consistency, the researcher reported satisfactory reliability (alpha =.69) in the pilot study. The following information will enable the researcher to draw good conclusions from the sample that is being studied (Creswell). Dr. Jackson's tool has been used in the past and the content of the instrument were proven valid and reliable. Permission to use the survey was obtained, in writing, through

electronic mail. The researcher found that this predesigned survey was the best instrument constructed for this research.

Instrumentation

Based on the existing instrument "Educational Leadership Study," (Jackson, 2003) a constructed instrument was reformatted. Permission to use the survey was obtained through email and phone contact. The researcher found that this predesigned instrument was the best survey constructed for this research and adequately met all the needs of this study. The survey discussed questions about the administrator's educational level, administrative assignment, institutional type and family information.

The redesigned survey instrument is titled "Status of Women in Higher Education Survey" (Appendix B) and contains 31 questions that examined career paths, educational preparation, experiences, internal and external barriers. The participants will be asked to choose the options that were suitable to their experiences and respond to questions that focused on their current administrative positions in higher education. The questions focus on education, current positions, background and barriers. For this study, a pilot was conducted to ensure the validity and reliability of this instrument.

Pilot Study

Prior to the full administration of the survey, the researcher conducted a pilot study to assess the reliability level of the instrument. The researcher reported satisfactory reliability (alpha = .69) in this pilot study. The participants were pilot tested by administering them to 10 women. In efforts to protect the participants, they were asked to complete a consent and confidentiality agreement form. The pilot survey was conducted to identify and analyze factors that women administrators face in their professional

positions. This pilot survey was completely optional and participants had the opportunity to withdraw from the study at any time. A descriptive study collected and analyzed the 10 pilot surveys and interpreted the data using quantitative methods.

Data Collection

According to Schaeffer and Pressor (2003), surveys are able to capture a great deal of information that can be presented in quantitative terms. Analysis of the data involved reviewing the survey data and preparing the results for presentation. The data was collected through the instrument. In addition, the instrument recorded the university type, highest education level, marital status, and children. The process used for conducting the study was as follows:

1. Researcher acquired the email addresses for each administrator for the private and public schools in Texas.

2. A time-line was established to get the surveys returned and a contact person was identified for most of the administrators.

3. An information and consent form (see Appendix A) from the researcher was emailed several times to the participants and served as an overview to the study. The letter stated that the participation in the study is voluntary and the data would be collected through surveys.

4. The administrators were assured confidentiality and all information will be destroyed after its use.

Data Analysis

The quantitative data was analyzed using SPSS 19.0 for Windows, which includes descriptive and inferential statistic methods. The instrument contains categorical data.

Upon return, each questionnaire was reviewed for errors. Data coding was used to systematically reorganize raw data into a format easy to analyze using Statistical Product and Service Solutions formerly Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The test that was used to analyze the data was the chi square test for independence. This test determined the categorical variables and how they related. These variables are (a) university type, (b) highest education level, (c) major field of study, (d) higher education teaching experience, (e) marital status, and (f) children. Pallant (2007) stated that chi square compares the cases to the frequencies in various categories across the different categories. It is used when each of the variables has two or more categories (Pallant, 2007). The independent variable is university type, which includes private or public universities. The dependent variables are highest education level, marital status, and children.

Protection of Human Subjects

Each participant was advised before the survey about the purpose of the study and how the data will be used. Each participant was advised that there will be complete anonymity and will not affect the participants future or present relationship with the University of the Incarnate Word. An informed consent letter (see Appendix A), was sent to each of the participating administrators. The research participants were assured confidentiality and informed that all data will be kept in a locked and secure location and will be destroyed upon a reasonable period of time, not to exceed five years.

Summary

Chapter three defined the methodology for the research in this study. This included a quantitative cross-sectional survey design and instrumentation. This was

discussed and described for the purpose of the research questions. Descriptive statistics were used as the statistical analysis. In the next chapter, the data was gathered and the data was analyzed.

Chapter IV Results

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the factors that affect women administrators in higher education at four-year public and private universities in Texas. Participants in this study represented women administrators at public and private four year universities in Texas.

A sample of the questions consisted of the following:

- Is the institution where you work a public or private university?

- What is your current administrative assignment?

- Did previous administrative experience contribute to your current administrative status?

- What is your marital status?

The data were collected and recorded through SurveyMonkey. Survey results were saved in the researcher's file for additional statistical analysis. Survey information was coded and categorized. Additionally, the research examined if private or public universities related to factors that affect the achievement of women in higher education.

This study considered the potential achievement variables of female administrators in higher education (i.e., the participant's level of education, major field of study, higher education teaching experience, children, marital status, and the participant's level of administration). The demographic variables included size of institution, tenure, parents' involvement, and information about education, and parents' education. All of the variables are illustrated in Table 3.

Table 3

Table of Classifications:

Category:	Code:	Classification:
Institution	INSTI	Institution
Size of Institution	SIZE	Institution
Position Title	POSITION	Institution
Current Position	TYPE	Institution
Tenure	TENURE	Institution
Education	EDUC	Education
Field of Study	MAJOR	Education
Completing Degree	SUCCESS	Education
Personal Attainment	EDUCATT	Education
Professional Membership	PROFMEM	Workplace
Working Relationships	WORKREL	Workplace
Networking	SOCNET	Workplace
Teaching Experience	TEACHEXP	Workplace
Work Experience	WORKOUT	Workplace
Previous Experience	PREVADM	Workplace
Marital Status	MARITAL	Family
Children	CHILD	Family
Ethnicity	ETHNI	Family
Age Group	AGE	Family
Being Married	CONTMAR	Family
Having Children Contribute	CONTRCHILD	Family
Father Education	FATHEDUC	Family
Mother Education	MOMEDUC	Family
Sibling Education	SIBLINGEDUC	Family
Parents Encouragement	ENCOUEDUC	Family
Value of Higher Education	VALUEEDUC	Family
Parents Informed	PINFOEDUC	Family
Parents Financing	PINFOFIN	Family
Parents Help	PINFOHE	Family
Parents info Complete Deg	PINFOCOMP	Family

Description of Participants

In this study, the population sample consisted of female administrators in higher education who are working in public or private four year universities in the state of Texas. These institutions of higher education were selected because of access to the institutional directories. Some of the universities did not allow access to their personnel

information. This survey instrument was sent to the target population through email.

Additional communication sent to participants who did not respond to the initial email.

There were 288 surveys distributed to female administrators. Of the 288 surveys that

were emailed, 103 participants were from private universities and 185 participants were

from public universities, as illustrated in Table 4.

Table 4

Total Number Four-Year Universities in Texas and Total Sample

	Four-Year Universities in Texas:	Total Sample:
Private University	41	103
Public University	39	185
Total:	80	288

Data Collection

The data collection process started in mid-November 2011 and continued through

December 2011. Every week the researcher would follow up with survey emails to the

participants. This communication served as a reminder for the participants to take the

survey and complete it. The administration collection process used is depicted in Figure

2.

Data Collection Process

Email collection process began.

Continued to send survey emails to private and public university adminiatrators. Recieved 90 surveys during the first week.

Made final effort to email participants and get more surveys done.

| Nov-11 | Week 1 | Week 2 | Wee3 | Week 4 | Dec-11 |

Began sending survey emails to women administrators.

Send followup emails to female administrators in Texas. Recieved 125 emails.

Completed 152 surveys in December 2011.

Figure 3. Timeline shows the data collection process of this study between November 2011 and December 2011.

Description of Demographics

The participants were asked to provide demographic information in various sections of the survey. The survey was divided into four sections: institutional/university questions, education questions, workplace questions, and family questions. The section titled "Workplace Questions" did not have demographic questions.

Institutional Information

The first section addresses institutional information. This included: private or public university, size of institution, position/title held, classification of position, and tenure.

The results from the question on the demographic variables are presented below in Table 5, followed the results from the survey questions related to work at public or private university. Of the 152 participants, 60 worked at private universities and 92 worked at a public university.

Table 5

Demographic Characteristics: Worked at Private or Public University (N = 152)

Characteristic	*N*	%
Private	60	39.5
Public	92	60.5
Total	152	100.0

Table 6 indicates the majority of the administrator respondents (27.6%) were from universities that had between 5,000 to 10,000 students. The next largest group of administrators (21.1%) worked at institutions that had 10,000 to less than 15,000 students. A similar number of participants fell in the categories of universities with 10,000 to 15,000 students and with less than 5,000 students. The university administrators that worked at institutions that had fewer than 5,000 students covered 20.4% of the respondents. Both this group and the one representing institutions with 20,000 or more students had 31 respondents. Finally, the smallest group of the respondents (16 out of 152) represented universities with 15,000 to 20,000 students. The participants working in institutions with 5,000 students, 25 were from private universities and six were from public universities. There were 42 participants in intuitions with 5,000 to 10,000 students. Of the 42, 28 were from private universities and 13 were from public

universities. There were 32 participants in institutions with 10,000 to 15,000 students. Of the 32, three were from private universities and 29 were from public universities. There were 16 participants in institutions with 15,000 to 20,000 students. Of these 16, two were from private universities and 14 were from public universities. There were 31 participants (two from private universities and 29 from public universities) in institutions with less than 5,000 students.

Table 6

Participants' Demographic Characteristics: Size of University (N = 152)

Characteristic	*N*	%
Under 5,000 Students	31	20.4
5,000 to less than 10,000 Students	42	27.6
10,000 to less than 15,000 Students	32	21.1
15,000 to less than 20,000 Students	16	10.5
20,00 or more Students	31	20.4
Total	152	100.0

Note. Total of percentages are not 100 for rounding purposes.

Table 7 shows the current administrative assignments for the women administrators. The data demonstrates that the majority of the survey respondents were directors, coordinators, and chairs. The majority of the respondents were associate vice presidents and assistants to the vice president. The smallest group of respondents consisted of President, Assistant to the President, and Chancellor. Among this group each category only had one respondent. A large group of respondents were the participants that selected the option "other".

Table 7

Participants' Demographic Characteristics: Current Administrative Assignment (N = 152)

Characteristic	*N*	%
President	1	.7
Assistant to the President	1	.7
Vice President	12	7.9
Chancellor	1	.7
Provost	2	1.3
Dean	14	9.2
Assistant Dean	7	4.6
Chair	13	8.6
Director	35	23.0
Assistant Director	10	6.6
Coordinator	24	15.8
Other	32	21.1
Total	152	100.0

In summary the majority of the respondents worked at public universities. In addition, the majority of the participants worked at universities that had between 5,000 and 10,000 student populations. Even though there were many respondents at all levels of the administrative ranks, the majority of the participants were in the lower ranks of directors, chairs, and coordinators.

Education Demographics

The participants were asked to provide education demographic information. This included the highest level of education and whether it is from a private or public university and also the major field of study.

Table 8 shows that the majority of the administrator respondents had a Ph.D. degree as their highest degree attained. An almost equal number of participants had master's degree. An additional, nine participants had Ed.D. degrees as their highest degree. Participants with post graduate degrees accounted for over three fourths of all administrators. Two participants selected the option "other" and filled in Master's degree in Business Administration and another participants' typed in law degree.

Table 8

Participant's Highest Level of Education

Characteristic	*N*	%
Associates Degree	2	1.3
Bachelors Degree	27	17.8
Masters Degree	52	34.2
Ph.D.	55	36.2
Ed.D.	9	5.9
M.D.	1	.7
Other Health Degree	1	.7
Law	3	2.0
Other	2	1.3
Total	152	100.0

Table 9 indicated the type of institution from which the participants earned their highest degree. The majority of the participants' earned their highest degree from a public university.

Table 9

Earned Highest Degree from Private or Public University (N = 152)

Characteristic	*N*	%
Private	48	31.6
Public	104	68.4
Total	152	100.0

Table 10 indicates the participants' various levels of education level and whether it was obtained from a public or private university. The majority of the participants' earned their highest degree from a public university. For the bachelor's degrees the number of participants' was very close but the master's degree and doctorate participants' were very different.

Table 10

Various levels of Education and if it is from Private or Public University

Characteristic	Private (n = 48)		Public (n = 104)	
Highest Education Level	*N*	%	*n*	%
Associates Degree	0	0	2	.02
Bachelors Degree	10	.20	17	.16
Masters Degree	16	.33	36	.34
Ph.D.	19	.39	36	.34
Ed.D.	1	.02	8	.07
M.D.	0	0	1	.01
Other Health Degree	1	.02	0	0
Law	1	.02	2	.02
Other	0	0	2	.02

Note. Totals of percentages are not 100 because of rounding.

Table 11 reflects the participants major field of study for their highest degree. The majority of the participants major field of study was Education or Higher Education. The next two largest groups were of participants who had post graduate degrees in Business and Humanities/Fine Arts. The participants who responded "other" stated that their major field of study was in Journalism, Educational Psychology, Public Administration, Communications, Health Sciences, and Computer Science.

Table 11

Demographic Characteristics: Major Field of Study for Highest Degree (N = 152)

Characteristic	*N*	%
Agriculture/Natural Resources	0	0
Biological Sciences	5	3.3
Business	26	17.1
Education or Higher Education	43	28.3
Engineering	2	1.3
Health Professions	5	3.3
Humanities/Fine Arts	26	17.1
Law	2	1.3
Math	1	.7
Medicine	1	.7
Physical/Natural Sciences	2	1.3
Religion/Theology	0	0
Social Sciences	10	6.6
Other	29	19.1
Total	152	100.0

The following questions were answered using a likert scale, and was presented in the subsequent format: Likert-type scale – 1= *Strongly Disagree* to 5 = *Strongly Agree*,

Question 8 on the survey addressed the issue about whether a doctorate degree contributed to the participant's success. Those respondents who did not have a Ph.D.

were asked to skip this question. Of the 152 participants, 76 (approximately half) skipped this question. The respondents that answered the question stated that they agreed or strongly agreed that completing their doctorate contributed to their success. There were 56 participants selected *strongly agree* and 16 that stated they *agreed*. Only four participants who had a doctorate strongly disagreed or disagreed that completing their doctorate contributed to their success.

Question 9 of the survey further investigated if personal educational attainment affected their administrative level. None of the 152 skipped this question. A large majority of the participants (137) strongly agreed or agreed that educational attainment affected their administrative level. Only 14 participants disagreed and one of them strongly disagreed.

In summary, the two highest levels of education were master's and Ph.D. and the majority of the participants earned their highest degree from a public institution. The highest number of participants selected Education, Business and Fine Arts as their major field of study for their highest degree. The majority of the participants stated that they strongly agreed or agreed that completing their doctorate contributed to their success. Not surprisingly, 137 of the 152 participants strongly agreed that personal educational attainment affected their administrative status.

Workplace Questions

Question 10 of the survey addressed whether or not professional memberships contributed to the participant's current administrative status. Of the 152 participants, 62 disagreed and 10 strongly disagreed. Fifty five participants agreed that professional membership contributed to their current administrative status and 25 strongly agreed.

Interestingly, approximately half of the participants agreed on strongly agreed and the other half disagreed or strongly disagreed.

Question 11 of the survey addressed a related issue of professional working relationships, investigating whether there were contributing factors to their current administrative status. An overwhelming majority of the participants strongly agreed and agreed that professional working relationships were a contributing factor to their success. Indeed, 46.1% of the participants strongly agreed that professional working relationships were a contributing factor to obtain their administrative status. Only 14 participants selected disagree and strongly disagree.

Question 12 of the survey asked if professional social networking was a contributing factor to their current administrative status. A large majority of the 152 respondents agreed that professional social networking was a contributing factor to their success. A total of 23.7% of the participants answered this question with agreed and 42.1% responded with strongly agreed. Although, 29.2% of the respondents selected disagreed and 4.6% responded with strongly disagree. In summary, 100 of the 152 participants agreed that professional social networking contributed to their current administrative success.

Question 13 asked whether their teaching experience in higher education contributed to obtaining their current administrative status. They were able to skip the question if it did not apply. In total, 95 participants answered the question and 56 skipped it. Of the participants who had responded 22.4% strongly agreed, and 20.4% selected agreed. The majority of the participants who answered this question stated that they agreed that higher education teaching experience was the reason for their current

administrative status. Of the participants who disagreed, 3.9% strongly disagreed and 16.4% disagreed. In summary, of the 95 participants who answered this question, 65 agreed that higher education teaching was the reason for their current administrative status.

Question 14 in the survey asked if work experience outside higher education contributed to their current administrative status. Of the 152 participants, 121 answered the question and 31 of the participants skipped the question. Of the participants who responded, 26.3% strongly agreed and 29.6% agreed that experience outside higher education contributed to their current administrative status while, 19.1% disagreed and 4.6% strongly disagreed. In summary, of the 121 respondents who answered the question about two-thirds of them agreed that work experience outside higher education contributed to their current administrative status.

Question 15 in the survey asked whether or not previous administrative experience contributed to their current administrative status. All 152 participants answered the question. Of the participants that responded, 40.8% of them strongly agreed and 45.4% agreed that previous administrative experience contributed to their current administrative status. Only 13.7% responded with disagree and .7% responded with strongly disagree. In summary, a vast majority (131) agreed that previous administrative experience contributed to their current administrative status.

In summary, the workplace section addressed professional memberships, professional working relationships, professional social networking, higher education teaching experience, and experience outside higher education. This section addressed

whether professional relationships and experience were the reason for the participants current administrative status.

Family Demographics

The participants were asked to provide demographic information that included marital status, children, ethnicity, and age.

The tabulation in Table 12 shows the marital status of the respondents. Most of the respondents were married (60.5%). The second largest group consisted of single individuals (21.1%). A smaller percentage were separated, widowed, and member of religious orders. In all, they totaled 4% of all the respondents. The divorced made up 14.7% of the total number of respondents.

Table 12

Demographic Characteristics: Marital Status (N = 152)

Characteristic	N	%
Married	92	60.5
Separated	3	2.0
Divorced	22	14.5
Widowed	1	.7
Never Married (Member of religious order)	2	1.3
Single	32	21.1
Total	152	100.0

Table 13 indicates the number of children, if any of the participants. The largest group of the participants (36.2%) had no children (36.2%). Of the respondents, 19.7% had one child, 30.3% had two children and 8.6% had three children. In the smaller categories 3.9% reported they had four children and only 1.3% responded with five or more children.

Table 13

Demographic Characteristics: Children (N = 152)

Characteristic	*N*	%
No Children	55	36.2
1 Child	30	19.7
2 Children	46	30.3
3 Children	13	8.6
4 Children	6	3.9
5 or more Children	2	1.3
Total	152	100.0

Table 14 indicated the ethnicity of the respondents. The majority (54.6%) were Caucasian ethnicity and the second highest were those of Hispanic or Latino origin made up the next biggest group, (40.1%). A variety of the ethnic groups were represented and a few participants listed mixed race (Other).

Table 14

Demographic Characteristics: Ethnicity (N = 152)

Characteristic	N	%
African American	2	1.3
American Indian or Native American	1	.7
Asian-American	1	.7
Hispanic or Latina	61	40.1
Caucasian or White	83	54.6
Other	4	2.6
Total	152	100.0

Table 15 listed the age of the participants; the majority of them were between the ages of 25 and 64. The largest categories of participants were made up of those between the ages 45 to 54 (26.3%).

Table 15

Demographic Characteristics: Age (N = 152)

Characteristic	N	%
25 years or under	5	3.3
25-34 years	28	18.4
35-44 years	39	25.7
45-54 years	40	26.3
55-64 years	31	20.4
64 years or over	9	5.9
Total	152	100.0

Question 20 in the survey addressed the issue of marriage and whether it contributed to the participant's current administrative level. Participants were able to skip the question if it did not apply. Of the 152 participants, 108 responded to this question. A total of 15.1% of the participants strongly agreed or agreed that being married was a contributing factor to their administrative status. The over whelming majority of the participants (56%) responded with disagree or strongly disagree. Of the 108 participants who responded to this survey question, 85 of them disagreed that marriage was a contributing factor to their administrative status.

Question 21 in the survey asked the participants if having children contributed to their current administrative status. Participants were able to skip the question if it did not apply. Of the 152 participants, 100 responded to this question and of these 14.4% agreed or strongly agreed that having children was a contributing factor to their administrative status. Over 62% of the participants disagreed and strongly disagreed that having children contributed to their current administrative status.

Question 22 inquires about the participant's father education and whether he had earned a degree from a four year university. All 152 participants responded to this question in the survey. Only, 43.4% of the respondents reported that their fathers earned a degree from a four year university.

Similarly, question 23 addresses the participant's mothers earned education and whether they earned a degree from a four year university. Of the 152 participants, 104 (68.4%) of the respondents disagreed and strongly disagreed about their mother earning a degree from a four year university. Only 31.5% of the respondents stated that they

strongly agreed or agreed that their mother had earned a degree from a four year university.

Question 24 of the survey asked if the participant's siblings earned a degree from a four year university and if not applicable the participants were able to skip the question. Of the 152 participants, 136 answered the survey question and 16 skipped the question. Over 65% of the respondents strongly agreed and agreed that they had a sibling that earned a degree from a four year institution. Only 23.7% of the respondents strongly disagreed or disagreed that they had a sibling that graduated from a four year institution.

Questions 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, and 30 asked several questions about parent's knowledge, value, information, financing higher education, and information about completing a degree.

Question 25 asked if the participants' parents encouraged them to pursue a degree. All 152 participants' answered this question, and of these, 91.4% agreed or strongly agreed that their parents encouraged them to pursue a degree. Very few of the participants' (8.5%) disagreed or strongly disagreed.

Question 26 asked if the participant's parents appreciated the value of higher education. Again, all 152 of the participants' answered this question. Noteworthy, 148 answered with agreed or strongly agreed that their parents appreciate the value of higher education. Only 10 of the participants' stated that their parents disagreed and strongly disagreed.

Question 27 asked if the participants' parents were informed about higher education. A good number of the participants' (29%) disagreed or strongly disagreed that their parents were informed about higher education. Still, the majority of the participants

agreed or strongly agreed that their parents were informed about higher education. Of the 152 participant, 103 strongly agreed that their parents valued higher education.

Question 28 addressed the issue of whether the participants' parents were informed about financing higher education. Of the 152 participants, 23% strongly agreed and 31.6% agreed. A majority, (54.6%) agreed that their parents were informed about financing higher education. But, 30.3% disagreed and 15.1% strongly disagreed that their parents were informed about higher education.

Question 29 asked if the participants' parents were sufficiently informed on how to help enter into higher education. Again, as with replies to question 28, the respondents were almost evenly divided in the way they answered. In the strongly agreed category, there were 23% of the participants that selected this. Over 31% of the participants' agreed that their parents were informed in how to help them enter into higher education. Over 30% of the respondents disagreed that their parents were informed about helping them enter into higher education and, 15.1% strongly disagreed.

Question 30 asked if the participants' parents were sufficiently informed on how to help them complete a degree. As with questions 28 and 29, the respondents were divided on how they answered this question. Of the 152 participants, 57.3% agreed or strongly agreed that their parents were informed on how to help them complete a degree, but 42% disagreed or strongly disagreed.

All of these questions, it should be remembered were answered in the following likert scale format: Likert-type scale – 1= *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*. Table 16 illustrates the mean and standard deviation for the questions 20 through 30. Questions 25, 26, and 27 had the lowest mean for all of the questions. The mean for question 25 was

1.45, the mean for question 26 and question 27 was 1.40. This explains that the majority

of the respondents answered with strongly agreed. Of the participants, 99 of them stated

that they strongly agreed that their parents encouraged them to pursue a degree and 103

of the participants answered that they strongly agreed that their parents appreciated the

value of education. There was a strong positive relationship between the participants'

mothers earning a four-year degree and the participants' fathers earning a four-year

degree (r = .55, significance level = .000). Since the variables were found to be

significant, mother and father earning a four-year degree was a factor that affects women

in becoming administrators.

Table 16

Demographic Summary by Likert Scale

Question		Response Scale				Skip	Mean	SD
		SA (1)	A (2)	D (3)	SD (4)			
Q20. Being married was a contributing factor to my current administrative status.	*f*	4	19	51	34	44	3.63	1.10
	%	2.6	12.5	33.6	22.4	28.9		
Q21. Having children contributed to my current administrative status.	*f*	6	16	43	35	52	3.73	1.15
	%	3.9	10.5	28.3	23.0	34.2		
Q22. My father has earned a degree from a four year institution.	*f*	44	22	34	52		2.62	1.22
	%	28.9	14.5	22.4	34.2			
Q23. My mother has earned a degree from a four year institution.	*f*	30	18	44	60		2.88	1.13
	%	19.7	11.8	28.9	39.5			
Q24. My sibling(s) have earned a degree from a four year institution.	*f*	51	49	19	17	16	2.33	1.32
	%	33.6	32.2	12.5	11.2	10.5		
Q25. My parents encouraged me to pursue a degree.	*f*	99	40	11	2		1.45	.689
	%	65.1	26.3	7.2	1.3			
Q26. My parents appreciated the value of higher education.	*f*	103	39	8	2		1.40	.654
	%	67.8	25.7	5.3	1.3			
Q27. My parents were informed about higher education.	*f*	61	46	31	13		1.97	.97
	%	40.8	30.3	20.4	8.6			
Q28. My parents were informed about financing higher education.	*f*	38	43	47	24		2.38	1.02
	%	25.0	28.3	30.9	15.8			
Q29. My parents were informed about helping me enter into higher education.	*f*	35	48	46	23		2.38	1.00
	%	23.0	31.6	30.3	15.1			
Q30. My parents were informed about helping me complete my degree.	*f*	41	46	45	20		2.29	1.00
	%	27.0	30.3	29.6	13.2			

Note. The response scale is as follows: 1 = *strongly disagree*, 2 = *disagree*, 3 = *agree*, and 4 = *strongly agree*. SD = Standard Deviation. Some percentages may be off due to rounding.

Inferential Analysis

The statistical analysis used was chi-square. Chi-square explores the association between two categorical variables. The statistical analysis was used in examining each question:

- What are the educational preparation and contributing factors that assist women in becoming administrators and in their working as administrators?

- Does this differ between private and public institutions?

The research study sample size had a total of 152 participants.

Results of the Research Questions

This study used a Chi-square test for independence to show the association between two categorical variables. To be significant, the *P*-value needs to be .05 or smaller. Research Question 1 (RQ1) "What are the educational and family factors that affect women administrators and in their working as administrators?" The intent of this question was to relate the participants' educational backgrounds and their family factors.

Highest earned degree and current administrative status were tested**.** A chi-square test for independence, showed that there was a significant association between the participants highest earned degree and current administrative assignment, X^2 (88, *N* =152) = 190.44, *p* = .000. Significance was set at *p*< .05. The end result presented and illustrated a strong relationship among these variables. This is a strong relationship based on its significant value.

Highest degree and major field of study were tested**.** There was not a significant association between the participants' major field of study for their highest degree and current administrative assignment, X^2 (121, *N* = 152) = 137.24, *p* = .14. Significance was set at *p*< .05. Therefore, the results indicated that there was not a strong relationship among major field of study for their highest degree and current administrative assignment.

Higher education teaching experience and current administrative were tested. There was significant association between the participants having higher education teaching experience and their current administrative assignment, X^2 (44, *N* = 152) = 75.44, *p* = .002. Significance was set at *p*< .05. Therefore, the results indicate that there

is a strong relationship among higher education teaching experience and the participant's current administrative assignment. This relationship is a strong relationship based on the significant value.

When testing current administrative status against the question in the survey of having children. There was not a significant association between the participants having children and their current administrative assignment, $X^2 (41, N = 152) = 158.53$, $p = .919$. Significance was set at $p< .05$. Therefore, the results indicate that there is not a strong relationship among the participants having children and their current administrative assignment.

The participant's current administrative assignment and marital status were tested. There was a significant association between marital status and highest degree, $X^2 (55, N=152) = 158.53$, $p = .000$. Significance was set at $p< .05$. Therefore, the results indicated that there was a strong relationship among the participant's marital status and the highest earned degree.

Earning highest degree and having children were tested. There was not a significant association among the participants having children and earning their highest, $X^2 (40, N=152) = 40.75$, $p = .43$. Significance was set at $p< .05$. Therefore, the results indicated that there was not a strong association among the participants having children and earning their highest degree. Because the following variables were significant, the researcher proved that highest degree earned, teaching experience, proved to help women administrators in their administrative level. When running a chi-square, having children tested to hinder women administrators in their administrative levels. Having significance

tests that a relationship exists among the variables. Table 17 illustrates the significant

factors (family and education) that assist women in becoming administrators.

Table 17

Educational and Family Factors (N = 152)

| Factors | Administrative Level | | | |
	N	%	x^2 (df)	P
Highest Earned Degree	152	100%	88	.000
Major Field of Study	152	100%	121	.140
Higher Educ Teach Experience	152	100%	44	.002
Children	152	100%	55	.919
Marital Status and Highest Deg	152	100%	55	.000

Research Question 2 (RQ2) "Does this differ between private and public

institutions?" To test this research question and chi-square test was applied to determine

if there was a difference between women administrators at four-year private universities

and women administrators at four-year public universities.

The participants' highest earned degree were tested against private or public

university. There was not a significant association between private and public universities

and the participants highest degree, $X^2 (16, N = 152) = 7.55, p = .96$. Significance was

set at $p < .05$. In the private universities, the majority of the participants had masters

degrees ($n = 20$, 38.5%) and Ph.D's ($n = 25$, 45.5%). For the public universities, there

was a participant in each of the categories. These included associates degree, bachelor's

degree, master's degree, Ph.D, Ed.D, M.D., other health degree, and law degree.

Therefore, the results indicate that there was not significant between the participant's highest degree and private and public universities.

Where the participants earned degree their highest degree was tested against what type of university they work at**.** There was a significant association between private and public university and whether the participants earned their degree from a private or public university, X^2 (2, $N = 152$) = 7.30, p = .026. Significance was set at P< .05. For the private university participants, 52.1% of the participants' that worked at a private university also earned their degree and a private university. For the public university participants, 66.3% earned their degree from a public university and also work at a public university. Noteworthy, the results indicate that there is a strong relationship between where the participants earned their degree and where they work. This relationship is a strong relationship based on the significant value.

The participants' marital status was tested against what type of university they work at. There was a not significant association between private and public university and marital status of the participants, X^2 (10, $N = 152$) = 7.86, p = .503. Significance was set at *P*< .05. Therefore, the results indicated that there was not a strong relationship among the participants' being married and working at private or public university.

The participants' number of children were tested against what type of university they work at**.** There was a not a significant association between private and public university and whether the participants number of children, X^2 (10, $N = 152$) = 5.69, *p* = .84. Significance was set at *P*< .05. Therefore, the results indicated that there was not a strong relationship among the participants' number of children and private or public university administrators.

Table 18 illustrates the significance factors that assist women in becoming administrators' and what the results indicated among private and public universities.

Table 18

Factors that Assist Women in Becoming Administrators (N = 152)

	Private		Public			
Factors	n	%	n	%	x^2 (*df*)	*P*
Highest Degree	60	39.5%	92	60.5%	8	.685
Major Field of Study	60	39.5%	92	60.5%	11	.378
Higher Education Teaching	60	39.5%	92	60.5%	4	.139
Current Admin. Assign.	60	39.5%	92	60.5%	11	.090
Children	60	39.5%	92	60.5%	5	.567
Marital Status	60	39.5%	92	60.5%	5	.503
Earned Degree	60	39.5%	92	60.5%	1	.026

Thus, based on the result $p < .05$ there was not a strong relationship between the private and public university administrators. The only significance that was proven was that university administrators earn their degree at a private university and work at a private university and the same goes for public administrators.

Summary

Chapter IV presented the data that were collected and analyzed. The chapter presented the overall descriptive analysis and specific responses from women administrators at public and private universities in Texas. The research questions were answered with descriptive statistics and chi-square test for independence. A summary of chapter four is illustrated in table 19.

Table 19

Participants General Demographics and Common Factors

Common Factors Impacting the Achievement of Women Administrators
1. Both private university participants and public university participants agreed to that completing their doctorate contributed to their success.
2. Both groups of participants agreed that education attainment affected their administrative level.
3. Both groups agreed that professional work relationships contributed to their current success.
4. Both groups agreed that professional social networking contributed to their current administrative status.
5. Both groups agreed that their parents encouraged them to pursue a degree.

Administrators at Four-Year Private Universities (60 Respondents)	**Administrators at Four-Year Public Universities (92 Respondents)**
1. A higher percentage of participants were married at private universities.	1. A higher percentage of participants were single or divorced at public universities.
2. More participants were tenured at private universities.	2. Fewer participants were tenured at public universities.
3. Most of the participants were of white/causation ethnicity.	3. Most of the participants were of Hispanic ethnicity.

Chapter V discusses some of the results in generalized terms and with

conclusions. This will include limitations, strengths, weaknesses, and recommendations.

Chapter V Discussion

Introduction

The purpose of this research was to examine the factors that affect women administrators in higher education at four-year public and private universities in Texas. These participating women must have been currently in administrative positions (president, assistant to the president, vice president, chancellor, provost, dean, assistant dean, chair, director, assistant director, and coordinators). A web survey was designed requesting specific information from the university women administrators.

The two research questions posed for this research study were:

- What are the educational and family factors that affect women administrators and in their working as administrators? and,

- Does this differ between private and public institutions?

This chapter contains a summary of the study, conclusions, implications, and recommendations.

Discussion

This research study investigated the factors that affect the achievement of women in higher education at public and private universities in Texas. Using a cross-sectional survey method allowed the researcher to collect data with a quick turnaround and use the information for statistical analysis (Creswell, 2009). The cross-sectional survey method was the technique of choice because of the population size, the formation in which the collection of data is completed and the advantage of identifying attributes of a large population from a group of individuals (Babbie, 1990). Furthermore, identifying possible

clusters in diverse settings of higher education will be most effective using a survey design research instrument to describe the differences among variables (Creswell, 2009).

Thomas, Bierema and Landau (2004), discussed that women are underrepresented in the leadership ranks across society. Madsen (2006) stated that there was no focus on the development of high level women administrators in higher education. Furthermore, the literature continuously mentioned the lack of women leaders in high level administrative positions and, indeed, there are only a few research projects that focus on investigating the backgrounds and experiences of successful women leaders (Madsen, 2006). June (2007) found that 83% of the presidents were male and 90% of them reported being married. Lui stated that balancing motherhood, family, and academic careers obligated women to get certain (lower-level) jobs within higher education (Lui, 2007).

Research Question One

The first research question focused on family and education factors. The question asked "What are the educational and family factors that affect women administrators and in their working as administrators?" The questions were asked to address a variety of factors, (a) *participant's level of education,* (b) *major field of study,* (c) *higher education teaching experience,* (d) *children,* (e) *marital status, and* (f) *participants level of administration.* The study results concluded that having *higher education teaching experience, the participants' educational level* and *being married* were factors that influenced women administrators to advance their careers. Having *children* and *major field of study* were factors that did not influence women advancement in administration.

The results of the study showed that there was a strong significance between the *administration level* and *participant's level of education*. The outcome indicated that

education level is a factor that assists women in becoming administrators in higher education. This research outcome is similar to the literature in that it states that doctorates awarded to all women and minorities increased, with a slight increase for minority women (Gorena, 1996). The results of this dissertation do not reflect a strong relationship between major field of study and administration level.

This study demonstrated that administrators who completed their doctorate strongly agreed that this was a major contribution to their administrative success. In addition, the participants also agreed that, in general, *educational attainment* was a contribution to their success as administrators. This study parallels the literature which says that women administrators are very likely to have earned a doctorate at the administrative level (Corrigan, 2002). The literature stated that for senior management positions a doctorate is generally necessary (DiMaria, 2005).

Regarding family factors, the dissertation revealed that there was not significance between having *children* and administrative level. In support of this, Ewers (1991) affirmed that some of the slow administration growth stems from women deciding whether they should have a career or have *children*. Thus, both this research and the literature demonstrate that having children does have a significant impact on the administration level achieved by women.

An additional family factor was *marriage*. The study revealed that there was a significant association and strong relationship between *marital status* and the *administrative level*. Thus, the results showed that marriage is a family factor that assists women at their administration level. More participants were *married* at private universities and more participants were single or divorced at public universities. This

dissertation study supports the Moreton and Newson (2004) literature in that more women were married at private universities than they were at public universities.

The researcher could demonstrate that highest degree earned, teaching experience, and marital status help women administrators to achieve a high administrative level. Testing and having significance shows that a relationship exists among the variables.

In addition, there was a strong positive relationship between the participants mother earning a four-year degree and the participants father earning a four-year degree (r = .55, significance level = .000). Since the variables were found to be significant, mother and father earning a four-year degree was an important factor that affects women in becoming administrators.

Research Question Two

The second research question refers to how the two types of universities (private and public) relate to factors that assist women administrators: (a) the *participant's level of education,* (b) *major field of study,* (c) *higher education teaching experience,* (d) *children,* (e) *marital status, and* (f) *the participants level of administration.* A chi-square test indicated that there was no significant association between university type and *participant's level of education, major field of study, higher education teaching experience, participants current administrative assignment, children, and marital status.* When comparing both private and public universities the only significance that was found was where the participants earned their degree. The results indicated that when the participant worked at a private university they also earned their highest degree from a private university. Additionally, when a participant worked at a public university the

participant also earned their highest degree from a public university. The research outcomes demonstrate that there are very few differences between women administrators at public universities in Texas and women administrators at private universities.

Discussion of Findings

Using descriptive statistics provided a comprehensive view of the participants, their family information, and their personal education backgrounds. Women administrators at public and private universities shared some factors that influence their administrative level but differ in others.

Administrators at four-year private universities reported the following common factors:

1. A higher percentage of participants were married at private universities.

2. More participants were tenured at private universities.

3. The majority of the participants were of white/causation ethnicity.

Administrators at four-year public universities reported to the following common factors:

1. A higher percentage of participants were single or divorced at public universities.

2. Fewer participants were tenured at public universities.

3. The majority of the participants were of Hispanic ethnicity.

The shared factors that affect women administrators at both private and public four-year universities consisted of the following:

1. Both private university participants and public university participants agreed to that completing their doctorate contributed to their success.

2. Both groups of participants agreed that education attainment affected their administrative level.

3. Both groups agreed that professional work relationships contributed to their current success.

4. Both groups agreed that professional social networking contributed to their current administrative status.

5. Both groups agreed that their parents encouraged them to pursue a degree.

This study provided valuable information on female administrators at four year private and public universities in Texas. This research focused on a small population of women in Texas higher education and the information should not be a reflection of all women in higher education. There were other limitations to this study, including the fact that this study was limited to Texas participants.

The survey was administered using a cross-sectional survey approach that would allow the researcher to get useful information in a short period of time. In order to get a more in-depth view from the respondents, a qualitative methodology study would need to explore more specific information about the participants education, administrative levels, personal, and family backgrounds. The majority of the previous researchers used qualitative methods using smaller populations. Still, the present study is valuable because the majority of those contacted were kind enough to respond to the survey.

Another limitation was that this study focused only on female, and not male administrators in Texas higher education. Future research could include only male administrators in Texas higher education and possibly both compare and contrast their backgrounds in Texas higher education.

Limitations to the study was that it focused only on their current administrative level and it became clear that several of these participants served in other capacities. A more complete study of female administrators could investigate how they entered into administration and how they progressed through different stages. In addition, the word "status" in the survey could be interpreted and understood differently.

Recommendations for Future Research

This study was done to analyze the factors impacting the achievement of women administrators in higher education at four year public and private institutions in Texas. But this topic is so important and complex that it merits recommendations for future studies.

One recommendation for future study could be that it be conducted to include female participants from universities across the country, not just in Texas. Added, recommendations could be that such studies include the leadership style for each of the participants and determine which styles match with which administrative levels.

Additional recommendations could include detailed studies on statements about the participants and their marriage and family situations. This study was not able to depict the participants' family background in such detail as to provide a vivid picture of various situations. Further recommendations for this study could be that this study could be mixed methods and could ask at what point in the administrator's career did they start

having children and at what point did they start moving into higher levels of administration. This information could help find out whether children affect women administrators to achieve certain levels of administration. In summary, a more complete perspective would involve further research studying participants across the United States and involving males and females administrators in higher education and their family situation. This could possibly lead to studying variables in different personal circumstances and in different settings of higher education.

Implications

This study found various factors impacting the achievement of women administrators in higher education at four year public and private institutions in Texas. The population consisted of 288 women administrators in Texas at four-year private and public universities in Texas. The women in this study occupied administrative positions to include (president, assistant to the president, vice president, chancellor, provost, dean, assistant dean, chair, director, assistant director, and coordinators). The research questions that guided the study were: What are the educational and family factors that may assist women in becoming administrators in higher education institutions and in their working as administrators?; and Does this differ between private and public institutions?

An analysis of the data concluded that several of the test results demonstrated a significant association between private and public university participants. They also indicated that education is a factor that impacts the level of administration achieved and that there were few differences among the administrators at private and public universities in Texas. This study may perhaps serve as a road map for women that wish to move up the ranks of higher education.

    This study has helped contribute to the women's literature in higher education and pointed to what factors help or hinder women administrators. It established that there are factors that help and hinder women administrators in higher education in Texas.

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Appendix A: Information and Consent Form

Information and Consent Form

November 17, 2011

Dear Colleague,

My name is Dawn M. Ramirez and I am a Hispanic female doctoral student at The University of the Incarnate Word, working on a study for my dissertation. The title of my dissertation is WOMEN IN LEADERSHIP: CONTRIBUTING FACTORS THAT IMPACT THE ACHIEVEMENT OF WOMEN IN HIGHER EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION AT FOUR-YEAR PUBLIC AND PRIVATE UNIVERSITIES IN TEXAS.

The purpose of this quantitative study is to explore the contributing factors of women administrators in higher education comparing private and public universities.

As a fellow educational leader, I know your time is valuable, but I ask that you please take 10-15 minutes to complete that attached survey and return it to me by December 16, 2011.

Your participation is voluntary, however crucial to the success of this research. If you decide at any time in the process that you do not want to be in this study, you may withdraw. No individual data will be identified in the results, and all codes used for identification will be destroyed after the data have been collected. Making a request to dplatt@student.uiwtx.edu will provide you with these research findings when all work is completed. This pilot study will contribute to the body of literature in the field of Women and Leadership studies. I plan to share the results with the research community. Please answer the survey as soon as possible. Please feel free to contact me or my professor, Dr. Absael Antelo. I would like to thank you for your time and participation in this study on university and college women administrators.

Sincerely,
Dawn M. Ramirez
dplatt@student.uiwtx.edu
Dreeben School of Education

Appendix B: Status of Women in Higher Education Study Survey

Status of Women in Higher Education Survey—SWHES

The purpose of this survey is to study the factors that contribute to the success of women in higher education administration at four year private and public universities in Texas. Please mark your answer with a check in the space provided.

Section 1: Institution

Is the institution that you work for a private or public university?

◉ 1. Private

○ 2. Public

2. What is the size of your university or institution?

○ Under 5,000 Students

○ 5,000 to less than 10,000 Students

○ 10,000 to less than 15,000 Students

○ 15,000 to less than 20,000 Students

○ 20,000 or more Students

3. Indicate the position/title for your current administrative assignment:

○ 1. President

○ 2. Assistant to the President

○ 3. Vice President

○ 4. Chancellor

○ 5. Provost

○ 6. Dean

○ 7. Assistant Dean

○ 8. Chair

○ 9. Director

○ 10. Assistant Director

○ 11. Coordinator

4. Please indicate how you would classify your current position.

○ 1. Academic Administration

○ 2. Student Services

Other (please specify)

5. Do you hold a tenure position at this college or university?

○ 1. Yes

○ 2. No

Section 2: Education

6. Please check the highest degree that you have earned and indicate whether it is from a private or public university.

	Public University	Private University
1. Associates degree	○ *Please check the highest degree that you have earned and indicate whether it is from a private	○ 1. Associates degree Private University

or public university. 1. Associates degree Public University		
2. Bachelors degree	○ 2. Bachelors degree Public University	○ 2. Bachelors degree Private University
3. Master's degree	○ 3. Master's degree Public University	○ 3. Master's degree Private University
4. Ph.D.	○ 4. Ph.D. Public University	○ 4. Ph.D. Private University
5. Ed.D.	○ 5. Ed.D. Public University	○ 5. Ed.D. Private University
6. M.D.	○ 6. M.D. Public University	○ 6. M.D. Private University
7. Other Health Degree(e.g., DDV, DVM)	○ 7. Other Health Degree(e.g., DDV, DVM) Public University	○ 7. Other Health Degree(e.g., DDV, DVM) Private University
8. Law (e.g., JD, LLD, JSB)	○ 8. Law (e.g., JD, LLD, JSB) Public University	○ 8. Law (e.g., JD, LLD, JSB) Private University

Other (please specify) [   ]

7. Please indicate your major field of study for your highest degree.

○ 1. Agriculture/Natural Resources

○ 2. Biological Sciences

○ 3. Business

○ 4. Education or Higher Education

○ 5. Engineering

○   6. Health Professions

○   7. Humanities/Fine Arts

○   8. Law

○   9. Math

○   10.Medicine

○   11.Physical/Natural Sciences

○   12.Religion/Theology

○   13.Social Sciences

Other (please specify)

This is an attitude based on your administrative experiences. Please answer the following questions by marking with a check in the appropriate box.

8. Completing my doctorate degree has contributed to my success. (If not applicable, go to next question).

○ 1. Strongly Agree   ○ 2. Agree   ○ 3. Disagree   ○ 4. Strongly Disagree

9. Personal educational attainment affected my administrative status.

○ 1. Strongly Agree   ○ 2. Agree   ○ 3. Disagree   ○ 4. Strongly Disagree

Section 3: Workplace

This is a attitude based on your administrative experiences. Please answer the following questions by marking with a check in the appropriate box.

10. Professional memberships are contributing factors to my current administrative status.

○   1. Strongly Agree ○   2. Agree   ○   3. Disagree   ○   4. Strongly Disagree

11. Professional working relationships are a contributing factors to my current administrative status.

○   1. Strongly Agree ○   2. Agree   ○   3. Disagree   ○   4. Strongly Disagree

12. Professional social networking is a contributing factor my current administrative status.

○   1. Strongly Agree ○   2. Agree   ○   3. Disagree   ○   4. Strongly Disagree

13. Higher education teaching experience is the reason for my current administrative status. (If not applicable, go to next question).

○   1. Strongly Agree ○   2. Agree   ○   3. Disagree   ○   4. Strongly Disagree

14. My work experience outside of higher education contributed my current administrative status. (If not applicable, go to next question).

○   1. Strongly Agree ○   2. Agree   ○   3. Disagree   ○   4. Strongly Disagree

15. Previous administrative experience contributed to my current administrative status.

○   1. Strongly Agree ○   2. Agree   ○   3. Disagree   ○   4. Strongly Disagree

Section 4: Family

16. What is your marital status:

○   1. Married

○   2. Separated

○   3. Divorced

○ 4. Widowed

○ 5. Never Married (Member of religious order)

○ 6. Single

17. How many children do you have?

○ No Children

○ 1 Children

○ 2 Children

○ 3 Children

○ 4 Children

○ 5 or more Children

18. Which of the following best describes you racial or ethnic background?
Please check one.

○ 1. African American

○ 2. American Indian or Native American

○ 3. Asian-American

○ 4. Hispanic or Latina

○ 5. Caucasian or White

Other (please specify) [   ]

19. What is your age group?

○ 25 years or under

○ 25-34 years

○ 35-44 years

○ 45-54 years

○ 55-64 years

○ 64 years or over

An attitude scale based on your administrative experience. Please answer the following questions about your reaction.

20. Being married was a contributing factor to my current administrative status. (If not applicable, go to next question).

○ 1. Strongly Agree ○ 2. Agree   ○ 3. Disagree   ○ 4. Strongly Disagree

21. Having children contributed to my current administrative status. (If not applicable, go to next question).

○ 1. Strongly Agree ○ 2. Agree   ○ 3. Disagree   ○ 4. Strongly Disagree

22. My father has earned a degree from a four year institution.

○ 1. Strongly Agree ○ 2. Agree   ○ 3. Disagree   ○ 4. Strongly Disagree

23. My mother has earned a degree from a four year institution.

○ 1. Strongly Agree ○ 2. Agree   ○ 3. Disagree   ○ 4. Strongly Disagree

24. My sibling(s) have earned a degree from a four year institution. (If not applicable, please move on to next question).

○ 1. Strongly Agree ○ 2. Agree   ○ 3. Disagree   ○ 4. Strongly Disagree

25. My parents encouraged me to pursue a degree.

○ 1. Strongly Agree ○ 2. Agree ○ 3. Disagree ○ 4. Strongly Disagree

26. My parents appreciated the value of higher education.

○ 1. Strongly Agree ○ 2. Agree ○ 3. Disagree ○ 4. Strongly Disagree

27. My parents were informed about higher education.

○ 1. Strongly Agree ○ 2. Agree ○ 3. Disagree ○ 4. Strongly Disagree

28. My parents were informed about financing my higher education.

○ 1. Strongly Agree ○ 2. Agree ○ 3. Disagree ○ 4. Strongly Disagree

29. My parents were informed about helping me enter into higher education.

○ 1. Strongly Agree ○ 2. Agree ○ 3. Disagree ○ 4. Strongly Disagree

30. My parents were informed about helping me complete a degree.

○ 1. Strongly Agree ○ 2. Agree ○ 3. Disagree ○ 4. Strongly Disagree

Appendix C: CITI Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative Documentation

CITI Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative

CITI Health Information Privacy and Security (HIPS) Curriculum Completion Report

Printed on 8/16/2011

Learner: Dawn Ramirez

Institution: University of the Incarnate Word

Contact Information   Department: Education
                                 Email: dplatt@student.uiwtx.edu

CITI Health Information Privacy and Security (HIPS) for Students and Instructors:

Stage 1. HIPS Passed on 06/29/11 (Ref # 6275958)

Required Modules	Date Completed	Score
About the Course	06/29/11	1/1 (100%)
Privacy Rules: Introduction to Federal and State Requirements*	06/29/11	10/10 (100%)
Privacy Rules: Students and Instructors*	06/29/11	4/4 (100%)
Security Rules: Basics of Being Secure, Part 1*	06/29/11	no quiz
Security Rules: Basics of Being Secure, Part 2*	06/29/11	8/10 (80%)
Completing the Privacy and Security Course	06/29/11	no quiz
University of the Incarnate Word	06/29/11	no quiz

For this Completion Report to be valid, the learner listed above must be affiliated with a CITI participating institution. Falsified information and unauthorized use of the CITI course site is unethical, and may be considered scientific misconduct by your institution.

Paul Braunschweiger Ph.D.
Professor, University of Miami

Director Office of Research Education
CITI Course Coordinator

CITI Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative (CITI)

Students conducting no more than minimal risk research Curriculum Completion Report

Printed on 8/17/2011

Learner: Dawn Ramirez (username: 1@dmramire)

Institution: University of the Incarnate Word

Contact Information   Department: Education
Email: dplatt@student.uiwtx.edu

Students conducting no more than minimal risk research:

Stage 1. Basic Course Passed on 06/29/11 (Ref # 6275957)

Required Modules	Date Completed	Score
Belmont Report and CITI Course Introduction	06/29/11	3/3 (100%)
Students in Research - SBR	06/29/11	9/10 (90%)
University of the Incarnate Word	06/29/11	no quiz

For this Completion Report to be valid, the learner listed above must be affiliated with a CITI participating institution. Falsified information and unauthorized use of the CITI course site is unethical, and may be considered scientific misconduct by your institution.

Paul Braunschweiger Ph.D.
Professor, University of Miami
Director Office of Research Education
CITI Course Coordinator

Appendix D: Application for Institutional Review Board Approval Form

Application for Institutional Review Board Approval Form

University of the Incarnate Word

Title of Study: **WOMEN IN LEADERSHIP: CONTRIBUTING FACTORS THAT IMPACT THE ACHIEVEMENT OF WOMEN IN HIGHER EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION AT FOUR-YEAR PUBLIC AND PRIVATE UNIVERSITIES IN TEXAS.**

College/School or Division/Discipline: **University of the Incarnate Word/Dreeben School of Education**

Investigators			
Principal Investigator - A UIW PI must be designated for all projects in which UIW is engaged in research.			
Name: Dawn M. Ramirez	Phone #: 210-213-4663	E-mail: dplatt@student.uiwtx.edu	Address: 4114 Medical Dr. Apt. 3105 San Antonio, TX. 78229
Co-Investigator(s) – List all co-investigators and provide contact information on each one			
Name: N/A	Phone #:	E-mail:	Address:
Faculty Supervisor of Project, Thesis, or Dissertation			
Name: Dr. Absael Antelo	Phone #: 210-832-3215	E-mail: antelo@uiwtx.edu	Address: Contact information for Dr. Absael Antelo Dreeben School of Education 4301 Broadway

			San Antonio, TX. 78209

Research Information
Research Category: X Exempt □Expedited Review □Full Board Review
Purpose of Study: The purpose of the study is to describe the contributing factors leading to the success of Hispanic women administrators in higher education at four year public and private institutions in Texas. These women must occupy senior administrative positions (president, chancellor, provost, deans, chairs, vice presidents, associate deans, directors, associate directors and coordinators).

Number of Subjects: 283	Number of Controls: N/A	Duration of Study: 1 year

Does this research involve any of the following:	**YES**	**NO**
Inmates of penal institutions	□	X
Institutionalized intellectually handicapped	□	X
Institutionalized mentally disabled	□	X
Committed patients	□	X
Intellectually handicapped outpatient	□	X
Mentally disabled outpatient	□	X
Pregnant women	□	X
Fetus in utero	□	X

Viable fetus	☐	X
Nonviable fetus	☐	X
Dead fetus	☐	X
In Vitro fertilization	☐	X
Minors (under 18)	☐	X

For each "Yes", state what precautions you will use to obtain informed consent?

N/A

How is information Obtained? (Include instruments used. Attach copy of instrument to this application.)

See attached instrument.

Confidentiality – Are data recorded anonymously?   X Yes   ☐ No

Benefit of research:

To determine conditions and factors that have helped Hispanic administrators to become successful.

Possible risk to subjects: None

Funding Source:	Funded by:	Grant Proposal Pending:	Not Funded: X
N/A	N/A	N/A	

CHECKLIST:

Research protocol ☐

Informed consent documents ☐

Instruments used for data collection ☐

CITI certificate of training on the protection of human subjects ☐

If change in research occurs the Board must be notified before research is continued.

SIGNATURES
Original Signatures are required. This application will not be processed until all signatures are obtained.
Signature of the Principal Investigator The undersigned accepts responsibility for the study, including adherence to DHHS, FDA, and UIW policies regarding protections of the rights and welfare of human subjects participating in the study. In the case of student protocols, the faculty supervisor and the student share responsibility for adherence to policies.

Print Name of Principal Investigator: **Dawn M. Ramirez**	**Signature of Principal Investigator:**	**Date:**

Signature of Faculty Research Supervisor – Required By signing this form, the faculty research supervisor attests that he/she has read the attached protocol submitted for IRB review, and agrees to provide appropriate education and supervision of the student investigator above.

Print Name of Faculty Supervisor: **Dr. Absael Antelo**	**Signature of Faculty Supervisor:**	**Date:**

Signature of Co-investigator(s)

Print Name of Co-Investigator: N/A	Signature of Co-Investigator:	Date:

APPROVAL SIGNATURE(S)		
Signature of the IRB College/School Representative:		
Print Name of College/School Rep.:	Signature of College/School Rep.:	Date:
Signature of the IRB Chair (if needed)		
Print Name of IRB Chair: Dr. Helen Smith	Signature of IRB Chair:	Date:

Application Number: 11-11-005
The Researcher must use copies of the **stamped** consent form. Other communications to the study subjects must also be stamped with the IRB approval number. Electronic surveys must have the IRB approval number inserted into the survey before they are used.

IRBs are filed by their number and helps the Graduate Office keep track of submissions and communications. Please refer to this number when communicating about the IRB.

Appendix E: Permission to use Survey Instrument

Re: Permision

sandra jackson [sjackson_75044@yahoo.com]

Sent: Friday, April 02, 2010 3:04 AM
To: Dawn MRamirez [dplatt@uiwtx.edu]
Cc: Kasraie, Noah

Dear Ms Ramirez,
Please accept this email as permission to use my survey.
Dr. Sandra Wright

--- On **Mon, 3/29/10, Ramirez, Dawn M** *<dplatt@uiwtx.edu>* wrote:

> From: Ramirez, Dawn M <dplatt@uiwtx.edu>
> Subject: Permision
> To: sjackson_75044@yahoo.com
> Cc: "Kasraie, Noah" <kasraie@uiwtx.edu>
> Date: Monday, March 29, 2010, 9:20 AM
>
> Good Morning Dr. Jackson,
>
> First, I would just like to say thank you for speaking with me Friday afternoon about your survey. This
> email serves as a representation that I have your permission to use your survey. The person that I have
> carbon copied is my professor Dr. Noah Kasraie.If you may, please email me back and let me know that I
> have your permission.
>
>
> Sincerely,
>
> Dawn Ramirez
> 210-413-4663