AN EXAMINATION OF ROLE PERCEPTIONS OF SENIOR ADMINISTRATORS IN STATE HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS IN INDONESIA
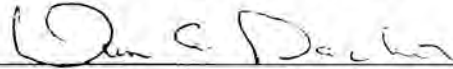
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Requirement for the Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

in the Department of Psychological Foundations in Education

We accept this dissertation as conforming to the required standard
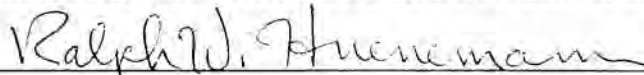
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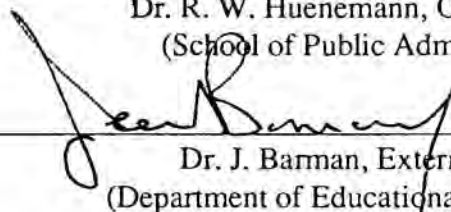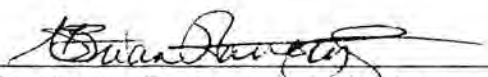(Department of Psychological Foundations in Education)
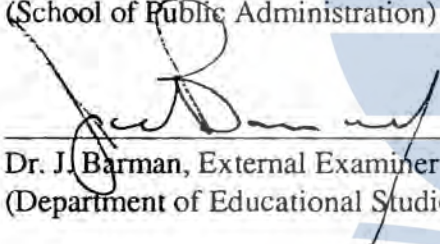

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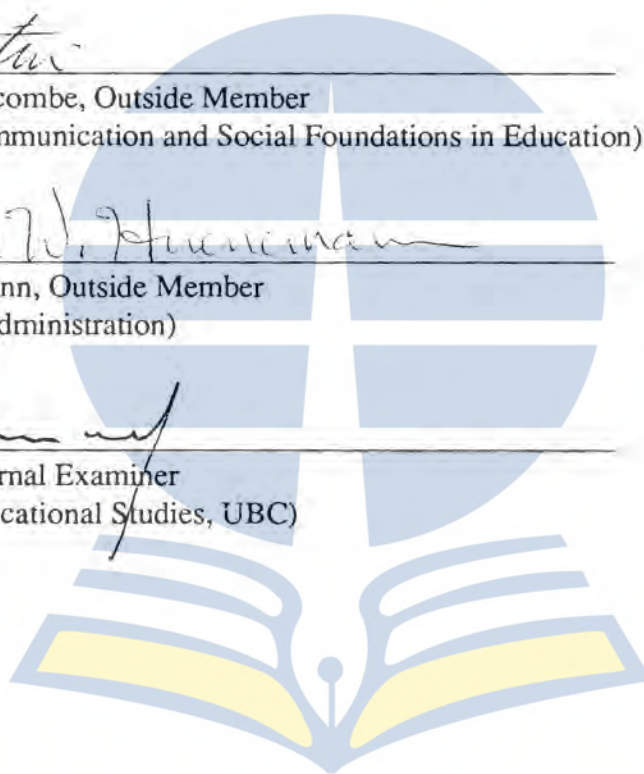(Department of Psychological Foundations in Education)

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ABSTRACT

The primary purpose of this study was to compare and contrast how men and women in similar senior administrative positions in higher education institutions perceived ideal characteristics for success in their positions, how they felt about those ideal characteristics compared to their own, and how they saw and managed obstacles faced in their current positions. In addition, in order to investigate underrepresentation of women in senior administrative positions, this study also explored how female senior administrators felt about being women in their current positions.

The instruments used in this study were a self-administered questionnaire and semi-structured interviews. The questionnaire was designed to assess the respondent's perception of the ideal characteristics and to identify obstacles faced in pursuing an administrative career. A semi-structured interview was designed to obtain information related to how respondents rate themselves on their perceived characteristics of effective administrators and how the respondents manage their perceived obstacles.

A total of 223 senior administrators responded to the questionnaire. In addition, 8 male and 8 female senior administrators were interviewed. Data were analyzed by theme grouping and frequency counting.

In general, there were no differences in the sets of characteristics for effective administrators derived from male and female respondents. Nor were there differences in sets of characteristics derived from respondents based on their positions and age. The characteristics clustered into three groups: those related to self, related to system, and related to the interaction between self and system. However, there were differences in the priorities given to the characteristics.

The interviewed respondents believed they possess the necessary characteristics to carry out their responsibilities effectively.

Obstacles faced in pursuing administrative careers, in general, arose from self, system, and the interaction between self and system. All obstacles faced by female respondents were also faced by male respondents except for one, negative perceptions toward women in administrative positions. In addition, male and female respondents differed in the priority assigned to the obstacles.

The interviewed respondents managed their obstacles according to the nature of the obstacles. For obstacles which were believed to be unchangeable, respondents tried to just ignore them. For obstacles perceived to be changeable, respondents did something, either to themselves, to the work-system, or to others.

In exploring female respondents' feeling about being women in their current positions, it was found that even though the respondents were now comfortable in their positions, they had previously had to face years of battle. Being a woman and having a career was difficult because of the difficulties of gaining legitimacy in the system and the difficulties of role-conflicts.

Based on the findings, it is recommended to reconsider the characteristics used to evaluate administrators for promotion, to increase extra-to-load allowance for senior administrators, to differentiate promotion regulations into three groups (academic, administrative, and academic who are posted in administrative positions), and to provide autonomy to higher education institutions.

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ACKNOWLEDGMENT

My sincere thanks to my supervisor, Dr. D. Bachor, who dedicated his expertise, time, and efforts in giving assistance, guidance, and encouragement from the preparation through the completion of this study. Thanks are also extended to my committee members, Dr. B. Harvey, Dr. Y. Martin-Newcombe, and Dr. R. Huenemann, for their assistance.

I also wish to thank Dr. Setijadi, former Rector of Universitas Terbuka, for his trust and encouragement; Dr. A. Djalil, the Head of UT's Research Centre, for his help with my questionnaire; M. Harvey and staff members of UT enrolled in graduate programs at UVic for their help and support.

My heartfelt thanks to my parents and to my parents-in-law, the Sjatibi and the Soemardi Koesoemo families, for their emotional support and for taking care of my daughters in Jakarta; a very special thanks to my sister, Ayu, who helped me take care of my youngest daughter in Victoria.

Most especially, I acknowledge my appreciation to my husband, Uli, and our daughters, Nana, Lindi, and Ditya, for their endless emotional support and for their understanding of living apart from me during the completion of my degree.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Background

The primary purpose of this study was to compare and contrast how men and women in similar senior administrative positions in higher education institutions perceived ideal characteristics for success in their positions, how they felt about those ideal characteristics compared to their own, and how they saw and managed obstacles faced in their current positions. In addition, in order to investigate underrepresentation of women in senior administrative positions, this study also explored how female senior administrators felt about being women in their current positions.

In this section, two issues will be discussed: 1) the organizational structure and rank system employed in higher education institutions in Indonesia, and 2) the efforts the Indonesian government has made to increase the participation of women in the work place.

Higher Education in Indonesia

Higher education in Indonesia is mandated by Government Regulation No. 30/1990. This regulation establishes the main functions of higher education institutions, their basic structures, and their future development.

Also stipulated in this organizational structure are the senior administrative positions in higher education institutions in Indonesia. These are the President, Vice Presidents (the number depends on the institutions' needs), the Head of Research Centers, the Head of Community Services, and Deans (one for each faculty), the Head of Academic and Students Affairs, and the Head of General Administrative Affairs. The first five positions can only be held by academic members. On the other hand, the last two positions are held by administrative staff.

Under the President of a higher education institution, there are usually three vice presidents. The first Vice President is responsible for academic affairs, the second Vice President is responsible for finance and administrative affairs, and the third Vice President is responsible for students' affairs. However, this structure is not rigid. Modifications can be made to accommodate the special circumstances of each institution. For example, Universitas Gajah Mada (UGM-Gajah Mada University) in Jogjakarta has four Vice Presidents. The size and number of UGM activities requires a Fourth Vice President who is responsible for coordination with outside Institutions/Organizations.

This flexibility is included to provide wider opportunities for higher education institutions to achieve their objectives.

Administrative appointments are regulated by Government Regulation No. 8/1974. Accordingly, there are 8 (eight) basic elements examined that are considered when administrative appointments are made:

1. Loyalty

   Refers to one's loyalties to Indonesia's Basic Principles (Panca Sila), Constitutions, and Government.

2. Work-performance

   Refers to one's performance in carrying out one's responsibility. It is influenced by one's skills, experience, and perseverance.

3. Responsibility

   Refers to one's capability to carry out one's tasks efficiently and effectively given the time frame and to accept the risks of the decision made.

4. Fidelity

   Refers to one's capability to follow all rules and regulations inherent in a position.

5. Honesty

    Refers to one's sincerity in carrying out tasks and not to misuse one's position for private interests.

6. Coordination

    Refers to one's ability to work with others to gain optimum results.

7. Initiative

    Refers to one's ability to make decisions, set steps and take action necessary to carry out tasks without waiting for instructions from above.

8. Leadership

    Refers to one's ability to influence others to get things done.

These elements are evaluated once a year and are used as one means for career development of civil servants in general. For those who are involved in academic activities, two other aspects that influence career development are educational background and credits earned in teaching, conducting research, and doing community services. These three elements are used for one's career advancement, which is reflected in one's rank.

Academic members in higher education institutions possess two separate ranks. The first rank relates to one's position in the general civil servant ranking, and the second relates to one's position in the academic ranking. The civil servant general rank system (see Table 1) is designed to award recognition which is reflected in rank and salary.

Table 1
Civil Servant General Ranking System
(From low to high rank)

No.	Rank	Group	Category
1	Penata Muda	III	a
2	Penata Muda Tingkat I	III	b
3	Penata	III	c
4	Penata Tingkat I	III	d
5	Pembina	IV	a
6	Pembina Tingkat I	IV	b
7	Pembina Utama Muda	IV	c
8	Pembina Utama Madya	IV	d
9	Pembina Utama	IV	e

Source: Nainggolan, Pembinaan Pegawai Negeri Sipil, 1986.

The General Rank System actually begins with Group I, for those with elementary education, followed by Group II, for those with high school education. However, since a lecturer has to hold at least a bachelor's degree, the first two groups will not be included in this discussion.

A civil servant with a bachelor's degree begins as a "Penata Muda" in Group/category III/a. Based on the time served as a civil servant and on results from the 8 (eight) elements of assessment, one will eventually move upward in the general ranks. Appointment to the rank of Lecturer is withheld until an individual gains sufficient credit from teaching, conducting research, and carrying out community service. Only then will one be acknowledged as Asisten Ahli Madya, the lowest academic rank. Accumulation of credits from teaching, conducting research, and carrying out community service are also the criteria for determining promotions. The complete academic rank in Indonesia and its equivalent in the Canadian system can be seen in Table 2.

Table 2
Rank System for Academic Members in Higher Education
Institutions in Indonesia and its Equivalent in the
Canadian System
(From low to high rank)

No	General Rank	Academic Rank	
		Indonesia	Canadian
1	Penata Muda	Asisten Ahli Madya	Lecturer
2	Penata Muda Tk. I	Asisten Ahli	Lecturer
3	Penata	Lektor Muda	Assistant Professor
4	Penata Tk. I	Lektor	Assistant Professor
5	Pembina	Lektor	Associate Professor
6	Pembina Tk. I	Lektor Kepala	Associate Professor
7	Pembina Utama Muda	Professor	Full Professor
8	Pembina Utama Madya	Professor	Full Professor
9	Pembina Utama	Professor	Full Professor

Academic members are clustered at the bottom of the ranking system (Asisten Ahli Madya - Lektor Madya or Lecturers in Canadian system) as a consequence of the increasing credit earned requirement for higher ranks. As for the proportion of male and female academic members in each rank, Table 3 shows that males outnumber females in all seven ranks.

Table 3
Percentage of Academic Members By Rank and Sex
1987 and 1992

Echelon	Female (%)		Male (%)	
	1987	1992	1987	1992
Guru Besar	22.89	24.12	77.11	75.88
Lektor Kepala	14.15	15.34	85.85	84.66
Lektor	20.92	20.71	79.08	79.29
Lektor Madya	20.59	22.26	79.41	77.74
Lektor Muda	23.51	30.78	76.49	69.22
Asisten Ahli	25.94	26.68	74.06	73.32
Asisten Ahli Madya	30.69	30.73	69.31	69.27

Source: State Personnel Administration Board, 1994

The ratio of males to females in each of the academic ranks increases with rank. For example in 1987, 30.69% of Asisten Ahli Madya were female, but the percentage goes down to 22.89% for Guru Besar. It is interesting to note that in 1992, the percentage of female Asisten Ahli was 26.68%. Based on the regulations, it is likely that the 1992-Lektor Muda was

an Asisten Ahli Madya in 1987. In general, two to three years are required to move up one echelon. If this is the case, Table 3 shows that most of the 1987-Asisten Ahli Madya rose to the Lektor Muda rank. But, in general, the percentages for each echelon are the same for 1987 and 1992.

There are two possible reasons for this condition. The first concerns educational background. As previously mentioned, education plays an important role both in one's starting point as a civil servant and in further career development. The number of women who graduate from academy/university is only 1.03% of the total Indonesian population, while the figure for men is 2% (Biro Pusat Statistik, 1992). While the low-percentage of higher education graduates in itself promotes problems, the fact that the percentage for men is almost twice that of women could be one reason for the small number of women academic members.

A second possible reason for the low percentage of female academic members is the time needed to attain promotion. The number of female academic members in higher education institutions started to increase in the early 80's (Koswara, 1991), and since it takes time

to accumulate the credit requirement for promotion, it will also take time to see more female academic members in the higher ranks.

In both general and academic ranks, credit earned from educating and teaching, conducting research, and carrying out community service are necessary for promotion. Understanding of both the general and the academic rank is important because of its relationship to appointment to senior administrative positions in higher education institutions. In order to be qualified as a Dean, for example, one has to be Pembina/IV/a in the general ranking system (see Table 1) and Lektor in the academic ranking system (see Table 2). For the Head of Academic and Students Affairs, and the Head of General Administrative Affairs, one has to be Pembina Utama Madya/IV/c in the general ranking system, but there is no need to possess an academic rank.

The smaller number of females in higher education institutions in comparison with males is also reflected in senior administrative positions. Although women can be found in every senior position, the percentage of female senior administrators in the last ten years has remained at 6%.

Government Effort to Increase Women's Participation

In 1985, the Indonesian Government established a Ministry for the Roles of Women. One of the Ministry's responsibilities is to encourage women to participate in all levels of economic activities. For optimum results, the Ministry not only eliminates rules which can be disadvantageous for women, but also provides women with information and training, if necessary, to attain desired job-positions.

The Ministry was established as a result of the government's anticipation of the effects of economic globalization. The government plans to transform Indonesian society from an agricultural to an industrial society. This transformation, which is a primary national development goal, demands changes in values.

In Indonesia, which is an griculture-based society, division of labor is clear; men work in the fields, women stay home (Soebadio, 1982). This differentiation has never been questioned since, by its nature, working in the fields requires great physical efforts which, among many other things, women are perceived to be incapable of. Consequently, women's contributions in the fields are not seen to have economic meaning.

These values are still widely held even though the situation has changed. With the development of the industrial sector, women have begun to participate in the work place. However, the value or belief that women do not contribute much to the economic sector still remains and is reflected in the salaries women receive. Salary differentiation occurs in two different forms. For blue-collar workers, the difference is clearly stated in a written agreement (Biro Pusat Statistik, 1992). On the other hand, there is no written document that differentiates between male and female white-collar workers in terms of their salaries. However, the amount of take-home pay for females and males differs. Their basic salaries are the same, but male workers are entitled to an automatic family allowance. Female workers have to submit additional information (stating the incapability of their spouse to work, for example) if they want to receive the family allowance.

Not only do women receive less money than men, but they also find it more difficult to move upward in their career paths. As a country with a mostly Moslem population, the commonly held belief is that men lead while women are to be led (Menteri Negara Urusan Peranan Wanita, 1991). It is not the duty of women to

lead, their responsibility is to be at home and raise children. These prevalent perceptions make society uncomfortable with women in high administrative positions (Koswara, 1991).

Inherent in these beliefs is the stereotyping of characteristics of men and women: what is called masculine (i.e. independence, objectivity, rationality, and competitiveness) and what is called feminine (i.e. dependence, intuition, emotionality, and submissiveness). It is believed that masculinity best describes the characteristics of leaders. However, in North America, an alternative viewpoint of effective leadership has emerged whereby effectiveness improves with the intermix of both masculine and feminine characteristics in leadership (The Ohio State Studies in the 1950's, Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid Theory, 1978).

Despite the shifts in the North American theories about characteristics which result in better leadership, values held in Indonesian society remain contradictiry to women accessing senior administrative positions (Arief, 1992; Koswara, 1991). These values, however, are not only reflected in how society (men and women as a whole) views women, but also in how women view themselves or women's self-perceptions (Arief,

1992). Women, like any other part of a culture, are subject to a set of norms which are not merely expectations of behavior but are also ways of perceiving and evaluating. Hodgkinson (1991) stressed the power of culture since "Its effects, though real, are often subliminal or unconscious, below the level of awareness in the way that fish are unconscious of the sea in which they swim ..." (p.8).

Awareness of the importance of these values was first evident when the issue of "the roles of women in national development" was introduced into the Indonesian Guidelines for National Policies. In general, there are three basic principles inherent in the Guidelines:

1. women's integration in national development;
2. women as partners in family and society activities; and
3. a role balance of women as wives and economic individuals. (Sutanto, 1991)

All government policy interventions for women, in the form of policies, programs, and projects, are aimed at increasing the role women take in national development. In 1984, as a component of the change,

Indonesia ratified the United Nation's Convention on the "elimination of all forms of discrimination against women."

Change always encounters resistance, which means it will take time before the change can be adopted. In Indonesia, the resistance has been even stronger because of the economic situation. In the present situation, the unemployment rate is high (Biro Pusat Statistik, 1992). Supply in the labor force exceeds demand. In this situation, supported by beliefs that men are the ones who are responsible for the family's welfare, men are chosen first to fill available jobs.

Resistance to change is also apparent in higher education administration. As Oey-Gardiner (1991) suggested "While there are no legal restrictions in female formal education ... the fact remains that, when resources are limited, preference tends to be given to sons" (p. 37). Education, a requirement for administrator positions, is not equally accessible for men and women. The situation is reflected in the fact that, even though 20% of academic members in higher education are women who possess the rank required to be appointed as administrators (State Personnel

Administration Board, 1994), the number of women
administrators in these institutions is small, only 6%
(Departemen Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan, 1993).

Statement of the Problem

Regardless of the efforts of the Indonesian
government, the number of women at senior levels in
higher education institutions remains small. Women
presently hold only 6% of senior administrative
positions in state higher education institutions
throughout Indonesia (Departemen Pendidikan dan
Kebudayaan, 1993).

The small number of women in senior administrative
positions in higher education institutions is, however,
not exclusively an Indonesian problem. In North
America, only 10% of all University presidents are
women (Green, 1989). The situation is best described
by the Report of the Hansard Society Commission on
Women at the Top :

> "It is likely that the persistence of out-dated
> attitudes about women's roles and career
> aspirations constitutes the main barrier stopping
> women from reaching the top in academic life. It
> might be thought somewhat ironical that
> institutions dedicated to the unravelling of
> truths are themselves still wrapped in the myths
> of the past" (Hansard Society for Parliamentary
> Government, 1990, p. 12).

There are several interrelated reasons given to explain why women do not occupy chief administrative posts in most organizations. The most general reason offered is that women are discriminated against (Andreskiew & Howes, 1980). Another reason is that negative perceptions towards women as administrators make it more difficult for them to assume leadership positions (Brenner, Tomkiewitcz, & Schein, 1988). Also, women are not promoted because their administrative performance is evaluated more negatively than that of males, since administration is viewed as a male occupation (Schein, 1989).

Even though the most frequently cited reason for women not attaining top positions in academe is the existence of stereotypes related to their ability to lead, a review of literature reveals no research regarding leadership perceptions of women in top positions. It is the objective of this study to generate information regarding gender-related perceptions about those who have assumed senior administrative positions in higher education institutions.

It is important to know what men and women who have assumed senior administrative positions in higher education institutions perceive to be the ideal

characteristics necessary for success in their positions, to compare the similarities and differences, and to call into question gender-related perceptions so that much needed qualified administrators will not continue to go undetected.

Research has been conducted concerning how supervisors and subordinates of women administrators evaluate and view them (see Andruskiew & Howes, 1980; Feild & Caldwell, 1979; Heilman, Block, Martell, & Simon, 1989). Women administrators also have served as subjects in research concerning how they react to society and their males counterparts' beliefs in order to be recognized in the 'male dominated' environment (see Highman, 1985; Hyde, 1984). However, there is no research which has investigated how men view themselves in their position as leaders. In addition, there has been no research done which compares how men and women in similar administrative positions think about ideal characteristics for success in their positions.

Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of this study is to compare and contrast how men and women in similar senior administrative positions perceive ideal characteristics for success in their positions, how they feel about those ideal characteristics compared to their own, and

how they see and manage obstacles faced in their current positions. Based on these general issues, four questions are addressed:

1. What are the characteristics of effective senior administrators in higher education institutions?

2. What obstacles are faced in reaching current administrative positions?

3. How do the administrators rate themselves on those characteristics?

4. How do the administrators manage their perceived obstacles?

In order to investigate the underrepresentation of women in senior administrative positions, one further question is addressed:

5. How do female senior administrators feel about being a woman in their current position?

It is hoped that this examination will shed light on the reasons for the scarcity of women representatives in senior administrative positions.

Significance of the Study

This study was conducted as an attempt to gather information about women's involvement in higher education administration. The five questions under investigation will, it is hoped, be of benefit in both administrative and research fields.

In the administrative field, the results of this study should be informative for those who pursue senior administrative positions, especially in higher education institutions. Knowing the obstacles faced by those who have assumed the positions will help those who would pursue similar positions.

Awareness of the ideal characteristics necessary to succeed in the positions should help to prepare those who aspire to similar positions. Consequently, match-characteristics or role-incongruence could possibly be detected earlier.

In addition, since information will also be obtained from women administrators, this study may be useful for motivating younger women to aspire to higher administration. Women subjects could be seen as role models for younger women.

For the field of research, this study will be most useful in the sense that it provides information from both sides, men and women administrators. Controlled

by positions held, comparison and contrast between men and women administrators will provide a more complete picture and better understanding of the scarcity of women senior administrators in higher education institutions.

Operational Definitions

State Higher Education Institution:

> Higher education institutions owned, operated, and funded by Indonesian Government under the Department of Education and Culture, as is stated in the Government Regulation NO. 4/ 1990.

Senior Administrator in Higher Education Institution:

> Senior administrators in higher education institutions are those in the position of President, Vice President, Head of Bureau of Academic Affairs, Head of Bureau of Administrative and Students' Affairs, Head of Research Center, Head of Community Services Center, and Dean.

'Academic Position':

> Administrative position in higher education institutions which require the individual to possess academic rank.
>
> Included in this position are University President, Vice President, Dean, Head of Research Center, and Head of Community Service Center.

'Administrative' Position:

> Administrative position in higher education institutions with no academic rank requirements. Included in this position are Head of Bureau of General Administrative Affairs, Head of Bureau of Academic and Students' Affairs, and Head of Regional Office of the Indonesian Open Learning University.

Characteristics:

> Qualities or essential features in an individual.

Obstacles:

> Something that prevents or makes it difficult for someone to reach his or her objective.
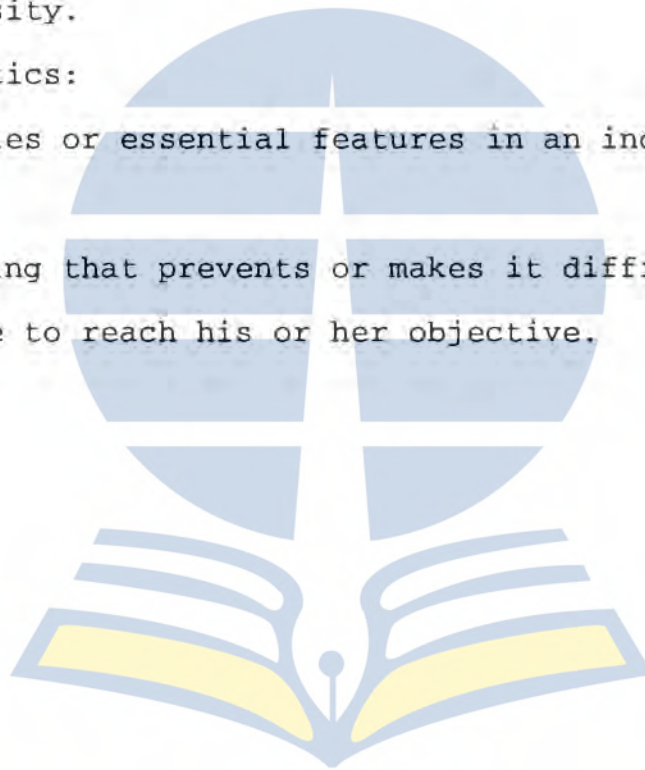
CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter consists of 3 parts. The first part deals with characteristics of effective administrators. In presenting this issue, related literature concerning characteristics of effective leaders in general will be presented first followed by characteristics of effective administrators in higher education institutions. The second part deals with obstacles faced by senior administrators in higher education institutions in pursuing their careers. The third part deals with obstacles faced by women pursuing administrative careers.

Characteristics of Effective Leaders

An attempt to isolate the characteristics or behaviors of effective leaders has often fallen into a quagmire of 'nature versus nurture' theories. It would seem that attempts to identify specific determinants of effective leaders should be an ongoing process. It is also important to note that the isolation of these characteristics or behaviors is only a part of the effort to better understand attainment in organizations since it is commonly acknowledged that attainment in the workplace is a function of both individual and structural characteristics (Osterman, 1984; White & Bednar, 1991; Wholey, 1985).

There are two things which are important to mention on the presentation of this section. The first is that the terms of leader, manager, and administrator will be used interchangeably. Although some theorists believe that there is a difference between manager and administrator in their nature of responsibilities (Hodgkinson, 1991), in the field these two terms are used interchangeably. For the purpose of this literature review, then, leader, manager, and administrator will not be differentiated. Second, the discussion of the characteristics or behaviors of effective administrators was based on a theoretical approach as well as field research.

Characteristics of Effective Leader in General

As early as 1934, Munro suggested the first set of characteristics for effective administrators which stressed interpersonal abilities. Other theorists and researchers added to the set of characteristics with intellectual-related ability (Dearborn, 1947), emotional quality (Thorndike, 1964), and finally Stogdill (1978), followed by Bass (1981), completed the set of characteristics. The leader, according to Bass (1981), is characterized by:

nearness, friendliness, group task supportiveness, and

task motivation and application.

Table 4
Factors appearing in three or more studies on
leadership

	Factor name	Frequency
1	Social and interpersonal skills	16
2	Technical skills	18
3	Administrative skills	12
4	Leadership effectiveness and achievement	15
5	Social nearness, friendliness	18
6	Intellectual skills	11
7	Maintaining cohesive work group	9
8	Maintaining coordination and teamwork	7
9	Task motivation and application	17
10	General impression (halo)	12
11	Group task supportiveness	17
12	Maintaining standard performance	5
13	Willingness to assume responsibility	10
14	Emotional balance and control	15
15	Informal group control	4
16	Nurturant behavior	4
17	Ethical conduct, personal integrity	10
18	Communication, verbality	6
19	Ascendance, dominance, decisiveness	11
20	Physical energy	6
21	Experience and activity	4
22	Mature, cultured	3
23	Courage, daring	4
24	Aloof, distant	3
25	Creative, independent	5
26	Conforming	5

Adapted from: B. M. Bass (1981).   Stogdill's Handbook
of Leadership.   New York: The Free Press.   p. 90.

These factors describe leaders differing from each

other consistently in making effective use of

interpersonal, administrative, technical, and

intellectual skills. Some leaders can be described as highly task-motivated, others are most capable of maintaining close, friendly personal relationships.

The next most frequent set of factors is concerned with how leaders relate to their groups. Behaviors include maintaining group cohesiveness, coordination, task motivation, task performance, and high quality of output. Concern for group performance is softened by nurturance behavior and the use of informal control, These factors are as follows: maintaining cohesive work group, maintaining coordination as team work, maintaining standards of performance, informal group control and nurturance behavior.

Next in frequency are factors concerned strictly with personal characteristics of leaders. They may be described in terms of how much they are emotionally well-balanced, willing to assume responsibility, ethical in conduct, able to communicate readily, dominant, energetic, experienced, courageous, and mature. These factors are as follows: willingness to assume responsibility, emotional balance and control, ethical conduct, personal integrity, communicative, verbality, ascendance, dominance, personal soundness,

good character, physical energy, experience and activity, mature, cultured, courage, daring, aloof, distant, creative, independent, and conformity.

The conclusion that personality is a factor in leadership differentiation does not represent a return to the trait approach, a tendency to treat personality variables in an atomistic fashion, suggesting that each characteristic acts singly to determine leadership effect (Bass, 1981). Nevertheless, it does represent a sensible modification of the extreme situationist point of view. The situationist approach, on the other hand, denies the influence of individual difference, attributing all variance by persons to fortuitous demands of the environment (Kolodny, 1979). Success and effectiveness are due to characteristics of consequence in the situation; some of the variance is due to situational effects and some of the variance is due to the interaction of characteristics and situation (Osterman, 1984; Wholey, 1985). Simply stated, "Leaders in one situation may not necessarily be leaders in other situations" (Stogdill, 1948, p.63).

The uniqueness of environment in higher education institutions makes it importance to examine characteristics for senior administrators in higher education institution.

Characteristics of Effective Administrators in Higher Education Institutions

The importance of situation for effective leadership (Stogdill, 1948; White & Bednar, 1991; Wholey, 1985), makes it necessary to examine characteristics for effective administrators in higher education institutions. The environment in higher education institutions, the organizational structure, the people who are involved, the supporting facilities, are unique. Therefore, although studies revealed common characteristics for leaders in various fields of work, differences might and did occur. However, because of a limited amount of research on leadership in higher education institutions, research conducted on senior administrators in school and private organizations will also be included in examining required characteristics for effective administrators in higher education institutions.

It is almost impossible to examine characteristics as a separate entity from personality. Personality itself (a distinctive set of characteristics that tend to remain the same across similar situations and are relatively stable over time), can be seen from Trait Theories (which look beneath the surface for explanations of the relationships of personality and

behavior; Allport , 1961; Cattell, 1965) and Self Theories (which views personality in terms of its integrated whole, Rogers, 1959).

Self Theories examine the relationship of the person (self) to the external world. The nature of the concept of self is determined by the person's perceived relationship to others and to various aspects of the environment. This approach will be used to examine related literature concerning characteristics and obstacles of senior administrators in higher education institutions specifically, and in school organizations and other organizations in general.

Characteristics necessary for senior administrators to effectively carry out their responsibilities are divided into three groups:1) those related to self; 2) those related to structure or system of the organization; and 3) those related to interaction between the self and the structure/system.

This separation into groups should not cloud the fact that the three groups are indeed one entity. It is only done to clarify the presentation of characteristics. However, it is impossible to devise discrete groups, in terms of what characteristics

belong to what group. It is also possible that one characteristic submerges other unlisted characteristics.

Characteristics Related to Self

Empowerment capacity.

Power, a concern for obtaining and maintaining control over others, is important since it can be aimed at controlling the human, information, and other resources necessary to accomplish a goal (White & Bednar, 1991). In addition, it is believed that an effective administrator must possess high power motivation, since administrators with high power motivation have been found to exhibit more influence activities (Mowday, 1978). This influence, in turn, could result in better performance on the part of the organization. Moreover, as Bennis & Nanus (1985) stated, "power is the currency of leaders" (p.18). Administrators with high need of power were judged to be more successful in terms of organizational performance and employee morale (Zander, 1974). However, some researchers concluded that a manager's need for power must be socialized or controlled. High need for power is beneficial in a managerial sense when it is directed toward organizational rather than personal goals (Zander, 1974).

This is why the concept of empowerment (the process of instilling a sense of power) is important. Empowerment increases organization effectiveness during times of transition and transformation (Stewart, 1989). In addition, it has also been proven that, when administrators share power and responsibility, organization productivity will increase (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Kanter, 1979).

The concept of empowerment is a major theme since power imbalances remain between leaders and followers. This is relevant to what Yukl (1981) believed to be one of the roles of an administrator, to "build the skills and self-confidence of subordinates" (p.59).

Vision.

Also important for leaders is their ability to develop a compelling vision for the future of the organization (Tichy & Devana, 1986). Bennis & Nanus (1985) suggest that a leader who communicates a vision is able to focus the attention of followers on the important task of the organization. Once the vision is shared by all members, the leaders are expected to mobilize the resources of the organization in the pursuit of that vision. By being invited into the

decision-making processes, workers gain a sense of ownership for organizational goals and activities (Block, 1987; Leithwood, 1992; Yukl, 1981).

Leaders (individuals who foster personal and professional staff development, dream a compelling vision, generate commitment by others to the vision, develop collaborative practices, and model organizational learning) may be difficult to find and more difficult to work with (Fullan, 1992). It is possible that the leader's vision is so strong that it submerges others' visions. Schein (1985) argues that the administrator's ability to articulate a powerful vision is in reality "the leader's ability to communicate major assumptions and values in a vivid and clear manner" (p.223).

Conflict management ability.

Conflict, the interaction of interdependent people or groups who perceive incompatible goals and interference from each other in achieving these goals, is an inevitable aspect of behavior in organizations. The interrelatedness, interdependencies, and complexities of systems suggests that conflict is unavoidable. Kelly (1970) found that the way conflict was managed contributes significantly to a company's effectiveness.

The administrator's task is not to avoid or eliminate conflict, but to manage it so its positive aspects can be realized. Conflict can lead to positive effects such as innovation and change and a search for new ideas (White & Bednar, 1991). The conflict dynamic can be particularly helpful when focused on such substantive issues as procedures, objectives, or methods of resource allocation (O'Lone, 1989; Thomas, 1978). On the other hand, conflict can also have negative or dysfunctional consequences. Conflict based on emotional issues or negative feelings can produce distrust, fears, resentment, and anger. Prolonged conflict can divert individuals and groups from task performance and can also create a negative climate in an organization (Bernstein, 1989; Lewicki & Litterer, 1985).

In practice, substantive and emotional issues are frequently interrelated. Emotional issues tend to produce more negative results, and are more difficult to resolve than substantive issues. Any conflict situation can produce either functional or dysfunctional outcomes, depending on how it is managed. The ability to resolve conflicts is one of the abilities an administrator must possess.

Intellectual capacity.

An administrator must be intellectual enough to be able to carry out his or her responsibilities (Bennis & Nanus, 1985). However, administrators do not have to be a "gifted" person because his/her thinking must be conveyed to followers (Bass, 1981).

Motivation.

Motivation, the process of initiating and sustaining behaviors toward certain goals, is important for administrators (Mitchell, 1990). Bandura (1986) divided motivation into 1) direct motivation and 2) vicarious motivation. Direct motivation can be further differentiated into intrinsic motivation (a need or other stimulus that occurs within an individual) and extrinsic motivation (caused by incidents or stimuli that occur externally). On the other hand, he defines vicarious motivation as the fact that the sight of others being rewarded or punished functions as motivation by arousing a person's expectation that he is likely to experience similar outcomes for his own comparable performance.

It was found that direct experience of outcomes is more likely to sustain motivation (Mitchell, 1982).

Values.

Values, an internalized standard of evaluation that denotes some desirable state, are important for administrators. The importance of values lies in the fact that values provide standards of competence and morality; transcend specific objects, situations, or persons; and are relatively permanent and resistant to change (Williams, 1968, 1977). In addition, Chapman's study (1991) found out that individuals can behave effectively in a system that can accommodate their values.

Communication ability.

Communication, a process of sending and receiving messages, is important not only in terms of verbal communication but also in terms of nonverbal communication. Knapp (1972) found that, in a normal two-person communication, more than 65 percent of the messages were conveyed nonverbally.

Sensitivity to both verbal and nonverbal messages is particularly important for administrators because they are almost constantly communicating. Based on systematic observations of the daily work routines of high level executives, Mintzberg (1983) calculated that verbal interaction accounted for 78 percent of the executives' time and 67 percent of their activities.

His research indicated that communicating was what administrators did; it was an integral aspect of administrative work. Since so much of the work an administrator did was accomplished nonverbally, an effective administrator must be aware of and sensitive to both the verbal and nonverbal messages he sends, as well as those received from others.

Decision making ability.

The most crucial part of the administrator's work --the part that justifies great authority and powerful access to information-- is performed in the role as decision maker. The essence of administrative work involves the exercise of judgment and the making of decisions.

Mintzberg's research (1973) indicated that the executive works at a fast, action-related pace. Half the activities in which an executive engaged lasted less than 9 minutes, and only 10 percent exceeded an hour. He concluded that the executive was action-oriented.

Consequently, it is important for administrators to possess cognitive complexity because of its influence on the quality of one's decisions (Payne & Beatty, 1982). A person with high cognitive complexity, the capacity to acquire and sort through

information, can discern a large number of discrete pieces of information in the environment and understand the relationships among those inputs. Such an individual tends to use more information on which to base decisions than someone with low cognitive complexity.

Research indicated that individuals high in cognitive complexity were likely to be innovative (Payne & Beatty, 1982), have good listening comprehension (Beatty & Payne, 1976), and be less apprehensive about communicating with others (Neuliep & Hazleton, 1985).

Characteristics related to Organizational System

Commitment.

Commitment is divided into the commitment of the administrator to his or her organization, and the ability of the administrator to generate commitment from followers to the purpose and goals of the organization (Bennis, 1989; Block, 1987; Nanus, 1989; Yukl, 1981).

There are two different types of commitment that are examined with respect to their relationship with careers --organizational and career commitment. The first of these has received far and away the most attention. Organizational commitment refers to both

the affective and behavioral indicators that an individual feels positively about his/her employer (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). The power and relevance of commitment --in its various forms (affective, normative, continuance) (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Randal, Fedor, & Longenecker, 1990)-- is often the antecedent for a better (defined as more satisfactory, productive, and healthy) relationship between individual and organization. Organizational commitment also has received attention in the careers literature because, as an outcome, it varies based on an individual's work and life experience (Ornstein & Isabella, 1993).

Organizational commitment has been examined as an antecedent of absenteeism (Mathiu & Kohler, 1990), withdrawal intentions (Kline & Peters, 1991), and work and non-work satisfaction (Romzek, 1989). As hypothesized, increases in commitment are positively related to satisfaction and inversely related to absenteeism and withdrawal intentions. A great deal of attention has been devoted to determining what career factors moderate the relationship between organizational commitment and these various outcomes.

Whereas much of the research on commitment as an antecedent has been completed relative to other organizational variables (e.g. absenteeism, performance), the majority of recent research examining commitment as an outcome has explored this link relative to individual and situational characteristics. For example, Lee, Ashford, Walsh, & Mowday (1992) suggest that personal characteristics and experience create a "commitment propensity" (prior to joining an organization) which they found to be related to subsequent organizational commitment. Additionally, Jans (1989) and Dornstein and Matalon (1989) examined non-work variables such as the extent to which work or family is given priority. They also found that the attitudes of family and friends have an impact on an individual's organizational commitment.

Commitment as an outcome of career stage has also received much attention. Brooks and Seers (1991) found that various factors relating to commitment (such as age, self-efficacy, interpersonal influence, task factors, leader behaviors, and organizational structure characteristics) were rated differently relative to importance across career stages. Team cohesion was stronger when individuals are forming a professional identity and building relationships with co-workers;

task challenge was strongest during one's advancement phase; supervisor behavior/perceptions were strongest when individual careers start to level off; and finally, organizational climate was strongest at that later stage where individuals have achieved levels in the organization from which to effect changes in norms and values.

Reilly and Orsak (1991) measured three different types of commitment and then explored different levels of commitment across career stage. Their results suggest that continuance and normative commitment (the cost that employees attach to leaving and feelings of obligation to remain, respectively) increase with career stage while affective commitment (the emotional attachment to the organization) remains stable. Moreover, Ornstein, Cron, and Slocum (1989) found different patterns of relationships between career stage and commitment for samples which differed by gender. In a primarily male sample (94% of 500 people), commitment increased in the middle and late career stages while there were no differences in commitment across career stages for women. In partial replication, however, age, not career stage, was found to the be primary differentiation in women's organizational commitment (Ornstein & Isabella, 1990).

Career commitment refers to an individual's commitment to his/her profession or career (Colarelli & Bishop, 1990). This concept was identified a decade ago (Morrow, 1983) but only recently received much attention (Blau, 1988, 1989; Colarelli & Bishop, 1990; Morrow & Goetz, 1988; Morrow & Wirth, 1989). Much like the research on organizational commitment, the career commitment construct has been explored as an antecedent to other organizational behaviors (e.g. turnover intentions and behaviors; Bedian, Kemery, & Pizzolatto, 1991), as outcomes of both individual and situational characteristics (such as work role salience, career satisfaction, organizational opportunity for development; Aryee & Tan, 1992), and related to other career experiences such as having a mentor (Colarelli & Bishop, 1990).

This concept has even been used cross-culturally. Studying a group of Japanese female clerical employees, Matsui, Ohsawa, and Onglatco (1991) found that career commitment was positively related to educational level, role values, and intrumentality while negatively related to expressiveness.

Risk propensity.

Risk-taking propensity is concerned with an individual's willingness to take risk (White & Bednar, 1991). Researchers have found that persons with a high propensity to take risks also tend to make decisions more quickly than those whose risk-taking propensity is low (Taylor & Dunnatte, 1974). Performance might be positively affected by high risk-taking propensity in jobs requiring immediate decisions.

Characteristics Related to the Interaction Between Self and Organizational System

Facilitation skills.

A number of researchers believe that an administrator in education must become a facilitator and an enabler (Angus, 1989; Fullan, 1992; Petrie, 1990; Smyth, 1989). From their point of view, then, administrators have to possess facilitation skills. Conway (1990) suggests that administrators require interaction, coordination, and team building skills; Fullan (1992) believes that leaders need the ability to develop collaborative work cultures in which all followers contribute to the decision-making process, problem-solving, and vision-building. Honesty and open communication are critical; administrators must listen actively to the needs and dreams of their colleagues

(Helgelsen, 1990; Mitchell, 1990). The ideal of inclusion connection, trust, commitment, responsibility, and nurture infuse the working relationships among all members (Blackmore, 1989; Helgelsen, 1990).

Social participation.

Stogdill (1978) found the importance of social participation, people orientations that elicit cooperation, and active involvement for administrators. Gorton and McIntyre (1978), in a national study of principals, confirmed the ability to work with other kinds of people, to motivate and understand them, as the greatest asset of effective administrators. Burns (1978) gives administrators the task of 'mobilizing" people in the organization.

Obstacles Faced in Pursuing Administrative Careers

Obstacles faced by individuals who chose a career in higher education institution could be rooted in the individual himself or herself (internal obstacles), from the structure or system of the institution (external obstacles), and from the interaction between the individual and the structure which also includes interaction with superiors, peers, and subordinates.

Obstacles related to self

Role Conflict

Kopelman, Greenhaus, and Connolly (1983) provide a theoretical model for describing the relationship between role conflict at work, in the family and between the two, as well as satisfaction at home, at work, and with life in general. Kopelman et al. (1983) define work conflict as the extent to which an individual experiences incompatible role pressures within the work domain, and family conflict as the extent to which incompatible role pressures are experienced within the family. For both types of conflict, the model postulates that incompatibility may arise from multiple role senders, one role sender, or a lack of fit between the focal person and role requirements.

The model also includes interrole conflict which is described as the extent to which a person experiences pressures within one role that are incompatible with pressure from another role. In two studies which tested the theoretical model, Kopelman et al. (1983) reported strong links between work conflict and job satisfaction. Greenhaus & Beutell (1985) identified three ways that role pressures can be incompatible: (1) time spent in one role may leave

little time to devote to other roles, (2) strain within one role domain may "spillover" into another one, and (3) behavior appropriate to one role domain may be dysfunctional in another.

Work-family Conflict/Dual Career Couple

The conflicting demands of work and family life are integrally related to how people enact their careers, the meanings they attach to their careers, and the means by which their careers are more or less successful (Swanson, 1992).

Most of the research on work-family has been anchored in role theory, especially role conflict. This perspective encompasses conflict between various work and home roles and the relationships between the roles (Ornstein & Isabella, 1993). In general, work conflict and work role stressors have been found to be consistent and strong predictors of work-homes conflict (Greenhaus, Parasuraman, Granrose, Rabinowitz, & Beutell, 1989; Higgins, Duxburry, & Irving, 1992). Work-home conflict also has been found to be negatively related to family climate (Wiersma & Vandenberg, 1991). In a study of specific types of work-family conflict, Loerch, Russell, and Rush (1989) determined that both time and strain-based conflicts were related to family intrusions and the presence of family conflicts. Not

surprisingly, men and women seem to experience some of these work-home conflicts differently from one another. Greenhaus et al. (1989) found that women experienced greater impact of work role salience and task characteristics on work-home conflict than did men.

Additionally, Loerch et al. (1989) found that the particular type of conflict (time based, strain based) experienced by men and women was best predicted by different variables. Time-based conflict was predicted by family intrusions and total role involvement for men, but by family conflict for women. While family conflict similarly affected the strain-based conflict experienced by both men and women, family intrusions was more significant for women. These findings are consistent with other research which suggest that women and men report different expectations and experiences regarding being part of a dual career couple (DiBeenedetto & Tilt, 1990; Parasuraman, Greenhaus, Rabinowitz, Bedian, & Mossholder, 1989;).

More than other career issues, work-family conflict and the logistical problems faced by dual-career couples increasingly are managerial issues. The argument has been made that organizations need to learn to be "family responsive" (Collins &

Magid, 1990) as well as to develop programs that work to take better advantage of women who work and have children (Rodgers & Rodgers, 1989; Schwartz, 1992). The uproar created by Schwartz's (1989) call for dual career tracks for employees suggests the extent to which these issues are central to both managers and employees (Kinnier, Katz, & Berry, 1991).

Becker (1985) argues that in dual-earner families with children, husbands are more productive in the workplace than their wives because women expend more energy on household duties than on their paid work. On the other hand, Staines, Pottick, and Fudge (1986) found negative associations between wives' employment and husbands' job and life satisfaction.

In addition, Greenhaus and Kopelman (1981) found that men whose wives were employed in managerial positions experienced significantly more intense work-family conflict than men whose wives were employed in nonmanagerial positions. This suggests that the work involvement of women in high-level positions places demands on husbands to participate more actively in home and family roles, thereby generating more role conflict for the man. Work-family conflict was higher when all children were pre-schoolers than when children were older.

In terms of conflict and work-aspiration, Holahan and Gilbert (1979) demonstrated that career aspirations were positively correlated with role conflict for females in dual career couples but negatively correlated with role conflict in males. A normative explanation of these findings suggests that men with high career aspirations, in placing such high priority on their career, are behaving in a way congruent with societal norms for the masculine role. On the other hand, women in dual career couples who are highly career commited are going against societal expectation for women by adding a non-traditional role, thus heightening their role conflict.

Obstacles Related to the Organizational System

Bureaucratic

Max Weber (1947), a pioneer in the study of large, complex organizations, used the word bureaucracy to describe what he considered be the ideal organizational form. The term has come to mean something different to most of us today. Weber (1947) concluded that bureaucracies possessed certain characteristics which enabled them to operate efficiently and to accomplish their goals. These characteristics include hierarchy

of authority, specialization, rules and regulations, and formalized impersonality. Taken together, they constitute a working definition of 'bureaucracy'.

Although bureaucratic structure in itself enforces efficiency, 'bureaucratic' in an organization's reality is viewed as power over others (Daft, 1989). The consequence of power over others is that people are forced, manipulated, or persuaded to do things they may not wish to do (Burns, 1978). The control of one's actions is placed outside the individual with the more powerful people in the organization.

Block (1987) suggests that bureaucratic relationship yield myopic self-interest, manipulative tactics, and dependency of the followers. A bureaucratic system creates obstacles for the individuals involved in the system because it blocks the flow of information (Foster, 1986), slows down the work (Glickman, 1991), and creates passive followers who lack initiative (Watkins, 1989). In her study, Finch (1981) found that school administrators impeded teachers' effort to implement a new program by blocking access to resources and by manipulating the flow of information.

Centralization

The term authority suggests that decisions are always made at the top of organizations and communicated to position holders at lower levels. The terms, centralization and decentralization, refer to the actual locations of decision making authority in the organizational hierarchy. Centralization means that decision-making power is concentrated at the top of an organization.

The location of decision making authority can affect administrators. Decentralization expands the breadth and significance of administrators' roles. Loss of authority resulting from recentralization can damage the administrator's sense of security and self esteem.

Effectiveness depends on the distribution of power throughout an organization, rather than on rigid organizational control (Block, 1987; Burke, 1986; Conger, 1989; Kanter, 1982).

Organizational Politics

Organizational politics refers to intentional acts of influence designed to enhance or protect the self interest of individuals or groups. Allen, Madison, Porter, Renwick, Mayes (1979) state that organizational politics involves activities and behaviors through

which power is acquired, developed, and used in organizations to obtain what one wants. In addition, they suggest that politics is power in action or the use of power to get something accomplished. Mintzberg (1983) added that organizational politics is usually designed to benefit the individual or group, at the expense of the organization at large, although not always.

Plateauing

Career plateaus-"the point in a career where the likelihood of additional hierarchical promotion is very low"- were first identified in the academic literature by Ference, Stoner, and Warren (1977, p.602). Since the publication of Bardwick's *The Plateauing Trap* (1986) called attention to the rapid increase of this phenomena within managerial populations, interest in the concept of plateauing has grown. Although there appears to be significant work-in-progress, there has been little published on plateauing. What has been published targets very focused and specialized areas. Elsass and Ralston (1989) examined how coping mechanisms moderate the relationship between plateauing and stress. Chao (1990) completed an extensive study of over 1700 managers in which she examined both subjective and objective measures of plateauing.

Subjective measures were assessed by determining the manager's perceptions of plateauing while objective measures were more typical measures of job tenure. The reason for this distinction was that most plateauing research had focused only on objective determination of plateauing as this related to other outcome variables. Interestingly, she found that the perceptually based measures of plateauing accounted for significantly more variance in the outcome measures of intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction, career planning, and company identification.

Chao's findings were replicated by Tremblay, Roger, and Toulouse (1992). In addition, they found that once individual factors such as age and education were controlled, those who felt plateaued reported no difference in job attitudes. Specifically, he found that perceptions of plateauing were related to satisfaction, commitment, withdrawal intention, job involvement, and number of hours worked. Inherent in the traditional concept of plateauing is that plateauing is negative. Kovach (1989), however, points out that plateauing provides a time for rejuvenation. In fact, Ettington (1992) reports that managers who believe that in spite of plateauing, promotions and future growth opportunities are still possible,

indicate more positive work attitudes and are recognized as better performers than their peers who simply "face the fact" about their plateaued status. These observations are consistent with the earlier assertions of other researchers (Hall & Isabella, 1985). How individuals perceive their plateuaing situation is what makes the difference in individuals' attitudes and behaviours (Chao, 1990).

Promotion Procedure

There are two important differences in the promotion procedures for the 'academic' and 'administrative' groups in higher education institutions in Indonesia. Decisions concerning faculty promotions are made by a committee of faculty members, elected by faculty. Promotions among non-academic staff are decided by supervisors and administrators. Secondly, for the non-academic staff, promotion often involves a "zero sum" decision process. If one person gets a promotion to a specific higher level position it means someone else does not. There are only so many high level positions, especially ones which carry supervisory rank (and salary and benefits) (Nainggolan, 1986). For faculty there is no pre-set number of full-professors or associate professors. Once someone is hired and tenured, there

is no direct disadvantage to anyone else if this individual is promoted to a higher rank. Women faculty can be promoted without affecting the number of men also promoted. The same is not the case for the women in administrative positions. Promotions for administrative positions often include a "zero sum" decision process (Looker, 1993). If one person gets a promotion to a specific higher level position it means someone else does not.

Role Uncertainty

Role uncertainty is defined as the extent to which administrators believe that the necessary data/information for decision making is available within a given role context (Boynton, Gales, & Blackburn, 1994). More specifically, the level of role uncertainty refers to the amount of data/information available for administrative decision making and the predictability of the ways in which administrative decisions will affect the organization. When there is little data/information available, and predictability of resulting decisions is low, the role uncertainty associated with that administrative role should be high. Conversely, with much data/information

available, and great confidence in the results of decisions, role uncertainty associated with that role should be low.

Role uncertainty creates obstacles when it is related to role threat. Role threat is the perceptual consequence of slack and is defined as the extent to which events within the role context are perceived as capable of (1) creating negative outcomes for individuals or work units; (2) imposing unrealistic time constraints on individuals or work units; and/or (3) reducing resources (other than time) needed for individual or work unit task accomplishment (Argote, Turner, & Fichman, 1989; Galdstein-Ancona & Reilly, 1985; Scott, 1992; Staw, Sandelands, & Dutton, 1981). Slack is a contextual condition found in the managerial or organizational work environment. It is defined as "difference between existing resources and the combination of demands placed on (them)" (Cohen, March, & Olsen, 1972, p. 12).

Slack causes individuals to question their roles, since their positions are not supported by the facilities which are necessary to accomplish their supposed-responsibilities. In turn, they question their roles. This role uncertainty, imbalance in

responsibilities and support facilities, prevents individuals from showing their best which might result in lower evaluation of their work.

Administrators are individuals with power. If the administrators are given less power than what they should be given, this may affect subordinates' perceptions of the administrators' lack of legitimacy as well as the administrators' behavior (Loden, 1985). If someone is given a administrative position without real system power, he or she may become petty and punitive (Kanter, 1976)

Obstacles Related to Interaction between Self and Organizational System

Work-environment Conflict

Conflict, an inevitability in complex organizations like higher education institutions, may not only serve as a source of problems but may also function as a performance enhancing force serving both organizational and individual interests and goals.

Approaches to conflict management are mediated by administrators' perspectives of conflict. Views of phenomenon may range along a continuum from organizational pathology to organizational utility.

Robbins' (1974) typology suggests three managerial positions with regard to conflict which he termed "traditional", "behavioral", and "interactionist".

"Traditional" positions view conflict as negative and something to be eliminated. The "behavioral" position rationalizes conflict as essentially positive, but still attempts to resolve it if at all possible. The "interactionist" position "recognizes the absolute necessity of conflict, explicitly encourages opposition, and defines conflict management to include stimulation as well as resolution methods" (Robbins, 1974, pp.13-14).

Perception of the value of conflict relates to age. Singleton, Davis, and Henkin (1994) conducted a study on perceptions and dispositions of executive women in higher education and business which showed that younger respondents held more positive perceptions of functions of conflict; executives in their 30's were more positive toward conflict functions than those over 50 years of age.

Obstacles for Women Pursuing Administrative Careers

Women may still not be socially accepted among high level administrators, and may continue to confront problems of equal opportunity in the work place (Easton, Mills, & Winokur, 1982; Sterlen, 1983). The

men and the ratings of successful middle managers, but only a weak similarity between the ratings of women and the ratings of successful managers.

A replication of the same study using 167 female managers as subjects (Schein, 1975) revealed the same results for men and successful managers. However, female managers held the view that there was a similarity between women and successful managers, although the degree of similarity was significantly less than the one between men and managers. Schein (1975) concluded that a woman's route into management is fraught with difficulties. Women will be discouraged from thinking of management as a potential career because they do not identify very strongly with the role.

As mentioned by Schein (1975), this perceived similarity between the characteristics of managers and those of men increases the likelihood of males rather than females being selected for or promoted into managerial positions, all else being equal. In addition, the requisite of possessing 'masculine' behaviors in order to advance in managerial positions may be a disadvantage to women who incorporate the feminine sex role stereotypes.

In the 1970's, then, the sex of the decision maker was not a factor in overcoming bias against women. Both female and male managers were influenced by stereotypical sex role thinking, viewing the male as more qualified than the female managerial candidate. Schein (1975) sums this up in the provocative title, "Think manager - Think male".

In the late 80's, after the enactment of the United Nation's Convention on Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women, expanding job opportunities for women (Baum, 1988), and increasing number of women enrolled in graduate schools, this thinking still exists (Brenner, et al., 1988).

Brenner et al. (1988) replicated the Schein study to examine whether or not the managerial position remains a sex-typed one. Results from this study, using 420 male middle managers and 173 female middle managers, showed that the attitudes of male managers are similar to those held by male managers 16 years ago. On the other hand, female managers' attitudes differ from those of their earlier counterparts. Among females, there was a large and significant similarity between the ratings of men and the ratings of managers, and also a similarity between the ratings of women and those of managers.

Heilman et al. (1989) echoed the same results. Replicating Schein's (1973) study with 268 male managers, they found consistency with Schein's findings. Descriptions of women in general were still far less congruent with descriptions of successful managers than were descriptions of men in general. The results indicate very little change in the pattern of the differential descriptions over 16 years. However, not all groups of women are perceived in the same way as are women in general; correspondence between descriptions of women and successful managers increases when the women are depicted as managers.

Based on these studies, in the late 80's, male managers held attitudes similar to those of male managers sixteen years before 1989; while female managers no longer sex-type the managerial position.

On the other hand, a study by Macan, Detjen, and Dickey (1994) indicated that there were no significant correlations between gender and job perceptions. Perhaps as other researchers have suggested, occupational stereotypes and sex roles are conveyed as part of the culture's general orientation rather than by sex-specific experiences and job knowledge (O'Keefe & Hyde, 1983; Yanico & Hardin, 1986).

What about the possibilities for the future?
Schein, Mueller, and Jacobson (1989) replicated
Schein's study using management students. As managers
of the future, the students' perceptions of women as
managers are quite similar to the results from the
Brenner's et al. (1988) study. Males and females agree
on ratings of managers and on ratings of men. However,
female subjects also saw similarities between the
ratings of successful managers and the ratings of
women, while male subjects only found weak
similarities. The results indicate a similarity in the
pattern of attitudes between management students and
managers in today's corporations. It is possible that
the male managers' perceptions of women managers will
stay the same in the future, while female managers will
no longer sex-type the occupations.

The potentially negative effects of sex-role
stereotyping on women's career advancement is discussed
in several studies, and relates to such factors as
hiring, fit, perception of women's capabilities, and
opportunities. Greenglass (1982) reported that women
seem unable to fit into the male definition of the
corporate structure since they lack the appropriate
socialization experienced by men, and are viewed as
trespassers in a male world. Dexter (1985) suggested

that male decision makers tend to judge women on ascribed attribute rather than on demonstrated capability or achievement; and Schein (1973) claimed that male managers tend to perceive greater opportunity for women managers in staff positions rather than in the line positions which, it is said, more often provide entry to the senior executive ranks. Male managers do not use clear evaluation criteria which can minimize discrimination (Lenney, Mitchell, & Browning, 1983).

Some studies revealed that the more ambiguous the job or evaluation criteria, the more likely it is that stereotypical evaluations will occur (Clayton, Baird, & Levinson, 1984; Dobbins, Stuart, Pence, & Sgro, 1985). It had been found that discrimination appears against applicants for gender-incongruent jobs, especially against female applicants (Gerdes & Kelman, 1981; Martinko & Gardner, 1983); and especially by individuals who endorse traditional gender stereotypes (Motowidlo, 1982).

Sex-bias is not only a problem caused by men's perceptions, but also by women's perceptions. For example, there is the perception among women that a

female with abilities equal to those of a male would not have as good a chance to be chosen for an administrative position (Loden, 1985; Mason, 1985).

The Heilman, Kaplow, Amato, and Stathatos (1993) study found that women's negative evaluation toward other women was found to occur only when women were preferentially selected for the managerial position and when information about the candidate's ability was left ambiguous. When selected on a merit basis or when provided with information about ability, women did not indicate any such negativity. This finding contradicts the notion of the "queen bee syndrome" (Staines, Tavris, & Jayarante, 1974), according to which women, in general, seek to maintain their unique status by thwarting the careers of other women.

The existence of possible sex-role prejudices on the part of women managers against other women managers was also investigated by Jabes (1980) in a study of causal attributes and sex-role stereotypes in the perceptions of women managers. Female managers were perceived by other females to be more successful than males and subjects attributed greater ability to them. Easier job demands and luck attributions were significantly more often cited for male managers than for female. Jabes (1980) claimed that the results do

not support the existence of sex-role prejudices on the part of women against women but seem to indicate an acceptance of an active rather than a passive role in society by women managers, with the women managers asserting their equality with male managers by overreacting to other women.

However, Heilman et al. (1993) also found that there was no indication that women were biased in favor of other women in their assessment of them. Unless individuals are confident about their ability to perform a job at the outset, being preferentially selected may spark a destructive cycle, one that negatively affects behavior toward others whom organizations recruit and hire.

In a study of New York state employees, Steinberg, Haignere, and Chertos (1990) found that promotions were denied to qualified women because they were in jobs that did not have the "right" title, this in spite of responsibilities and accomplishments identical to those of people who were in jobs with titles that had been selected for promotion.

Research findings are consistent with hypotheses that sex stereotyping still control social judgments and that women continue to be viewed as non-leaders even when situational cues suggest leadership positions

for them (Porte, Geis, & Jennings, 1983). These
researchers found that sex-role stereotypes eliminated
"head of the table" effects when these two clues to
leadership attribution were placed in conflict. Their
experiment tested whether the cue of spatial
positioning around a table would determine leadership
ratings. It did so in all-female groups (where no men
were available) and in all male groups and mixed-sex
groups with male leaders. In these groups, the person
at the head of the table was considered most likely to
contribute most to the group and was rated the most
leaderlike, dominant, and talkative. However, the
female head of mixed-sex groups was not rated so
positively. Even when a woman was seen to be a leader
(in all-female groups) she was also seen as cold, a
correlation not found for male leaders. In the view of
these researchers, the finding that sex discrimination
was unmitigated by the subject's sex, androgyny or
feminist ideology suggests that all discrimination
operates subconsciously and in spite of good
intentions. Women were not seen as leaders when a man
was present, regardless of subjects' conscious
beliefs. These researchers predicted that this
discrimination would impede women's rise to leadership
positions, because emergence as a leader is determined

by the expectations of others as well as by the behavior of the individual concerned. In an earlier study, Day and Stogdill (1972) investigated the behavior of women as leaders. The findings suggest that there is little evidence of sex difference in performance and that slow advancement on the part of women supervisors is not a result of ineffectiveness or lack of such factors as influence, predictive accuracy, or reconciliation of conflicting demands, but a result of their being female.

Sex-role stereotyping appears to have the potential to do serious harm to women's careers, and Gilligan (1982) outlined the dilemma addressed by studies of professional women relating to the perceived separateness of the individual self over connection with others and the autonomous life of work over the independence of love and care. The "women's place" theory holds that women not only define themselves in the context of human relations but also judge themselves in terms of their ability to care, nurture and act as helpmate. Qualities associated with masculinity such as autonomous thinking, clear decision making and responsible action are traditionally reserved for men and, as such, are considered undesirable attributes by the feminine self. However,

Gilligan argued that many men in midlife have also
discovered the importance of intimacy, close
relationships and caring for others. The presumption
of the "women's place" model, that women's
nonparticipation in administrative careers is
predicated on social norms, is also supported by
Shakeshaft (1987) in her analysis of the dysfunctional
effects of sex-role stereotyping, as is the assumption
of the "discrimination" model where the efforts of one
group exclude participation by the other. She rejected
the psychological paradigm which blames women for their
nonparticipation in administration and which suggests
the resocialization of women to fit the male world, but
suggested that a model which portrays a world that is
male-defined and male-organized provides the most
satisfactory explanation of the limits imposed on
women.

Bias against women in management may operate
against a female not only in the beginning of her
career, but also when she is well established and may
have built up a superior performance record (Cleveland
& Landy, 1983; Heilman, Martell, & Simon, 1988;
Highman, 1985).

Awareness of sex discrimination has increased since the early 70's, and today the majority of the adult public believes that women are discriminated against in the labor force (Thom, 1984). Of employed women, nearly half say they personally have been discriminated against in the work place (Dowd, 1983). This was supported by Looker's (1983) study on gender issues in a university in Canada where 37% of the women faculty say they have personally experienced sex discrimination.

However, many women still are not aware of sex discrimination; or, rather, they know that sex discrimination exists, but not to them personally (Marshall, 1985). Among academic women in predominantly male departments, 30% are aware of sex discrimination; but they attribute male-female status discrepancies to the individual woman, rather than to the system (Young, MacKenzie, & Sherif, 1980).

What makes it more difficult for women is that field and laboratory research have revealed that indeed women lack characteristics perceived to be important for effective leaders.

Studies of mixed-sex laboratory groups indicate that women are less active and less influential, are interrupted more often, and are chosen as leaders less

often than men (Ridgeway, 1988; Webster & Driskell, 1983; Wood & Hardin, 1986). Once an individual is chosen as a leader, differences still exist. In a study of people's nonverbal reactions to female and male leaders, Buttler & Geiss (1985) found that group members generally looked pleased in response to a male leader's contributions. In contrast, group members generally looked displeased in response to a female leader's contributions. Because the male and female leaders were following the same script, their actual behavior did not differ. However, because group member reacted to these behaviors differently on the basis of the leader's sex, an evaluator would interpret the negative reaction to the female leader as somewhat her fault and see her as a less effective leader (Brown & Geiss, 1985). Similarly, studies in the field have demonstrated that women are perceived as having less leadership ability, self confidence, and business skills than men (Schein, 1973, 1975; Wiley & Elkinson, 1982).

Women have been portrayed as conflict avoiders, as indecisive, as valuing harmony over productivity, and as lacking in assertiveness (Childress, 1986; Fortinberry, 1986; Foster, 1986; Jacobson, 1985; Kagan, 1980). Learned self-denial, and purported tendencies

toward sensitivity and unselfishness among women have been suggested as deterrents to upward mobility to administrative positions (Machowitz, 1983).

Women have lower employment commitment than men, according to Becker (1985); on the other hand, other theorists argue that such differences are diminishing (Lorence, 1987; Moen & Smith, 1986; Dex, 1988). Women's lower occupational attainment and rewards often are attributed to their lower educational and occupational aspirations (Hughes & Lowe, 1993), although socialization for femininity was believed to be the reason for this (Ireson & Gill, 1988; Gaskel, 1987; Porter, Porter, & Blishen, 1982; Turrittin, Anisef, & MacKinnon, 1983).

Other studies have shown that women tend to be more concerned about work achievement than men and often have a lower expectation of success (Betz, Fritzgerald, & Hill, 1989; Weiner, 1985). However, similar studies have found that the achievement motives for men and for women were similar (Elizur & Beck, 1993), especially when they have realistic chance of being promoted (Kanter, 1977; Renwick & Lawler, 1978; Yankelovich, 1981)

Differences in communication styles for men and women have also been seen as a barrier for women to advance in administrative careers. The necessary communication fluency for effective administrators was just not the style of women, due to women's socialization (Tannen, 1990).

Lack of confidence has frequently been cited as a reason inhibiting the persistence of women in higher education and certain professions (Dix, 1987). Studies using general measures of confidence have found that women are less confident than men in their abilities in mathematics, problem solving, and science (Campbell & Hackett, 1986; Hornig, 1987; Hyde, Fennema, & Lamon, 1990; Johnson, 1989; Mathyas, 1984). In addition, McCartney (1986) found that women have less confidence in their abilities to perform unfamiliar or competitive tasks.

These findings of lesser confidence in women have been observed at both undergraduate and graduate levels (Dix, 1987). However, lack of confidence is not necessarily indicative of low ability. Even when female students achieve as well or better than their male counterparts, they tend to underestimate themselves (Zukerman, 1987). However, this general lack of confidence does not end with graduation from

the academy. Successful professional women may also underestimate their abilities and overestimate others' abilities, a tendency Clanche and O'Toole (1989) labeled the "Imposter Phenomenon". These successful but underconfident women think other people assume they are capable because of the positions they hold. They attribute their success to factors other than their own competencies (Frieze, Whitley, Hanusa, & McHugh, 1982). However, because the women doubt their own abilities, they may thus feel like imposters, misrepresenting themselves to those other people (Ludenberg, Fox, & Puncochar, 1994).

Andrews (1984) points out how self-esteem and self-confidence differ for men and women. For males, self-esteem and self-confidence go hand in hand. For women, high self-esteem is not consistently positively related to confidence in performing tasks. "Self-confidence is a narrower construct than self-esteem, focusing on performance expectancies and self-evaluation of abilities and completed performance" (Andrews, 1984, p.3). Low self-confidence can affect aspiration level. A person with low self-confidence is much less likely to attempt an action than a person with high self-confidence. If a person believes that he or she is capable of performing competently, such

confidence may well contribute to a positive performance (Andrews, 1984). Self-confidence affects the way women are perceived as well as the ways they perceive themselves. Not surprisingly, Andrews found that a woman's self-confidence has a substantial impact on that individual's chances of being perceived as a group's emergent leader.

Another aspect of sex-bias is that women are evaluated differently than men. Several studies have suggested that gender differences may underlie the use of dominance behavior in groups; that is, dominant behavior may be inappropriate for women and yet acceptable for men. For example, although Haccoun, Haccoun, and Sallay (1978) found that a directive management style was ineffective overall, it was rated even less effective when exhibited by female supervisors. Other research suggests that behavior involving dominance or threat may be effective for men but not for women (Eagly, Makhijani, & Klonsky, 1992).

Women were also viewed as not suitable for administrative positions because of the way they perceive success and failure. Frieze (1975) found that women and men differ in the ways in which they explain their successes and failures. In general, women make more external attributions than men do both

for success and failure. In evaluating their own achievements, then, men are more likely to see their successes as the direct result of ability, while women are more likely to attribute their success to luck.

In addition, men have long been stereotyped as having a need for direct, competitive achievement and women as having a need for vicarious achievement that is satisfied by identifying with successes of others (Colwill, 1982).

Lipman-Blumen & Leavitt (1976) have identified three kinds of vicarious achievers: 1) the Altruistic vicarious achiever, who gains satisfaction merely from association with a direct achiever; 2) The Contributing vicarious achiever, who facilitates the achievements of another and gains satisfaction from the belief that he or she has contributed to the success of another; and 3) the Instrument vicarious achiever, who uses the achievements of other to gain personal achievement.

Stereotypes continue to cause problems for women engaging in administrative careers because of the stereotypes' persistence over time and resistance to change, even when the holders of stereotypes receive information that does not confirm them.

Role Incongruency

Historically, theorists of the socialization process (Bandura, 1969; Kagan, 1964; Kohlberg, 1966) considered the acquisition of appropriate sex-typed behaviors and characteristics, resulting in a masculine identity in men and a feminine identity for women, a prerequisite to mental health. This sex-typing process was traditionally based on the assumption that masculinity and femininity were mutually exclusive personality dimensions that were bipolar in nature.

Masculinity has been considered instrumental and competency oriented, including such traits as independence, objectivity, rationality, and competitiveness, whereas femininity has been viewed as expressive and relationship oriented, including such traits as dependence, intuition, emotionality, and submissiveness (Heilbrun, 1973; Kohlberg, 1966; Singer, 1976). Not only has the learning of such sex-typed behaviors historically been considered essential to the socialization process but the learning of appropriate sex role behaviors has been considered one of the most salient lessons in society (Long, 1991).

Although different behaviors and characteristics have been endorsed in the sex-typing process, society has consistently viewed the more competency oriented

masculine traits as more positive and more valued than feminine traits (Deaux, 1984). In turn, the requisite of possessing "masculine" characteristics and behavior in order to advance in administrative positions may be disadvantageous to women who incorporate the feminine sex role stereotypes.

The tradeoffs and sacrifices a woman has to make to have a career in a male-dominated occupation is far greater than those of a man. Wallis (1989) found a growing number of 'second shift' women who have attempted the income producing demands of a working wife and/or mother as well as the expectations that families and society placed on them in the home. These two conflicting demands is believed to be one of the reasons of an increasing number of women who initially opted for career, had either "dropped out" of corporate life to start families or had new careers in which they can devote more time in their families (Coulson-Thomas, 1988; Erlich, 1989; Taylor III, 1986).

The literature, at the same time, clearly suggests that women struggle with self-concept-related issues that seem to be related to self-devaluation. Women have been shown to discredit their own abilities (Clanche & Imes, 1979). Not only have studies revealed that women may experience a fear of success (Savage &

Stearns, 1979), but studies have also indicated that the fear is related to the belief that success is incompatible with femininity and a woman's female sex role (Sohn, 1982). The literature has further indicated that such issues as passivity and accommodating behaviors (Frieze et al., 1982; Froming, 1978), fear of taking a stand, and mistrust of one's own judgment (Deaux, 1984) are frequently experienced as obstacles for women. Highly sex-typed behavior in women has additionally been correlated with anxiety, low self-esteem, and poorer emotional adjustment (Bem, 1975; Deaux, 1984).

In turn, concern regarding the restrictive effect that traditional gender role conditioning can cause has become widespread. Masculinity and femininity are no longer viewed as mutually exclusive dimensions, and the concept of psychological androgyny -the endorsing of both traditionally masculine and feminine attributes- has reorganized traditional perspectives on sex-roles (Bem 1974; Singer, 1976). This alternative view commends a middle-ground model, a synthesis of masculine and feminine styles of management (Blanchard & Sargent, 1984). Inherent in an androgynous model are

implied differences in terms of how men and women
manage, and the assumption that elements in both styles
have value.

Still, research findings are consistent with
hypotheses that sex stereotyping control social
judgments and that women continue to be viewed as
non-leaders even when situational cues suggest
leadership position (Porter et al., 1983). Arvey
(1979) has proposed a "sex congruency model whereby a
situation or job is sextyped as being more appropriate
for a male or female and thereby influences the
evaluation given" (p.775).

The perceptions that individuals possess about who
they are affect what they do. Individuals who perceive
that they possess characteristics that are relevant to
a particular job seek that job (Heilman, 1993). The
sex role characteristics possessed by indiiduals in
organizations are considered to be barometers of how
well they will fare in these settings. The possession
of feminine characteristics is seen to be relatively
detrimental to careers (Powell & Butterfield, 1989,
1989; Schein, 1989), although this perception is
beginning to change among females (Schein et al.,
1989).

This explains why women in the upper level of organizational power hierarchies, in an effort to compensate for the fact that they are women in a male-dominated work environment, underplay feminine qualities and overemphasize masculine characteristics (Powell, Posner, & Schmidt,1984; Steinberg & Shapiro, 1982).

Professional women in higher education were also found to possess low level perceptions of the utility of conflict (Singleton, et al, 1994). Many theorists and researchers believe this to be associated with gender socialization. The primary socialization of women in family roles, an ascribed status, may be contrasted with a second stage of adult socialization where achieved status and roles are accessed. Most women pass through "a two-stage process of transition from ascribed to achieved status" (Dexter, 1985, p.245) in the transition to managerial positions. They have to learn types of expected behavior which, when compared, may be described as radically different and generally incongruous, except where one may be an extension of the other.

Women in male occupational positions are vulnerable to the negative consequences of believing that they have been preferentially selected because of

their sex. When minority status carries with it negative connotations about the self, it can lead to a rejection of others who are perceived to possess the same characteristics like others(Heilman et al., 1993). A theoretical rationale for this pattern of rejection can be found in discussions by both Lewin (1948) and Goffman (1963), in which the rejection of like others is thought to result from a need to dissociate or distance oneself from a negative attribute, psychologically establishing oneself as different from the other. This can also be found in the work of Tajfel and Turner (1979), in which they discuss how members of negatively distinctive groups seek to enhance their social identity by distancing themselves from their group and joining a more positively evaluated group.

The adjustments which women administrators have to make was observed by Marshall (1985). Her study on professional women in a male sex-typed career identified several of the adjustments women made to enable them to survive in their male-dominated working environment. These adjustments centered around the management of stigma and the development of management techniques which enable women to maintain a degree of social acceptance and obtain inclusion in the

administrator group. These adjustments were : 1)
denial and retreat, 2) anger and rebellion, and 3)
passing. With denial and retreat, the denying women
deviate by emphasizing behaviors and attitudes which
identify them with "normal" women, typically women who
do not advance in their careers. With anger and
rebellion, where the women fight the perception of
women administrators as not-quite-competent
administrators and not-quite-normal women, only forces
women farther from administrative positions. Passing,
covering their marginality and ascribing deviance, was
seen to help women to move upward in administrative
career.

Women often experience, but deny, sex
discrimination. Ericson (1984) found that the denial
of discrimination is a survival mechanism. If she
acknowledges it, the woman might have to confront it
directly, which might be deadly to her career. So, she
"ignores bias, heightens her social sensitiveness, and
moves forward" (p.101).

A number of studies document barriers to women
that at first do not seem to indicate sex
discrimination; however, a second look reveals
practices that only hurt women. For instance, a number
of studies (Baughman, 1977; Drust, 1977; Schmuck, 1976)

pointed out that women have traditionally had little support, encouragement, or counselling from family, peers, superiors, or representatives of educational institutions to pursue careers in administration. A 1978 study by Fisher found that 40% of the men but only 17% of the women were encouraged by an administrator to apply for an administrative position. More often, these women have been given negative cues by family and work groups concerning such endeavors. The importance of encouragement and support can be seen in a study by Shakeshaft (1979) that indicate that, of the women who have decided to pursue administrative careers, most have done so because some significant other (mother, lover, husband, father, college professor) encouraged them.

By dividing the world into two kinds of behavior-those that are male and those that are female-and labelling behaviors of competence as male, women must choose between being called competent or being identified as female. Biklen (1980) points out the difficulties of women attempting to succeed in traditionally male fields: either they are judged competent and unfeminine or incompetent and feminine, a choice that puts two strong and interconnected identities in conflict.

In spite of role incongruency that might result in difficulty in upward movement in administrative careers, higher levels of self-esteem were found among women who occupied the three roles of wife, mother, and employee than among women with fewer roles (Barnett & Baruch, 1985). The more roles one has, the more potential sources of self-esteem, stimulation, privileges, social status, and social identity (Thoits, 1983). In addition, as Baruch, Biener, and Barnett (1985) argue, it is likely that involvement in multiple roles is most beneficial to women when the role set includes that of paid worker.
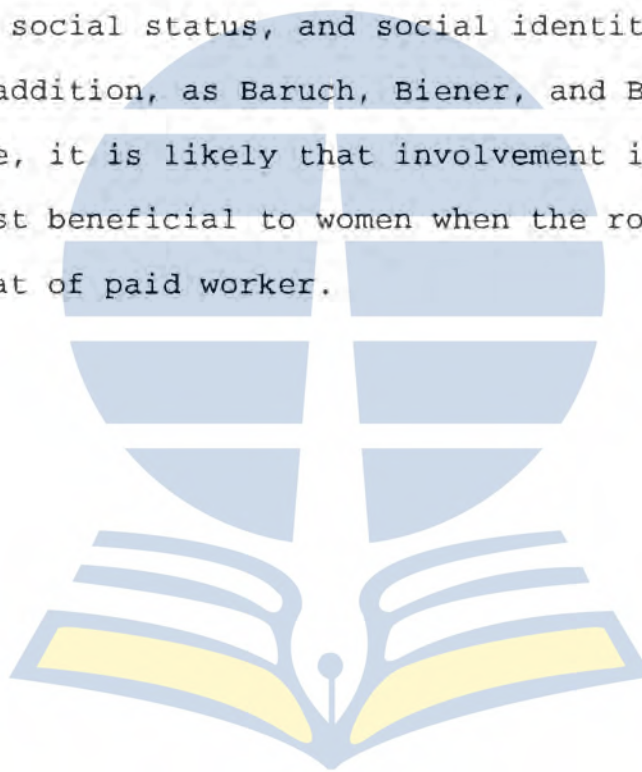
CHAPTER III: METHODS

Participants

The participants of this study were the 746 senior administrators in state higher education institutions as listed in the Buku Kerja Departemen Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan 1993: 703 male and 43 female administrators from 47 institutions. The distribution of senior administrators by institutions and gender is given in Table 5.

All of the 746 senior administrators were asked to respond to the questionnaire to answer the first two questions addressed in this study ("What are the effective characteristics of senior administrators in higher education institutions?" and "What obstacles are faced in reaching current administrative positions?") (see Appendix A for the Questionnaire).

Further, to meet the purpose of examining the perceptions of administrators, 16 of the participants were interviewed. They were 8 male and 8 female participants paired based on their positions in higher education institutions. In turn, the 8 female participants were interviewed to examine obstacles they faced of being female administrators.

Table 5

Senior Administrators in Indonesian State Higher Education Institutions

(Total Number and Distribution by Sex)

No. Institution	Location	Female		Male		Total
		n	%	n	%	n
1 Syah Kuala University	Aceh	0	0	15	100	15
2 North Sumatera University	North Sumatera	1	6	15	94	16
3 Riau University	Riau	0	0	13	100	13
4 Andalas University	Padang	0	0	15	100	15
5 Jambi University	Jambi	1	8	12	92	13
6 Sriwijaya University	Palembang	1	5	18	95	19
7 Lampung University	Lampung	3	21	11	79	14
8 Bengkulu University	Bengkulu	3	20	12	80	15
9 University of Indonesia	Jakarta	3	15	18	85	21
10 Bogor Agricultural Institute	Bogor	1	6	16	94	17
11 Padjadjaran University	Bandung	2	12	16	88	18
12 Bandung Institute of Technology	Bandung	0	0	16	100	16
13 General Sudirman University	Purwokerto	2	16	11	84	13
14 Diponegoro University	Semarang	1	6	17	94	18
15 Gadjah Mada University	Yogyakarta	3	10	27	90	30
16 University of Sebelas Maret	Surakarta	1	6	15	94	16
17 Airlangga University	Surabaya	0	0	17	100	17
18 Surabaya Institute of Technology.	Surabaya	0	0	15	100	15
19 Brawijaya University	Malang	1	6	16	94	17
20 Jember University	Jember	0	0	15	100	15
21 Tanjung Pura University	Pontianak	1	7	13	93	14
22 Lambung Mangkurat University	Banjarmasin	1	6	16	94	17
23 Mulawarman University	Samarinda	1	8	12	92	13
24 Palangkaraya University	Palangkaraya	0	0	13	100	13
25 Udayana University	Bali	0	0	16	100	16
26 Mataram University	Mataram	0	0	13	100	13
27 Nusa Cendana University	Kupang	2	13	13	87	15
28 Hasanuddin University	Ujung Pandang	0	0	21	100	21
29 Tadaluko University	Palu	0	0	13	100	13
30 Haluoleo University	Kendari	0	0	12	100	12
31 Sam Ratulangi University	Manado	2	10	19	90	21
32 Pattimura University	Ambon	1	7	14	93	15
33 Cendrawasih Univeristy	Jayapura	1	8	11	92	12
34 Medan Institute for Teacher's Training	Medan	0	0	15	100	15
35 Padang Institute for Teacher's Training	Padang	1	7	13	93	14
36 Jakarta Institute for Teacher's Training	Jakarta	3	16	15	84	18
37 Bandung Institute for Teacher's Training	Bandung	0	0	16	100	16
38 Semarang Institute for Teacher's Training	Semarang	0	0	15	100	15
39 Yogyakarta Institute for Teacher's Training	Yogyakarta	0	0	16	100	16
40 Malang Institute for Teacher's Training	Malang	0	0	17	100	17
41 Surabaya Institute for Teacher's Training	Surabaya	0	0	15	100	15
42 Ujung Pandang Institute for Teacher's Training	Ujung Pandang	0	0	16	100	16
43 Manado Institute for Teacher's Training	Manado	0	0	15	100	15
44 Indonesian Arts Institute	Yogyakarta	1	9	10	91	11
45 Indonesian Arts Institute	Denpasar	1	8	11	93	12
46 Indonesian Arts Institute	Surakarta	2	17	10	83	12
47 Indonesian Open Learning University	Jakarta	2	13	12	87	14
	Branch Offices	1	3	31	97	32

Source: Departemen Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan, 1993.

The 16 interviewed participants were posted in Institut Ilmu Keguruan dan Pendidikan Jakarta (IKIP Jakarta - The Jakarta Institute for Teacher's Training), Universitas Indonesia (UI - University of Indonesia), Universitas Terbuka (UT - the Indonesian Open University), and Institut Pertanian Bogor (IPB - Bogor Institute of Agriculture). The 16 interview-subjects were 8 female senior administrators from those 4 (four) institutions, paired with their male colleagues in similar positions.

Instrument

The instruments used in this study were a self-administered questionnaire (see Appendix A for English version and Appendix B for Indonesian version) and a semi-structured interview (see Appendix C). The questionnaire was designed to assess the respondent's perception of the ideal characteristics of those in senior administrative positions in higher education institutions and to identify obstacles the respondents faced in pursuing administrative career. Respondents were asked to spontaneously generate their own perceived characteristics to effectively carry out responsibilities in their positions. There was no degree to which each characteristic relates to another. The list which each respondent spontaneously

generated does not reflect the degree of importance of the characteristics. The same approach was also used for obstacles faced by respondents in pursuing their administrative careers.

The questionnaire consisted of four parts. The first part consisted of personal information, including age, gender, and family background. The second part dealt with professional information, including education background, job history, professional organization attended, and number of articles and books published. The third part asked subjects to list all ideal characteristics necessarily possessed by whoever is posted in the subjects' current positions. The fourth part focused on constraints or obstacles which respondents faced in their administrative careers.

A semi-structured interview was designed for two purposes. The first purpose was to obtain new information from both male and female respondents, especially relating to how they rate themselves on their perceived characteristics of effective administrators and how the respondents manage their perceived obstacles. In addition, the semi-structured interview was also designed to assess the female respondents' levels of comfort in being in their current positions. Second purpose of the

semi-structured interview is to supplement questionnaire as well as to verify information reported in the questionnaire.

The questionnaire was first written in English, therefore several steps were necessary before it could be used in Indonesian.

First, the questionnaire was translated from English into Bahasa Indonesia by the researcher. Next, five bilingual Indonesians read the translated document. They were asked to give feedback on the Indonesian draft to ensure that the meanings of the questions remained constant. Any inconsistencies were discussed and consensus was reached for all items before they were used for the next draft.

Second, the Bahasa Indonesia draft was discussed in terms of its content. The five bilingual Indonesians, who were also young academic members (Lecturers) in the Indonesian Open University, were then asked to fill out the questionnaire. Academic members were chosen because the questionnaire was mostly aimed at academic members, except for those in the positions of Heads of Bureaus. The group suggested some modifications to make the questionnaire simpler, without jeopardizing its purpose. Simplicity was thought to be important because the questionnaire was

intended for senior administrators who most likely would not have the time to fill out a time-consuming questionnaire. Modification also helped to reduce the length of the questionnaire, which was considered to be a hindrance for senior administrators in filling it out questionnaires. Modifications were made by eliminating options provided in the original questionnaire. Therefore, instead of providing 10 options for "father's education", for example, the modified-questionnaire leaves a one-line-space for subjects to write down their answers.

Third, the modified-questionnaire was given to a Dean for final clarification. The Dean was asked to fill out the questionnaire and provide comments concerning the appropriateness of the items. The Dean suggested that "number of marriages" could be thought to be an impolite question and that it would be better not to include the item in the questionnaire. However, because "marital status" and its related questions were one of variables found to be different for male and female administrators in other research, the item, "number of marriages", was included.

Data Collection

Collection of data was obtained both by questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. Questionnaires were sent directly by mail to the office of each senior administrator. An initial mailing of the Questionnaire was sent on September 1993. A letter from the researcher explaining the purpose of the Questionnaire and a pre-paid envelope for its return were included with the Questionnaire. Because of the low return-rate, a second mailing of the questionnaire was sent in January 1994 to all senior administrators in their institutions. To increase the probability that a completed questionnaire would be returned, a letter from the Head of the Research Center in the Indonesian Open University was attached. For senior administrators in Jakarta, questionnaires were delivered in person with a request to please complete the material.

Since the questionnaire was mailed twice, a check was completed to prevent any returned questionnaire from being analyzed a second time. To avoid duplication, returned questionnaire from the second mailing were cross-checked with those from the first mailing against the administrator's current and previous positions.

Meanwhile, semi-structured interviews with female senior administrators in four Institutions (IKIP, UI, UT, and IPB) were conducted. As the researcher wished to use responses to the questionnaires to guide the interviews, the initial interviews provided basic information. After the questionnaires were returned, interviews were continued. Interviews with respondents varied from 1 to 3 meetings, lasting from 1 to 2 hours each. Respondents completed the interviews with documents they prepared prior to the election for their position. After finishing the interviews, a follow up meeting was conducted to check the accuracy of what was said in the interviews. With this follow up meeting, respondents had access to the results of the interview. A stated by Wolcott (1990), it is important for respondents to have access to the result of the interview to avoid misunderstanding.

Meanwhile, the researcher wished to wait for responses from the questionnaire in order to examine the characteristics of senior administrators according to their age, educational background, time engaged in administration, and career path. This information would be used to chose male counterparts for each female senior administrator being interviewed. Since no pattern was found in the returned-questionnaires

regarding age, educational background, time in administration, and career path, male counterparts were randomly selected. Pairing was done based on position, Head of Bureau was paired with Head of Bureau, Deans with Deans, and Vice Presidents with Vice Presidents. In the case of President, the difficulty of access to other Presidents meant that pairing was made with a Vice President. Interviews were conducted through the middle of April 1994.

<div align="center">Data Analysis</div>

Data were analyzed by grouping the responses. In doing so, consultation with Indonesian-English Dictionary was made throughout the process. The main objective of the translation was to ascertain the meaning from what was written, not for a word-to-word translation. In addition, whenever possible, statistical procedures (Chi-square, T-test, and descriptive analysis) were employed. Chi-square tests were used to analyze categorical data such as individual characteristics and background (gender, age, marital status). The t-test was applied to analyze possible differences between 'academic' and 'administrative' positions in educational background and number of scientific books and articles written.

In conducting analysis on data related to the first four research questions, comparisons were made across positions. Subsequently, results were analyzed by position, 'Academic' for President, Vice Presidents, Deans, Head of Research center, and Head of Community Service Center; and 'Administrative' for head of Bureau of General administrative Affairs and head of Academic and Students' Affairs, and head of UT Regional Centers.

The first question, "What are the effective characteristics of senior administrators in higher education institutions?", was analyzed by grouping all characteristics written in the returned-questionnaires into 3 groups: 1) characteristics related to self; 2) characteristics related to system; and 3) characteristics related to the interaction between the self and system. Once the grouping was done, the 10 most common characteristics were identified and discussed in more details, and comparison were made for position ('academic' and 'administrative'), sex (male and female respondents), and age (less than 50, between 50 and 60, and over 60 years of age). The frequency of characteristics was reported.

The second question, "What obstacles were faced in reaching current administrative positions?" was analyzed by descriptive analysis. Self-generated

obstacles written in the returned-questionnaires were divided into 3 groups: 1) obstacles related to self; 2) obstacles related to the system; and 3) obstacles related to the interaction between the individual and system. Once the grouping was done, the most common obstacles was identified, and comparison was made for position ('academic' and 'administrative'), sex (male and female respondents), and age (less than 50, between 50 and 60, and over 60 years of age). The frequency of obstacles was reported.

The third question, "How do administrators rate themselves on those characteristics?", was asked in interviews. The results were compared and contrasted in general, by each position, and by sex. Comparison and contrasts were made, as much as possible, following the grouping of characteristics used in question #1. General patterns were outlined, followed by unique cases.

The fourth question, "How do the administrators manage their perceived obstacles?" was asked in the interview. General patterns were outlines, followed by unique cases. Based on the listed obstacles, categorization were made into two groups:
1) respondents who viewed the obstacles as challenges

that need to be faced; 2) those who viewed the obstacles as a given situation that can not be changed.

The fifth question, "How do female senior administrators feel about being a woman in their current position?", was asked in interviews with female respondents. The results were compared and contrasted between individuals, as well as between 'academic' and 'administrative' groups of female administrators.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

This chapter consists of the results of the present study. Two instruments were used to gather data in the present study, questionnaire and semi-structured interview. Accordingly, the results section is divided into 2 parts, 1) results from questionnaire and 2) results from interviews.

Results from Questionnaire

The questionnaire for this present study was designed to identify characteristics of effective senior administrators in higher education institutions in Indonesia and to identify obstacles faced in pursuing an administrative careers in the institutions. Additional information concerning personal information and professional information were also addressed in the questionnaire.

Accordingly, results from the questionnaire are organized into 4 sections, 1) general overview, 2) individual characteristics, 3) characteristics of effective administrators, and 4) obstacles faced in pursuing administrative career.

General Overview

From a total of 746 questionnaires sent, 235 were returned and 223 (29.9%) were analyzed. The other 12 return-questionnaires were not included in the analysis because they were filled out by Assistants to the Deans, rather than the Deans themselves.

A total of 183 from 622 (29.4%) of Administrators with academic background ('Academic') responded to the questionnaires, whereas the response rate of Administrators with no-academic background ('Administrative') was 40 from 124 (32.3%). (See Table 6).

The response rate for each position within 'academic' and 'administrative' categories is given in Table 6. The percentage of response for each position in 'Academic' varied from 61.7%, the largest, for Head of Research Center, to 8.7%, the smallest, for Head of Community Service Center. The percentage of response for each position in 'Administrative' was 37.5%, the largest, for the Head of UT Regional Center, to 27.7%, the smallest, for the Head of Bureau of Academic and Students' Affairs.

Table 6
Sample Distribution and Response Rate

Position	Number in Population	Number of Respondent	Response Rate
Academic			
President	47	13	27.7
Vice President	155	47	30.3
Dean	327	90	29.3
Head of Research Center	47	29	61.7
Head of Community Service Center	46	4	8.7
Sub-Total	622	183	29.4
Administrative			
Head of Bureau of General Administrative	45	15	33.3
Head of Bureau of Academic & Students' Affairs	47	13	27.7
Head of UT Regional Center	32	12	37.5
Sub-Total	124	40	32.3
Total	746	223	29.9

Table 7
Distribution of Respondents by Position and Sex

Position	Male n	Male %	Female n	Female %	Total n	Total %
Academic						
President	12	5.3	1	.4	13	5.8
Vice President	44	19.7	3	1.3	47	21.1
Dean	81	36.3	9	4.0	90	40.4
Head of Research Center	27	12.1	2	.9	29	13.0
Head of Community Service Center	4	1.8	-	-	4	1.8
Sub-Total	168	75.33	15	6.7	183	82.1
Administrative						
Head of Bureau of General Administrative	14	6.3	1	.4	15	6.7
Head of Bureau of Academic & Students' Affairs	12	5.4	1	.4	13	5.8
Head of UT Regional Center	11	4.9	1	.4	12	5.4
Sub-Total	37	16.6	3	1.3	40	17.9
Total	205	92.0	18	8.0	223	100

Data collected from the questionnaires were analyzed by using frequency distributions, Chi-square and t-test. Data from interviews were analyzed by using frequency distribution. The findings and data analysis are presented below.

Individual Characteristics

Sex

By examining Table 7 (and as was expected from the previously discussed demographics), it can be seen that men outnumber women in both 'academic' and 'administrative' positions. A chi-square test showed that there was no difference between males and females in the distribution of 'Academic' and 'administrative' positions (Chi-square=.21, df=1, p>.05). A chi-square test on the composition of male and female respondents showed significant differences (Chi-square=156.81, df=1, p.<05).

Age

The ages of respondents were categorized into three groups: 1) 49 years and under; 2) 50 - 59 years; and 3) 60 years and over (see Table 8).

Table 8
Distribution of Respondents by Age and Position

Cate-gory	Age	Academic		Administrative		Total	
		n	%	n	%	n	%
1	< 50	64	35.0	11	27.5	75	33.6
2	50 - 60	97	53.0	28	70.0	125	56.1
3	60 >	22	12.0	1	2.5	23	10.3
Total		183	100	40	100	223	100

Note : t=.19, df=221, p>.05

Based on age-grouping, within the 'academic' and 'administrative' categories, the majority of respondents were clustered in the between 50-60 years of age group, followed by the under 50 years of age group.

A t-test analysis showed that there was no significant difference between 'academic' and 'administrative' respondents in age-group category. Based on Indonesian Government Regulation on Higher Education Institution No. 8/ 1974, it was expected that 'Academic' respondents would be older than 'Administrative' respondents since the retirement age for 'Academic' personnel is higher than for 'Administrative' personnel, which was not the case for this present study.

Marital Status

Marital status for respondents was categorized into four groups: 1) unmarried; 2) married without children; 3) married with children; and 4) others with children.

From the 220 respondents who responded to the question of "Marital Status", the majority were married with children (See Table 9).   A t-test indicated that there was no significant difference between 'Academic' and 'Administrative' in their marital status category (t=1.34, df=218, p>.05).

Table 9
Distribution of Respondents by Marital Status and
Position

Cate gory	Marital status	'Academic'		'Adminis trative'		Total	
		n	%	n	%	n	%
1	Unmarried	5	2.2	2	.9	7	3.2
2	Married without children	1	.5	3	1.4	4	1.8
3	Married with children	174	79.0	34	15.5	208	94.5
4	Others with children	-	-	1	.5	1	.5
	Total	180	81.8	40	18.2	220	100

Note: t-test=1.34, df=218, p>.05

On the other hand, a significant difference was found in t-test on marital status category between male and female respondents (t=3.17, df=218, p<.05) (see Table 10).

Table 10
Distribution of Respondents by Marital Status and Sex

Cate-gory	Marital status	Male n	Male %	Female n	Female %	Total n	Total %
1	Unmarried	5	2.2	2	.9	7	3.2
2	Married without children	1	.5	3	1.4	4	1.8
3	Married with children	174	79.0	34	15.5	208	94.5
4	Others with children	-	-	1	.5	1	.5
	Total	180	81.8	40	18.2	220	100

Note: t-test=3.17, df=218, p<.05

Number of Children

Two hundred and nine respondents have children. The range for the number of children across all groups was from 1 to 9, with 3 children being the mode (76 respondents, 34.1%). In considering the two categories modes differed slightly. The mode for 'Academic' respondents was 3 children (69 respondents, 38.8%), while the mode for 40 'Administrative' respondents was 4 children (16 respondents, 40%). Means for number of children for 'Academic' and 'Administrative'

respondents were same, 3.2, and t-test results indicated that there was no significant difference between 'Academic' and 'Administrative' respondents in the number of children (t=.10, df=216, p>.05).

With means of 3.3 and 2.6 children for male and female respondents respectively, a t-test for number of children based on sex of the respondents showed that there was a significance difference (t=1.71, df=216, p<.05), with male respondents having more children in their families than females respondents reported.

In this present study, the children ranged in age from 5 years to 34 years, with the modal age of the youngest child being 13 years (15 respondents, 6.7%). A t-test for age of the youngest child based on respondents' gender showed significant differences (t=2.34, df=211, p<.05) with female respondents having older children (mean=19.2 years) than male respondents (mean=15.1 years).

Spousal Occupation

By examining Table 11, it can be seen that the majority of respondents in 'academic' and 'administrative' positions were dual-career couples. For these dual-career couples, the majority of their spouses were engaged as lecturers/teacher.

Table 11
Distribution of Respondents by Spouse Occupation and Position

Cate-gory	Spouse Occupation	'Academic'		'Administrative'		Total	
		n	%	n	%	n	%
1	Government employee	31	14.1	11	5.0	42	19.1
2	Lecturer/ Teacher	35	15.9	10	.0	65	29.5
3	Private	24	10.9	4	2.0	28	12.7
4	Homemaker	71	32.2	14	6.0	85	38.6
	Total	181	82.2	39	17.8	220	100

Note: Chi-square=2.63, df=3, p>.05

A Chi-square test showed that there was no significant difference between 'Academic' and 'Administrative' respondents in their spouse occupation distribution (Chi-square=2.63, df=3, 9>.05).

Among the respondents who were interviewed, all (8 males and 8 females) were married. While two spouses of the eight male respondents worked outside the home, seven spouses of the female respondents worked outside the home, and one was retired.

The distribution of spousal occupation based on the gender of respondents showed that, while the majority of the spouses of respondents were homemakers, only one female respondent was in this category, and her husband used to work for government (see Table 12). As for spousal occupation outside the home, the

majority of spouses of male respondents worked as Lecturers/teachers, while the majority of spouses of female respondents worked as government employees.

Table 12
Distribution of Respondents by Spouse Occupation and Sex

Cate-gory	Spouse Occupation	Male		Female		Total	
		n	%	n	%	n	%
1	Government employee	35	15.9	7	3.2	42	19.1
2	Lecturer/ Teacher	59	26.8	6	2.7	65	29.5
3	Private	25	11.4	3	1.4	28	12.7
4	Homemaker	84	38.2	1	.5	85	38.6
	Total	203	92.3	17	7.7	220	100

Parents Education

The respondents' parents' educational background was categorized into 10 groups, from no education to post-graduate (see Appendix D). Of the 219 respondents who answered the question of "Father's education", the mode was primary education. Primary education was also the mean and median for "father's education". The smallest number in "father's education" category was some tertiary education. When sex was used to differentiate, primary education was the mode for parents' education for both male and female respondents, 50 (24.9%) and 7 (38.9%) respectively.

Education

From 223 respondents who answered the question on their highest education attainment, the mode was "Bachelor degree" for 'academic' and 'administrative' categories. T-test for 'academic' and 'administrative' categories showed that there was a significant difference in their highest educational attainment (t=4.99, df=221, p<.05). (See Table 13).

Table 13
Distribution by Highest Education Attainment and Position

Highest Educational	Academic		Administrative		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Doctoral	58	26 .0	4	1.8	62	27.8
Master	45	20.2	1	.4	46	20.6
Bachelor	78	35.0	31	13.9	109	48.9
Secondary	2	.8	4	1.8	4	1.8
Total	183	82.1	40	17.9	223	100

Note: t=4.99, df=221, p<.05

A t-test for highest educational attainment based on sex of the respondents showed no significant difference (t=.15, df=221, p>.05). It is interesting to note that while there were no female respondents who had not completed some tertiary education, there were

some males respondents without tertiary education.

(See Table 14).

Table 14
Distribution by Highest Education Attainment and Sex

Highest	Male		Female		Total	
Educational	n	%	n	%	n	%
Doctoral	57	25.6	5	2.2	62	27.8
Master	41	18.4	5	2.2	46	20.6
Bachelor	101	45.3	8	3.6	109	48.9
Secondary	6	2.7	0	.0	4	1.8
Total	20	82.1	40	8.1	223	100

Note: t=.15, df=221, p>.05

Books and Articles

All 223 respondents answered the question on the number of academic books and articles written. For books' written, the range was from 0 to 33, with 'no books written' as the mode, 94 (42.2 %). For articles written, the range was from 0 to 99, with 'no articles written' as the mode. The small number of books and articles being written by 'Academics' did not follow the Regulation No. 5/1980 which requires 'Academics' to write academic books as one criterion for promotion. From the interviews, this was seen by 'Academics' as one of the problems they were facing of being

administrators while they were still 'Academics'. This problem will be discussed in more detail in the "obstacles in pursuing a career in administrative position" section.

Characteristics of Effective Senior Administrators in Higher Education Institutions

General Overview

When given an open ended questionnaire, where respondents were asked to spontaneously generate a list of characteristics perceived to be important for the administrators in their current positions to effectively perform their responsibilities, two respondents refused to list the characteristics because "There are no such characteristics that can clearly differentiate one effective administrator from those who are not" and "The characteristics are too complicated to be put on a piece of paper."

The rest of the respondents listed the characteristics which in turn resulted in a common pattern as can be seen in Table 15.

Table 15
List of Characteristics of Effective Senior
Administrator in Indonesian Higher Education
Institutions

Characteristics	Frequency
I. Self	
A. Appearance	
1. Appearance	23
2. Attractiveness	1
B. Ability	
1. Intelligence	43
2. Knowledge	118
3. Fluency of speech	52
4. Adaptability	18
5. Originality, creativity	48
C. Objectivity	
1. Judgment	95
2. Independence, non-conformity	32
3. Objectivity	76
4. Personal integrity, ethical conduct	137
5. Resourcefulness	46
D. Emotional Stability	
1. Adjustment	26
2. Aggressiveness, assertiveness, alertness	15
3. Enthusiasm	80
4. Extroversion	6
5. Self-confidence	29
7. Strength of conviction	7
8. Tolerance of stress	33
II. System	
A. Work Commitment	
1. Achievement drive, desire to excel	2
2. Drive for responsibility	15
3. Enterprise, initiative	46
4. Persistence against obstacle	23
5. Responsible in pursuit of objective	39
6. Task oriented	19
III. Interaction between Self & Work Environment	
A. Self directed	
1. Ability to enlist cooperation	36
2. Administrative ability	71
3. Nurturance	85
4. Sociability, interpersonal skills	35
5. Diplomacy	101
B. Other directed	
1. Prestige	23
2. Social participation	15
Total	1395

The pattern clustered the characteristics into three groups: 1) characteristics related to self, with 4 subgroups (appearance, ability, objectivity, and emotional stability); 2) characteristics related to organizational system, with one subgroup (work commitment); and 3) characteristics related to the interaction between the administrator and the work environment, with 2 subgroups (self-directed and other-directed).

By examining Table 15, it can be seen that some characteristics were noted more frequently than others. The most frequently mentioned (80 times or more) characteristics were personal integrity/ethical conduct, knowledge, diplomacy, judgment, nurturance, and enthusiasm. This was followed by another cluster of responses mentioned approximately 20 to 70 times. For example objectivity, administrative ability, fluency of speech, originality/creativity, resourcefulness, and enterprise/initiative. Finally, some characteristics were mentioned only rarely. For example physical attractiveness, achievement drive, and strength of conviction.

For further investigation, this list of perceived characteristics necessary for effective administrators is reported below based on position ('academic' and

'administrative'), by sex, and by age-group (under 50 years of age, between 50-60 years of age, and over 60 years of age groups).

By Position

There was no difference in the first 10 characteristics with the highest frequency for 'academic' and 'administrative' respondents (see Appendix G for complete results).

Table 16
List of Characteristics of Effective Administrators in Higher Education Institutions
(by Position)

Characteristics	Academic	Administrative	Total
I. Self			
A. Ability			
1. Intelligence	39	4	43
2. Knowledge	99	19	118
3. Fluency of speech	41	11	52
B. Objectivity			
1. Judgment	76	19	95
2. Objectivity	61	15	76
3. Personal integrity, ethical conduct	115	22	137
C. Personality (Emotional Stability)			
1. Enthusiasm	62	18	80
II. Interaction between Self and System			
A. Self directed			
1. Administrative ability	59	12	71
2. Nurturance	63	22	85
3. Diplomacy	84	17	101
Total	699	159	858

As can be seen in Table 16, the 10 most frequently
mentioned characteristics were mostly concerned with
characteristics related to self and to the interaction
between self and work environment. There were no
characteristics related to work environment in these 10
most frequently mentioned characteristics. Respondents
in both 'academic' and 'administrative' positions
relatively agreed on the importance of each
characteristic, except for one, nurturance. 'Academic'
placed nurturance slightly higher than did
'administrative'.

By Sex

The characteristics of effective administrators as
ranked by the respondents based on their sex were
slightly different (Appendix H shows the complete
results). These different rankings also occurred in
the 10 most frequently listed characteristics. As
reflected in Table 17, the majority of the
characteristics were clustered in the self-related
group. Male and female respondents agreed with the
ranks of characteristics in the self-related category,
but differed in their rankings for characteristics
related to work-environment and characteristics related

to interaction between self and work environment. Male

respondents placed 'responsible in pursuit of

objective' and 'administrative ability' lower than did

female respondents. On the other hand, female

respondents placed 'diplomacy' lower than did male

respondents.

Table 17
List of Characteristics of Effective Administrators in
Higher Education Institutions
(by Sex)

Characteristics	Male	Female	Total
I. Self			
A. Ability			
1. Knowledge	105	13	118
2. Fluency of speech	49	3	52
3. Originality, creativity	47	1	48
B. Objectivity			
1. Judgment	86	9	95
2. Objectivity	68	8	76
3. Personal integrity, ethical conduct	123	14	137
4. Resourcefulness	41	5	46
D. Personality (Emotional Stability)			
1. Enthusiasm	71	9	80
II. System			
A. Commitment			
1. Responsible in pursuit of objective	34	9	43
III.Interaction between Self and System			
A. Self directed			
1. Administrative ability	61	10	71
2. Nurturance	78	7	85
5. Diplomacy	95	6	101
Total	858	94	952

By Age

Characteristics of effective administrators as ranked by the respondents based on the three age groups (less than 50, between 50 and 60, and over 60 years of age) were almost the same (see Appendix I for complete result). Characteristics mentioned by respondents in the under 50 years of age group were also listed by the between 50-60 years of age group. From all of these listed characteristics, only six characteristics were not listed by the over 60 years of age group.

As can be seen from Table 18, the less than 50 years of age group and the between 50-60 years of age group did not consider characteristics related to work environment as one of the 10 most frequently listed characteristics, while the over 60 years of age group did. On the other hand, 'Intelligence' was listed as one of the 10 most frequently listed characteristics for respondents in the under 50 years old group, while respondents in the other two groups agreed on the importance of 'intelligence' but did not consider it to be one of the 10 most frequently listed characteristics.

Table 18
List of Characteristics of Effective Administrators in
Higher Education Institutions
(by Age)

Characteristics	<50	50-60	>60	Total
I. Self				
A. Ability				
1. Intelligence	14	27	2	43
2. Knowledge	44	62	12	118
3. Fluency of speech	21	27	4	52
4. Originality, creativity	13	32	3	48
B. Objectivity				
1. Judgment	35	52	8	95
2. Objectivity	21	46	9	76
3. Personal integrity, ethical conduct	45	76	16	137
C. Personality (Emotional Stability)				
1. Enthusiasm	28	45	7	80
II. System				
1. Responsible in pursuit of objective	13	21	5	39
III.Interaction between Self and System				
A. Self directed				
1. Administrative ability	21	43	7	71
2. Nurturance	24	53	8	85
3. Diplomacy	33	57	11	101
Total	312	541	82	935

Obstacles Faced in Pursuing Administrative Careers

General Overview

When given an open ended questionnaire, where
respondents were asked to spontaneously generate a list
of obstacles they faced in pursuing administrative
career, 89% of 223 respondents listed the obstacles.
The rest, 11%, wrote that they have not yet faced
obstacles in their administrative careers.

The obstacles listed by the 198 respondents resulted in a common pattern as can be seen in Table 19. The pattern clustered the obstacles into three groups: 1) obstacles related to self, with 3 subgroups (family-related, emotional stability, and technical); 2) obstacles related to system, with 4 subgroups (organizational structure, promotion, politics, and support system); and 3) obstacles related to the interaction between the administrator and the system, with 2 subgroups (colleagues & subordinates and superior).

By examining Table 19, it can be seen that some obstacles were noted more frequently than others. The most frequently mentioned (20 times or more) obstacles were ineffective organizational structure and communication network, time limit in one position, lack of support facilities, insufficient regulation and lack of objectivity in promotion procedure, 'primordialism' and nepotism & religion, and diversity of colleague & subordinates, and pressure from superior.

Table 19
List of Obstacles Faced by Administrators in Higher
Education Institutions

Obstacles	Frequency
I. Self	
A. Family-related	
1. Parenting responsibilities	16
2. Financial problems	15
B. Emotional stability	
1. Difficult maintaining personal integrity	8
2. Difficulties to adapt new situation	4
3. Emotional imbalance	4
4. Lack of aggressivity	9
5. Lack of discipline	8
6. Lack of initiative	3
C. Technical	
1. Age limitation	5
2. Difficulties in academic advancement	1
3. Lack of communication skills	9
4. Lack of experience	7
5. Time limit in one position	46
II. System	
A. Organization structure	
1. Bureaucracy	26
2. Centralized system	7
3. Conservatism	2
4. Ineffective communication network	33
5. Ineffective organizational structure	52
B. Promotion	
1. Academic vs administrative requirement	9
2. Insufficient regulation	31
3. Lack of objectivity	29
4. Lack of rewards & recognition	16
5. Job Rotation	2
6. 'Primordialism', Nepotism, Religion	28
C. Politics	
1. Political factor	8
D. Support system	
1. Lack of training & education	16
2. Lack of support facilities	45
III. Interaction between Self and System	
A. Colleagues & subordinates	
1. Diversity of character	23
2. Negative perception toward woman	7
3. Professional jealousy	17
B. Superior	
1. Interference, pressure	25
2. Hindrance	14
Total	535

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ter, brother in law in key

positions in the unit. It is hard for outside family
member to be promoted. Another example of
'primordialism is promotion based on race. When this
happens, the majority of the employees, including those
in key positions, come from a single race. Employees
from different race find it difficult to be promoted.
'Primordialism, can also be based on alma mater. When
a graduate from a certain university possesses power
for personnel decision, he or she tends to promote or
appoint those who graduate from his/her university.
The higher the position of a person who does
'primordialism', the bigger the effect is.
'Primordialism' was reported 28 times.

Another cluster of obstacles were mentioned approximately 10 to 20 times. For example, family situations and financial problems, lack of training for staff, and professional jealousy from colleagues and hindrance from superiors. Finally, some obstacles were mentioned only rarely. For example lack of initiative, difficulties in academic advancement, and lack of job rotation.

For further investigation, this list of obstacles faced in pursuing administrative career is reported below based on position ('academic' and 'administrative'), by sex, and by age-group (under 50 years of age, between 50-60 years of age, and over 60 years of age groups).

By Position

Both 'academic' and 'administrative' respondents faced obstacles in the three clusters (see Appendix J for complete results). Nonetheless, the 10 most frequently faced obstacles were clustered in those related to self and those related to system.

Table 20
Obstacles Faced by Administrators in Higher Education
Institutions
(by Position)

Obstacles	Aca-demic	Administrative	Total
I. Self			
A. Family-related			
1. Parenting responsibilities	15	1	16
2. Financial problems	14	1	15
C. Technical			
1. Time limit in one position	39	7	46
II. System			
A. Organizational structure			
1. Ineffective communication network	26	7	33
2. Ineffective organizational structure	47	5	52
B. Promotion			
1. Insufficient regulation	24	7	31
2. Lack of objectivity	23	6	29
3. 'Primordialism', Nepotism, Religion	25	3	28
C. Support system			
1. Lack of support facilities	37	8	45
III. Interaction between Self and System			
A. Superior			
1. Interference, pressure	20	5	25
Total	270	50	320

By examining Table 20, it can be seen that both
'academics' and 'administratives' were relatively
agreed on the rankings of the obstacles, except for
ineffective organizational structure. Ineffective
organizational structure mainly related to too much
unnecessary hierarchy in the university decision-making

process.   'Academics' found ineffective organizational structure to be the number one source of obstacle, but not for 'administratives'.

By Sex

There were differences in obstacles faced by male and female respondents. From 19 obstacles mentioned by female respondents, 18 were also faced by male respondents (see Appendix K). The one obstacle mentioned only by female respondents was 'negative perceptions toward women in administrative positions'.

As can be seen in Table 21, male and female respondents experienced obstacles differently. Obstacles for male respondents were clustered around ineffective organizational structure, lack of support facilities, and time limit in one position. Obstacles for female respondents clustered around negative perception toward women in administrative positions, parenting responsibilities, ineffective communication network, and lack of support facilities.

Table 21
Obstacles Faced by Administrators in Higher Education
Institutions
(by Sex)

Obstacles	Male	Female	Total
I. Self			
A. Family-related			
1. Parenting responsibilities	11	5	16
B. Technical			
1. Time limit in one position	43	3	46
II. System			
A. Organization structure			
1. Bureaucracy	22	4	26
2. Ineffective communication network	28	5	33
3. Ineffective organizational structure	51	1	52
B. Promotion			
1. Insufficient regulation	27	4	31
2. Lack of objectivity	28	1	29
3. 'Primordialism', Nepotism, Religion	27	1	28
C. Support system			
1. Lack of support facilities	40	5	45
III. Interaction between Self and System			
A. Colleagues & subordinates			
1. Diversity of character	20	3	23
2. Negative perception toward woman	0	7	7
3. Professional jealousy	17	0	17
B. Superior			
1. Interference, pressure	24	1	25
Total	338	40	378

By Age

Obstacles faced by respondents based on the three age groupings were rooted in similar clusters (see Appendix L). The three age groups reported facing obstacles in three areas: self-related, system-related, and interaction between the self and the system. Respondents in the under 50 years of age group and those in the 50-60 years of age group reported obstacles from the same 31 sources, and differed in 2, job rotation and negative perception toward women in administrative positions. Respondents in the over 60 years of age group reported 20 sources of obstacles.

By examining Table 22, it can be seen that the three age groups highly ranked obstacles related to time limitation and ineffective organizational structure. In addition, the under 50 years old group and the between 50-60 years of age group agreed upon the obstacles related to support facilities.

Table 22
Obstacles Faced by Administrators in Higher Education
Institutions
(by Age)

Obstacles	<50	50-60	>60	Total
I. Self				
A. Family-related				
1. Parenting responsibilities	5	9	2	16
B. Technical				
1. Age limitation	1	2	2	5
2. Time limit in one position	14	28	4	46
II. System				
A. Organizational structure				
1. Bureaucracy	8	16	2	26
2. Ineffective communication network	11	20	2	33
3. Ineffective structure	16	30	6	52
B. Promotion				
1. Insufficient rules	9	19	3	31
2. Lack of objectivity	10	17	2	29
3. Lack of rewards & recognition	8	8	0	16
4. 'Primordialism', Nepotism, Religion	10	18	0	28
C. Politics				
1. Political factor	2	4	2	8
D. Support system Lack of:				
1. Training & education	9	7	0	16
2. Support facilities	14	30	1	45
III. Interaction between Self and System				
A. Colleagues & subordinates				
1. Diversity of character	5	16	2	23
2. Negative perception toward woman	0	7	0	7
3. Professional jealousy	7	10	0	17
B. Superior				
1. Interference, pressure	5	16	4	25

Results from Interviews

The semi-structured interviews were designed for two purposes. The first purpose was to obtain new information from both male and female administrators, especially relating to how they rate themselves on their perceived characteristics of effective administrators and how administrators manage their perceived obstacles. In addition, female administrators would be probed about being women and holding senior administrative positions. The second purpose was to supplement the questionnaire as well as to verify information reported in it.

Accordingly, results from interviews are organized into 4 sections, 1) general overview, 2) respondents' self-rating to the set of characteristics of effective administrators, 3) respondents' ways of managing obstacles faced in pursuing administrative career, and 4) female respondents' feeling about being women in their current administrative positions.

General Overview

Interviews were conducted with 7 senior administrators, 7 'academic' and 2 'administrative', from 4 higher education institutions in Jakarta and Bogor: Universitas Indonesia (University of Indonesia, UI); Institut Keguruan dan Ilmu Pendidikan Jakarta (The

Jakarta Institute for Teacher Training, IKIP Jakarta);
Institut Pertanian Bogor (Bogor Institute of
Technology, IPB); and Universitas Terbuka (The
Indonesian Open Learning University, UT).

These 16 interviewed-respondents were first asked
to fill out the questionnaire. After filling out the
questionnaire, the respondents were given explanations
on issues which would be asked in the interviews.
Further, the respondents were also asked to provide any
written documents related to the issues. Four female
respondents handed out their campaign materials
prepared for their current positions.

During the interviews, the researcher took notes
and at the end of interviews asked the respondents for
clarification of their answers. This clarification
served as one means for respondents to verify the
results of interviews, which helps to validate them
(Marshall & Rossman, 1989).

From interviews and additional written materials
given accordingly, comparisons and contrasts between
the eight male and eight female respondents were made
regarding how they rate themselves on their perceived
characteristics for effective administrators and how

they manage their perceived obstacles. General patterns will be presented first, followed by unique cases.

Respondents' Self-rating on the Characteristics of Effective Administrators

From the total of 16 administrators, 15 administrators rated themselves high in the set of characteristics, and one male respondent rated himself moderate in the set. Except for one male respondent, then, there were no differences in male and female respondents on how they rate themselves in the perceived characteristics at the time of the interviews. The 16 administrators all believed that they possess, to some degree, the basic characteristics necessary to perform effectively in their positions. One respondent echoed this when he said "I can only be in my current position because I possess the necessary characteristics".

While there was no difference between male and female respondents, except for one male respondent, in their self-rating, five female respondents reported that was not the case in their earlier career stage. One female respondent put it as "I was not too satisfied with myself in the beginning of my service".

To provide more insight into the respondents' self-ratings on the perceived characteristics necessary for effective administrators, comparisons and contrasts of the male and female respondents were based on each cluster of characteristics (related to self, related to organizational system, and related to interaction between self and work environment).

Due to the nature of the questionnaire and the interview, comparison and contrast were not always possible. The spontaneously generating approach used in the questionnaire allowed each respondent to come out with a different set of specific characteristics. Accordingly, respondents who saw the importance of specific characteristics were asked to do the self-ratings on those characteristics. On the other hand, respondents who did not see the importance of the specific characteristics would not be asked to do the self-rating on those characteristics.

Characteristic Related to Self

In general, all of the 16 male and female respondents rated themselves high in the set of characteristics related to self. The respondents believed that they possessed ability, proficiency, and emotional stability necessary to be able to function effectively in their current positions. Nonetheless,

differences in self-ratings between male and female respondents did occur in some specific characteristics.

The following sub-sections present commonalities and differences between male and female respondents concerning their self-ratings on the specific characteristics related to self.

Appearance.

Of the 8 male interviewed respondents, one saw the importance of appearance but the other 7 did not. Considering the 8 females interviewed, 5 agreed on the importance of appearance, while the other 3 did not. The 1 male and 5 female respondents who saw the importance of appearance, rated themselves high in this characteristic. One male respondent illustrated this viewpoint when he stated, "My appearance perfectly reflected the image of my institution which is important because my work related heavily to coordination with other institutions." He added that the way he chose and wore his clothes congruent with intellectuality inherent in his work in university. One female respondent stressed the necessity to avoid clumsiness in her appearance because "my institution (university) connotes organized and well-planned activities." All five female respondents had the same

attitude and concern, which was well represented by a female respondent when she said "I am positive that I reflect the image of my institution."

Ability.

All 8 male and 8 female respondents saw the importance of characteristics related to abilities. Seven of the male respondents rated themselves high in the characteristics, and 1 only rated himself moderately, especially in adaptability. He reported the difficulties of being shifted from administrative positions to academic and then back to administrative, especially at his age "I am too old to be able to adapt to new situations."

All of the 8 female respondents rated themselves high in their abilities' characteristics. One female respondent who was typical of the viewpoint stated by others noted that "I deserve my current position because I possess ... the knowledge ... necessary to carry out the work." Two female respondents reported that even though they, at the time of interviews, rated themselves high in their ability to communicate, that was not the case in their earlier stage of career as administrators. They needed to redevelop and refine their communication skills. They remarked that they

possessed the communication skills "to be a lecturer, but I need a rather different communication style if I want to succeed in administrative positions."

Objectivity.

All of the interviewed respondents saw the importance of objectivity and rated themselves high in this regard. One male respondent illustrated this viewpoint when he stated, "I survive in my position because I try to be objective, ... and maintain my integrity." A female respondent underscored the importance of objectivity when she said "I have to prove that I am independent, which I believe I am, before they (*others*) acknowledge me."

Emotional stability.

All of the 8 male and 8 female interviewed respondents agreed on the importance of emotional stability and rated themselves high in these emotional stability's characteristics. A female respondents echoed others' when she stated that "being involved with a wide variety of people, ... , I have to be sure that I am emotionally stable."

A male respondent mentioned that being an extrovert person was one reason for him to be in his present position. Three male respondents believed that they possess aggressiveness and self-confidence.

One female respondent did not see extroversion as an important characteristic for effective administrators, although she believed she was extrovert but "It does not influence my capacity (*as an administrator*)."

Characteristics Related to Organizational System

In general, all of the 16 male and female respondents interviewed rated themselves high in the set of characteristics related to work environment. The respondents believed that they possessed work commitment necessary to be able to function effectively in their current positions. Nonetheless, differences in self-ratings between male and female respondents did occur in some specific characteristics.

The following sub-sections present commonalities and differences between male and female respondents concerning their self-ratings on the specific characteristics related to work environment.

Work commitment.

All of the 8 male and 8 female respondents saw the importance of work commitment and rated themselves high in the commitment to work. They believed that they were responsible, demonstrated initiative and persistence and were task oriented. A male respondent echoed the beliefs of both male and female respondents,

when he said "We can only carry out our responsibilities if we are committed to our work. ...I believe I have what it takes to achieve my department's objectives."

Persistence against obstacles was seen as important. This issue will be explored in more detail in the section on the obstacles faced by administrators.

Characteristics Related to the Interaction between Self and Work Environment

In general, all of the 16 male and female interviewed respondents rated themselves high in characteristics related to the interaction between self and work environment. All interviewed respondents believed that they possessed the interaction characteristics necessary to be able to function effectively in their current positions. Nonetheless, differences in self-ratings between male and female respondents did occur in some specific characteristics.

The following sub-sections present commonalities and differences between male and female respondents concerning their self-ratings on the specific characteristics related to the interaction between self and work environment.

<u>Self-directed</u>.

All 8 male and 8 female respondents saw the importance of the interaction related characteristics and rated themselves high in these characteristics. They believed they can influence others to work with them to achieve the organization's objectives. A male respondent echoed the beliefs of both male and female respondents when he said that "I possess interpersonal skills needed to allow every individual to contribute their best to the system."

In administrative ability, 7 of the male and 8 of the female respondents rated themselves high as a male respondent put it, "It is just like a second nature for me." The one exception of one male respondent rated himself as 'not too high' because of his lack of experience and training in the administrative field.

There were, however, two reported variations as to how 6 of the 8 women felt they become self-directed. First, 3 of the 8 female respondents mentioned being trained as 'housewife' on how to manage things. The others believed they possessed administrative ability because they worked hard for it, "I will not be here (*in her current position*) if I am not push myself to enhance my administrative ability." The remaining two

women offered reasons that parallel those given by the seven males. For example, one of the two noted, "I just felt comfortable with my administrative ability."

Other-directed.

All of the 16 interviewed respondents saw the importance of these other-directed related characteristics. All of the 8 male and 8 female interviewed respondents saw the importance of characteristics related to social participation ("I am comfortable working with other people"). All male respondents rated themselves high in these characteristics, while 6 female respondents rated themselves high and 2 female respondents rated themselves moderately. One female respondent was concerned about her uneasiness "although I do not let it out" every time she had to engage with others in social occasions. The other female respondent felt comfortable relating herself with others in formal situation, but not in informal ones, "It is difficult to be involved in 'discussions' when you do not feel welcomed."

Respondents' Ways of Managing Obstacles Faced in Pursuing Administrative Careers

In general there were two ways in which the respondents managed obstacles: 1) approach the obstacles as challenges that should be overcome, and 2) approach the obstacle as something that cannot be changed. Both male and female respondents used both these approaches. Their choice of approach depended on the nature of the obstacle being addressed.

To provide more insight on how the respondents managed their perceived obstacles, comparison and contrast between male and female respondents were done based on each cluster of obstacles (related to self, related to system, and related to interaction between self and system).

Due to the nature of the questionnaire and the interview where obstacles were generated by the respondents, group comparisons and contrasts were not always possible. Respondents who experienced a self-defined set of obstacles described their ways of overcoming theirs. There was a lack of commonality in the lists, thus, it is unknown how respondents might have addressed obstacles they have never met. For

example, the obstacles associated with parenthood varied between male and female respondents. Family responsibilities have had a great impact on women.

Obstacles Related to Self

Obstacles related to the self were reported by 4 male and 8 female respondents. One male respondent noted obstacles related to financial restriction, while 3 male experienced obstacles related to their emotional stability. All females noted obstacles related to parenting responsibilities.

Further examination of each of the obstacles reveals similarities and differences on how respondents managed their obstacles faced in pursuing administrative careers, as shown in the following sub-sections.

Family-related.

No male respondent had experienced obstacles related to their parenting responsibilities. On the other hand, all 8 female respondents faced obstacles concerning being a wife and a mother. One Dean well represented other female respondents concerned when she stated that:

"First I am a mother, a function that cannot be replaced by anything. Second, I am a wife, a function that actually can be replaced but because it was my decision to marry my husband it is my responsibility to be with him. Third, I am all but mother and wife"

Having a career was not a high priority for the female respondents, except for one. Nevertheless, the seven female respondents agreed that this does not mean that they stopped pursuing their careers. All of the female respondents, including the one who is determined to have a career, knew they would have to make adjustments to accommodate their priorities. All of the 8 female respondents worked before they got married. Once they had a child, six female respondents shifted their jobs to one which offered more time flexibility, being a lecturer. One female voiced the viewpoint of others by saying in "being a lecturer, I do not have to be away from my children all day. ... some of my responsibilities as lecturer can be done at my own home." Two of the female respondents quit their jobs and waited until their children were old enough ("I waited until my boys were 8 and 10 years old") before re-entering the work place.

The female respondents did not consider these choices as sacrifices, as reflected by a respondent who said that:

"I can not forget the day my oldest son came from school, yelling out loud from the front door 'mother, I am ranked first in my class' smiling wide and waving his report card. Tears ran down my face, thank God I was here for my son. I could not imagine how he would feel, not finding his mother at home when he needs her. That time I promised myself not to miss another similar situation".

By the time these female respondents engaged in their administrative positions, their children (who were the primary reason that prevented the female respondents from pursuing their careers) had grown up. Their spouses had also established their careers. Family situation, then, did not remain a source of obstacles.

One female respondent set her priorities differently to avoid family-related obstacles in her career. She knew what she wanted from the beginning, and found a husband who supported her in her career. Being brought up in a religious family, she had certain beliefs about the responsibilities of being a wife and a mother. On the other hand, her schooling and socialization encouraged her to become a career woman.

In order to combine the two, she looked for and found a husband who could accommodate her beliefs and aspirations.

As evidenced by the age of the female administrators (6 of the 8 women interviewed were 7 to 12 years older than men in parallel ranks), parenting responsibilities delayed career progress. In another case, a woman could not move upward in terms of her academic rank because she did not possess a doctoral degree. She chose not to pursue this degree because her husband did not possess one. "I tried not to make him feel inferior to me; not only from his point of view, but also from society's point of view." She did nothing to address this shortcoming, believing she would not overcome this obstacle.

Obstacles rooted in financial restrictions were only reported by one of the eight male respondents and by none of the female respondents. The one male noted his family expected him to earn a higher income. He did nothing about this problem; hoping his family would eventually come to terms with his financial status.

Emotional stability.

Eleven of 16 respondents did not report obstacles related to emotional stability, which are concerned with maintaining personal integrity, adaptation,

emotional imbalance, aggressivity, and discipline. The 5 respondents, 2 males and 3 females, who reported obstacles related to emotional stability were concerned with difficulties they faced in maintaining their personal integrity. These five respondents were proud of their integrity, which made it more difficult for them to face the obstacle. One male respondent reported that "It is really hard to maintain your integrity if you are surrounded with 'opportunities'...", which was underscored by the other male respondent with "It is especially hard .... because you are the only one who knows what you are doing." The three females shared the same beliefs. To overcome this obstacle, the respondents tried two approaches; 1) making all decisions transparent for everyone and 2) spiritually bringing themselves closer to God.

Technical.

Obstacles related to technical problems concerned with age and time limit in administrative positions, difficulties in academic advancement because of responsibilities as administrators, lack of communication skills, and lack of experience. Twelve of 16 respondents did not report obstacles related to technical situations. Four respondents, 2 males and 2

females, reported obstacles related to difficulties in academic advancement and lack of experience in the administrative field. The two males and two females who reported difficulties in their academic advancement believed that the responsibilities of administrators had consumed the majority of their time. There was no time left for their academic life. The necessity to earn credits from teaching and conducting research while at the same time responsibilities as administrators have to be carried out was seen as an obstacle. Although they managed to catch up with the latest developments in their field, their academic promotions were not as fast as they wanted. This caused a problem because they did not have an intention to quit their administrative position, as one female respondents stated "I work very hard to be recognized and acknowledged in my position, I do not want to give it up."

Other respondents who did not suffer from their dual-role responsibilities (administrators who were also academicians) utilized the combination of these 2 approaches, 1) designated certain time for their academic activities and 2) had assistants to help with their academic activities. One female respondent wrote scientific articles for her Department Journal, and

said that "It serves two purposes. On the one hand, it helps me catch up with the latest research; and on the other hand, it forces lecturers in my department to do the same."

One male respondent who also reported an obstacle related to his lack of experience in the administrative field felt the necessity to go through training, "The fact that I am an expert in management sciences did not automatically made me an expert in the practice." As the time passed by, he gradually managed to overcome the obstacle.

Obstacles Related to Organizational System

Obstacles related to the system were experienced by all of the 8 male and 8 female respondents. Seven male and 7 female respondents found obstacles rooted in organizational structure. Three male and 2 female respondents experiences obstacles related to promotion procedures. All respondents faced obstacles related to the support system.

Further examination of each obstacle reveals some similarities and differences on how respondents managed their obstacles in pursuing their administrative career, as shown in the following sub-sections.

Organizational structure.

Four male and 5 female respondents experienced obstacles resulting from the bureaucracy both in their institutions and in the superstructures (Directorate of Higher Education, Department of Education and Culture). One respondent voiced others' concerns when he mentioned that the bureaucracy "...was very frustrating because it slows down our pace of work." The four male and 5 female respondents believed in the bureaucracy; it was the people in the system that made bureaucracy fail to work, "I am sure that if all regulations are followed properly, our bureaucracy system will work effectively", stated one respondent. To overcome obstacles related to this 'bureaucracy', the 4 male and 5 female respondents used two approaches simultaneously, 1) allowing enough time for issues that need to be consulted to the superstructure, and 2) finding ways to accomplish goals without having to deal with the superstructure.

Ineffective communication network within the institution and between institutions and superstructures were also reported as a source of obstacles for 7 male and 7 female respondents. Ineffective formal communication networks forced the male and female respondents to build and enhance their

informal channels. This way, the respondents gained addition benefits, "some information is just received faster through this informal channel...", "...wider access to what was, is, and will be going on in the Department (*of Education and Culture*)."

Promotion.

Obstacles related to promotion, regulations and procedures, were reported by 5 respondents, 3 males and 2 females. Two males and 2 females were concerned about difficulties to fulfill their academic and administrative requirements as stated in the regulations (see 'Technical' section for more findings).

One male respondent experienced an obstacle rooted in primordialism, a situation where promotion is granted based on factors other than merit. It prevented him from attaining an administrative position. Aware that he could not change the situation, he tried, and succeeded, to be posted to another university with less emphasis on primordialism.

Support facilities.

All respondents experienced obstacles related to lack of support facilities, both human facilities (staff) and infrastructure (technology and physical facilities). Obstacles related to staff were mostly

concerned with lack of skills and lack of motivation.
To overcome lack of skills, two approaches were used
simultaneously, 1) provide training to increase skills
("Our Department (of Education and Culture) has a
special unit for training and education; why not use
it?"), and 2) provide step-by-step manuals for routine
activities. To increase motivation, 4 male and 5
female respondents encourage the sense of belonging.
One male respondent showed his staff the importance of
their work and set an example for his staff on how to
work effectively and efficiently. One female
respondent did the same thing, and stated that she
"...set an example of myself doing things in a
well-planned and well-organized manner."

Obstacles from insufficient infrastructure were
faced by 3 male and 2 female respondents. All of them
tried to make the best out of what they had.

Obstacles Related to the Interaction between Self and Organizational System

Obstacles related to the interaction between self
and system were only experienced by 5 female
respondents. No male reported obstacles related to the
interaction between self and system. The 5 female

respondents experienced being negatively perceived on their administrative abilities. No respondent reported obstacles rooted from their superiors.

Below is an examination of how female respondents manage being unfit for their administrative position.

Negative perception toward women.

Considering the 8 females interviewed, 5 experienced negative perception of their abilities as administrators, while the other 3 did not. These 3 females did not find themselves to be perceived negatively, although they were aware that other female administrators suffered from these negative perceptions.

The cost for this negative perception was wisely put by one respondent "...rather than using our (female administrators) energy to fight this perception, it would be better to use it to enhance our performance." Approaches the 5 female respondents used to overcome this obstacle of negative perception were ignoring the perception (2 respondents) and making adjustments to eliminate the negative perceptions (3 respondents).

None of the 5 female respondents tried to fight the negative perception. This might be because, as one respondent put it, "...deep in our (women) minds, we can feel that administrative positions do not belong to

us." Two female respondents who experienced and tried to ignore the negative perception chose to do so because they believed that the perception was difficult to change. One respondent believed that "...a first priority for a woman is her family. ...career should not jeopardize my family"; and the other one said "Look at me. I waited until my children were old enough to take care of themselves before focusing on my career. Now I am here (*in her position*)."

Three out of 5 female respondents who experienced being negatively perceived as administrators and made adjustment did so to show those with negative perceptions that they were wrong. These female respondents did not think they wanted to spend a lot of energy to fight the perception; but on the other hand they felt they had to do something. One female respondent described it as "...being as tough as men and ready to be treated as men." In order to prove that she has the quality of 'good' administrator, she even had to go bare-footed when inspecting a new location for her university development.

"...Usually I keep a spare pair of shoes in my car. But that day I just arrived from a seminar out of town, wearing high-heeled shoes. I was not ready for an inspection to a new site of our campus development,; it was a last minute plan. In order to keep up with other (men) who inspect the site, I took off my shoes... I did not want to give the impression that I am weak."

Female Respondents' Feelings about being Women in Their Current Position

General Overview

To examine how female respondents felt about being women in their current positions, the 8 female respondents being interviewed were asked the question. All of the 8 female respondents being interviewed were comfortable in their positions. They had worked for more than 20 years, and they had been in their current position for at least 4 years, except one who had just started her service. They thought they knew their way around. They had established their positions in their work environment.

However, they mentioned obstacles they had to encounter before they could feel the way they feel now. Six of 8 female respondents agreed that being a woman in a senior administrator's positions was difficult in terms of gaining legitimacy from the system and

experiencing role-conflicts. Below are results from
this present study concerning legitimacy and
role-conflict.

Legitimacy

Six of 8 female respondents being interviewed
agreed that the most difficult time in being an
administrator began when they pursued their first
administrative position. Rarely did superiors,
colleagues, and other support staff provide
encouragement. Or as one female respondent put it:
"...they looked at me like I am out of my mind. And
this was only 5 years ago. Only after they had my
proposal, they started to back me up ... until finally
I was appointed, over 3 male candidates."   These 6
female respondents stressed the importance of proving
their ability which was crucial to winning legitimacy.
One female respondent echoed the other five female
respondents who shared the same concern on legitimacy
when she stated that "I had to prove that I am as
capable as men, often twice as capable, before they
offered me the jobs."

Once the female administrators achieved
legitimacy, things became more manageable, because, as
one female respondent mentioned, "...we , then, can
focus our attention on our jobs." That does not mean

that the female respondents were free from the negative
perception toward their administrative abilities.
Their performance had to be maintained at a high level,
in order not to lose the legitimacy.

These female respondents learned to identify
behaviors which tend to disqualify women from
acceptance into the fraternity of administrators
("...do not ever, ever, use your children as an excuse
for rejecting tasks", "...never show hesitation").

Role-conflict

All 8 female respondents experienced role-conflict
at the first stage of their careers. As their children
grew up, the time previously dedicated to their
children then could be used to build up their careers
without the necessity of feeling 'guilty'.

All female respondents felt the existence of
double standards regarding family responsibilities
which are subscribed to not only by society but also by
the individuals themselves. They, in contrast to their
male counterparts, felt themselves to be adding an
additional role, the career role, to that of their
domestic roles. All of the female respondents believed
their familial roles were supposed to take precedence
since they were expected to take primary
responsibility for the family. This was even true for

one female respondent who placed her career high in her priority, "I know I want to be a career woman. My marriage can not stop me from reaching that. But I have to fight myself every time demands from my work conflicted with those of my family."

Four of the female respondents experienced conflicts of choosing being called competent or being identified as female.

Summary

A total of 29.9% of senior administrators in state higher education institutions in Indonesia responded to a questionnaire designed to identify characteristics of effective senior administrators in the institutions and to identify obstacles faced in pursuing an administrative career in the institutions. Additional information concerning personal and professional characteristics was also addressed in the questionnaire.

In order to gain more insight into the issues, semi-structured interviews were conducted with 8 male and 8 female respondents, paired based on position, to obtain information relating to how these administrators rate themselves on their perceived characteristics of effective administrators and how administrators manage their perceived obstacles. In addition, the 8 female

administrators were asked one additional question concerning their feeling about being women in their positions.

Looking at respondents' personal information from the returned questionnaire, a general pattern emerged. Male respondents outnumber female respondents. The majority of the respondents were between 50-60 years old, married with children, had homemaker and lecturers/teachers as spousal occupations, and had parents with elementary educational background.

Professional information from the respondents revealed that the mode of education attainment was a bachelor degree; the majority of respondents wrote no books and no articles, although some had written up to 33 books and 99 articles.

From the returned questionnaire, where the respondents were asked to spontaneously list characteristics of effective administrators, 3 common patterns resulted; characteristics related to self, related to organizational system, and related to interaction between self and organizational system.

Examining these sets of characteristics based on position, sex, and age revealed some similarities and differences. Based on position, 'academic' and 'administrative' relatively agreed to the nature of

characteristics and their ranking, except for one, nurturance. 'Academic' placed nurturance higher than did 'administrative'. Based on sex, similarities occurred for some characteristics, and differences occurred in another characteristics. Some characteristics which were listed more frequently by males (e.g. responsible in pursuit of objective) were not listed that often by female respondents; and vice versa. Based on age, relatively the three age groups agreed on the nature of characteristics and the rankings, except for characteristics related to work environment. Mature respondents saw the importance of the characteristics, but not the under 50 and the between 50-60 years old groups.

Respondents also were asked to generate obstacles they faced in pursuing an administrative career. Again 3 common patterns were identified: those related to self, those related to system, and those related to interaction between self and system.

Taking a closer look at these obstacles, based on respondents' position, sex, and age group, revealed some similarities and differences. Based on position, 'academic' and 'administrative' faced similar sources of obstacles, except in ineffective organizational structure. 'Academic' experienced obstacles from

ineffectiveness of organizational structure, but not 'administrative'. Based on sex of the respondents, differences occurred in both the nature of the obstacles and the ranking. Obstacles often faced by male respondents (e.g. ineffective organizational structure) were not a big concern for female respondents. On the other hand, major obstacles of a big concern for female respondents (e.g. parenting responsibilities) were experienced only rarely by male respondents. Based on age group of the respondents, the three age groups faced similar obstacles, except one for those over 60 years where they rarely face obstacles related to support facilities.

From interviews conducted with 8 male and 8 female administrators, information concerning the respondents' self-rating of the characteristics of effective administrators and the respondents' ways to manage obstacles faced were gathered. Examining information on the self-rating revealed that both male and female respondents rated themselves highly in the set of characteristics. This was the case for the three cluster characteristics, those related to self, those related to system, and those related to interaction between self and system.

There were 2 approaches used simultaneously by respondents to manage obstacles they faced, approach the obstacles as challenges that should be overcome, and approach the obstacle as something that can not be changed. The use of the approach depended on the nature of the obstacles.

In exploring female respondents' feelings about being women in their current positions, it was found that even though the respondents were now comfortable in their positions, they had previously had to face years of battle. Being a woman and having a career was difficult because of the difficulties of gaining legitimacy in the system and the difficulties of role-conflicts.

Chapter 5: DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Discussion

Five questions were addressed in this study. This Discussion section is divided based on these questions. The first two questions are discussed based on the findings from questionnaire. The other three questions are based on findings from interviews.

What Are the Characteristics of Effective Senior Administrators in Higher Education Institutions?

In total, there were 32 characteristics of effective senior administrators, ranged from those related to self, organizational system, and interaction between self and organizational system. These findings show the importance of the relationship between individuals and their environment, although as indicated by the frequency of the characteristics, the focus is apparently on the self, the individual.

Examining each of the characteristics, some of these characteristics were noted more frequently than others. The most frequently occurring characteristics were personal integrity, objectivity, knowledge, diplomacy, judgment, nurturance, and enthusiasm.

Respondents placed integrity and objectivity high in the set of characteristics as reflected by their high frequency. This is consistent with what Chapman

(1991) found in his study, individuals can behave effectively in a system that can accommodate their valueS. Integrity and objectivity is highly valued in higher education (Nainggolan, 1986), thus, objective administrators would fit into the system and act effectively.

Bennis and Nanus (1985) stressed the necessity of power for administrators. In higher education institutions, power is knowledge. To function effectively as administrators in higher education institution, then, knowledge plays an important role.

Diplomacy which was listed frequently by respondents was also found to be an important characteristic in an earlier study (Conway, 1990). Moreover, Fullan (1992) found the necessity for administrators to possess interaction skills.

The existence of nurturance as one of the most frequently mentioned characteristics in the present study contradicts findings from earlier studies which stressed the importance of administrators to be tough (Dix, 1987; Brenner et al., 1988). However, it is parallel with Bass' (1981) study that indicated the necessity to soften one's concern for group performance by nurturance behavior.

Interesting enough, only 2 out of 8 characteristics used by the Indonesian government to assess one's ability for promotion are included in these most frequently mentioned characteristics. It should be useful to inquire more about how administrators see the other six characteristics.

Some characteristics of effective administrators found in earlier studies were not mentioned in the present study. They include conflict management ability (Bernstein, 1989; O'Lone, 1989; White & Bednar, 1989); empowerment capacity (Stewart, 1989; Bennis& Nanus, 1985); vision (Tichy & Devana, 1986); and risk-taking capacity (White & Bednar, 1989). Why this happens is not explored in the present study.

Based on sex of the respondents, there are 2 interesting findings revealed from the list of characteristics of an effective administrator. The first relates to similarities and differences in characteristics between those listed by male and those listed by female administrators. The second relates to differences in the ranking of characteristics, as reflected by their frequency, that were mentioned by both male and female respondents.

All characteristics mentioned by male respondents were also mentioned by female respondents, except for attractiveness, achievement drive, and task orientation. With these three exceptions, male and female respondents agreed on characteristics of effective administrators. This finding is consistent with other studies (Schein, 1975; Brenner et al., 1988; Heilman et al., 1989) where men and women have agreed on characteristics ascribed as important to administrator effectiveness.

The fact that attractiveness was not mentioned by female respondents is consistent with an earlier study by Marshall (1985) where she found that women administrators saw that covering their marginality and ascribing deviance would help them to move upward in administrative career. Non existence of attractiveness is also congruent with a more recent study by Heilman et al. (1993), which resulted in rejection of like others in minority groups when the minority status carries with it negative connotations about the self.

The finding that female respondents in the present study did not place a high value on the "feminine" characteristic of attractiveness reflects what Biklen

(1980) found in her study. Women attempting to succeed in traditionally male fields either are judged as competent and unfeminine or incompetent and feminine.

No female respondent mentioned achievement drive as one characteristic that differentiates effective administrators from those who are not. This contradicts findings from earlier studies which indicated that women were more concerned about achievement than men (Betz, Fritzgerald, & Hill, 1987; Weiner, 1985). However, a more recent study found that achievement motive for men and women was similar (Elizur & Beck, 1993).

Task orientation was another characteristic not mentioned by female respondents which has been reported as lower for women than for men (Childress, 1986; Foster, 1986). This could explain why no female respondents listed this characteristic. However, a more recent study by Hughes and Lowe (1993) attributed women's lower tasks to their lower educational level, which is not the case in this present study. Female and male respondents in this present study possessed similar educational background.

In addition to the commonalities with men, the present study noted differences in rankings attributed to some of the characteristics mentioned by both male

and female respondents. These include characteristics where male respondents placed the characteristics lower than did female respondents (resourcefulness, responsible in pursuit of objective, and administrative ability) and characteristics where female respondents placed the characteristics lower than did male respondents (nurturance and diplomacy).

Earlier studies found both similarities and differences between men and women in terms of how they perceive certain characteristics. Resourcefulness and administrative ability were perceived to be important for both men and women (Heilman et al., 1989; Jabes, 1980; Wiley & Elkinson, 1982).

One reason why female respondents placed nurturance lower than did men might be related to females believing they must choose between being incompetent and feminine or competent and unfeminine (Biklen, 1980). By mentioning nurturance, a "feminine" characteristic, female respondents showed their feminine side, but at the same time send a message of not being too feminine by not placing the characteristics high in rank. On the other hand, the fact that nurturance was mentioned contradicts findings

from an earlier study which put toughness as one characteristic that differentiates effective administrators from those who are not (Dix, 1987).

It is interesting to note that differences in communication ability between men and women found in other studies (Helgelsen, 1990; Mitchell, 1990) did not occur in the present study.

What Obstacles Are Faced in Reaching Current Senior Administrative Position?

In total, there were 32 obstacles faced by administrators in pursuing their administrative careers, related to the self, system, and interaction between self and system. The most frequently reported obstacles were ineffective organizational structure, lack of support system (personal and structure) time limit in one position, promotion procedures, and interaction with superiors.

Earlier studies found that ineffective organizational structure can cause obstacles because it blocks information flow (Foster, 1986), slows down the work (Glickman, 1991), and encourages passitivity (Watkins, 1989). The blocking of information can affect data and information availability which is important for decision making. Decisions based on

incomplete information might result in negative impact, which in turn could influence the administrators' performance.

Slowing down the work, which in turn prevents administrators from meeting deadlines, is also caused by lack in support system. As in other organizations, administrators in higher education institutions need qualified staff and sufficient technology in order to function effectively (Government Regulation No. 30/1990).

The Indonesian government restricts the length of time that any person can hold any administrative position to two terms, each term being 4 to 5 years. A number of administrators felt that this arbitrary time limit did not allow them sufficient time to achieve positive results. The rationale offered by some of the administrators for needing extra time was that they lacked experience. This lack of experience in administrative positions meant that these 'academic' respondents required some time to get accustomed to their administrative responsibilities.

Promotion is widely proven to be related to job satisfaction and commitment (Chao, 1990, Tremblay et al., 1992), and to decrease work-related stress (Elsass & Ralston, 1989). Ineffective promotion procedure is

also related to plateauing condition which can affect administrators' work attitudes and performance (Ettington, 1992).

Interaction with one's superior plays an important role because of power the superior has over the administrators (Bennis & Nanus, 1985). Interference and pressure from a superior might trigger conflict which in turn could affect achievement.

Based on sex of the respondents, similarities and differences occurred in the obstacles faced in pursuing administrative careers. Both male and female respondents faced obstacles related to self and organizational structure. The majority of the obstacles were related to organizational structure, e.g. promotion and support system. It is congruent with earlier studies which found that a bad system affected all involved in the system (Block, 1987; Conger, 1989).

In terms of differences between male and female respondents, male respondents experienced obstacles related to professional jealousy, but not female respondents. On the other hand, female respondent experienced negative perception toward their administrative ability, but not male respondents. Professional jealousy used to be a problem related to

female administrators, what is called the "queen bee syndrome" (Staines et al. 1974), although more recent studies proved that the syndrome had disappeared (Jabes, 1980; Heilman et al., 1993). Non existence of professional jealousy in the present study supports the disappearance of the syndrome.

Although both male and female respondents reported having obstacles related to problems in their family, the percentage of female respondents in the present study who reported obstacles rooted in the family was higher than male respondents. This is consistent with findings from an earlier study which indicated that women experienced greater impact of work role salience and task characteristics on work-home conflict than did men (Parasuraman, et al., 1989). The situation is more difficult because as Staines et al. (1986) found, husbands' life satisfaction was negatively correlated with their spouse being employed. In addition, Greenhaus and Kopelman (1981) found that men whose wives were employed in administrative positions experienced significantly more intense work-conflict than men whose wives were employed in nonadministrative positions. These results parallel the high percentage of female respondents who experienced obstacles related

to work-family conflicts, given the Indonesian situation where women are expected to perform nurturing functions (Menteri Negara Urusan Peranan Wanita, 1991).

As can be seen from the findings of the present study, except for professional jealousy and negative perception, both male and female respondents face similar problems in reaching their current positions. The nature of the work then would appear to be the prominent source of obstacles rather than differences in the sex of the individuals.

How Do the Administrators Rate Themselves on the Set of Characteristics?

In general, except for one male, both male and female respondents rate themselves high in the characteristics that differentiate effective administrators from those who are not. This was the case for all three clusters of characteristics; those related to self, those related to system, and those related to interaction between self and system.

For male respondents, this finding is consistent with what earlier studies revealed, that men saw similarities in characteristics for men and administrators (Schein, 1975, 1989; Brenner et al., 1988; Heilman et al., 1989). On the other hand, these findings do not support the "imposter phenomenon" found

in Clanche and O'Toole (1988) study where successful professional women underestimate their abilities and overestimate others' abilities. These successful but under confident women think other people assume they are capable because of the position they hold. These findings also contradict the study by Frieze et al. (1982) that found that women attribute their success to factors other than their own competencies.

The fact that male and female respondents highly rated themselves on the set of characteristics also contradicted findings from earlier studies concerning differences between man and women in adaptability capacity (McCartney, 1986); independence (Singer, 1976); aggressiveness and assertiveness (Kagan, 1980); and self confidence (Dix, 1987; Wiley & Elkinson, 1982).

Nevertheless, 5 of 8 female respondents did report that in their earlier stage of career they did not rate themselves as high as they did at the time of the interviews. Communication ability was one characteristic that, according to some female respondents, needs to be improved. This is congruent with what Tannen (1990) sees as different styles for men and women. Because administrative work used to be

a male occupation, the male's communication style, thus, seems to fit in the field. Women, then, have to make the adjustment.

How do the Administrators Manage Their Perceived Obstacles?

There were two approaches used simultaneously by both male and female respondents to manage obstacles they faced: approach the obstacles as challenges that should be overcome, and approach the obstacle as something that cannot be changed. In managing obstacles seen as challenges, respondents either change themselves or change the source of obstacles. Respondents, male and female, who experienced obstacles related to maintaining their personal integrity saw the obstacle as a challenge. To overcome the difficulties in maintaining their personal integrity, the respondents made all decisions transparent, so that everybody in the system had access to all the decisions. In addition, the respondents changed themselves by trying to get closer to god.

Respondents also used a similar approach in managing obstacles related to organizational structure where they tried to change themselves to fit in the system. In managing obstacles related to ineffective

communication network, and lack of support facilities, the respondents changed the source of obstacles. They build an informal network to facilitate their need for information. Lack of support facilities was overcome by providing training to their staff and updating technology used in their work.

In spite of similarities between male and female respondents in the way they manage their obstacles, difference occurred on how they manage obstacles related to family situations. Female respondents reported changing themselves when they experienced conflicting demands between parenting responsibilities and careers. This tendency is also found in other studies where an increasing number of women who initially opted for career, had either "dropped out" of corporate life to start families or had new careers in which they can devote more time to their families (Coulson-Thomas, 1988; Erlich, 1989; Taylor III, 1986). None of the male respondents reported obstacles related to parenting responsibilities, although one male reported obstacles related to financial restrictions. He did nothing because he saw the obstacle as something that he could not change.

The nature of the obstacles then would appear to be the primary reason for the approaches chosen rather than differences in the sex of the individuals.

How Do Female Administrators Feel About Being Women in Their Current Position?

In exploring female respondents' feelings about being women in their current positions, it was found that even though the respondents were now comfortable in their positions, they had previously had to face years of battle. Being a woman and having a career was difficult because of the difficulties of gaining legitimacy in the system and the difficulties of role-conflicts.

The importance of legitimacy and the difficulty to gain it were found in earlier studies (Highman, 1985; Ost & Twale, 1988). Female respondents, like those in the earlier studies, had to prove themselves and work harder that their male counterparts to gain the legitimacy. What made it more difficult was the lack of encouragement which other studies found to be important for those aspiring to an administrative career (Baughman, 1977; Drust, 1977; Shakeshaft, 1987).

This lack of encouragement is rooted in society's discomfort in seeing woman in high administrative position (Koswara, 1991). The existence of a double standard regarding family responsibilities which is subscribed to not only by society but also by the individual themselves (Burke, 1988; Koswara, 1991) could further confound this issue. The prevalent perception of women and their familial roles, in turn causes role conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Higgins, et al., 1992; Menteri Negara Urusan Peranan Wanita, 1991; Ornstein & Isabella, 1993).

This role-conflict experienced by female respondents was decreased with the help of their spouses and children. This is consistent with findings from Holahan & Gilbert's (1979) study, when the work role was equally important to both husband and wife, role conflict was low, relative to those couples with disparate work salience.

Role-conflicts experienced by female respondents is best described by Biklen (1980) who said of the difficulties of women attempting to succeed in traditionally male fields: either they are judged as competent and unfeminine or incompetent and feminine, a choice that puts two strong and interconnected identities in conflict.

Conclusions

The primary purpose of this study was to compare and contrast how men and women in similar senior administrative positions in higher education institutions perceived ideal characteristics for success in their positions, how they felt about those ideal characteristics compared to their own, and how they saw and managed obstacles faced in their current positions. Comparing and contrasting were also done based on positions ('academic' and 'administrative') and age. In addition, in order to investigate underrepresentation of women in senior administrative positions, this study also explored how female senior administrators felt about being women in their current positions.

In general, there were no differences in the sets of characteristics for effective administrators derived from male and female respondents. Nor were there differences in sets of characteristics derived from positions and age. Respondents agreed on characteristics perceived to be important for success in their positions. They saw the importance of characteristics related to appearance, ability, objectivity, emotional stability, work commitment, and interpersonal skills. These findings are consistent

with other studies (Angus, 1989;, Fullan, 1992; Heilman, 1989; Petrie, 1990; Smyth, 1989) concerning the characteristics for educational leaders.

However, there were differences in the priorities given to the characteristics as evidenced by the reported frequency of each characteristic. In the first 10-most frequently listed characteristics, male and female respondents differed in two characteristics. Female respondents stressed the necessity of speech fluency and originality/creativity, while male respondents stressed resourcefulness and pursuit of objectives. In part, these findings support a study by Brenner et al. (1988) which yielded different characteristics for men, women, and managers.

In the most frequently noted characteristics, there are only 2 of 8 characteristics used formally to evaluate government employees' performance for promotion purposes.

For obstacles faced in pursuing administrative careers, in general, these obstacles arose from self, system, and the interaction between self and system. Most obstacles were related to the system, which is consistent with the findings from previous studies. Boynton et al. (1994) stresses the importance of a information availability for decision making;

Argote et al. (1989) and Scott (1992) found the importance of communication network; Chao (1990) and Tremblay et al. (1992) found a relationship between promotion and commitment.

All obstacles faced by female respondents were also faced by male respondents except for one, negative perceptions toward women in administrative positions. In addition, they also differed in the priority assigned to obstacles which was reflected in the frequency reported for each obstacle. While both male and female respondents were concerned with obstacles related to the system, female respondents were more focussed on the existence of negative perceptions toward women in administrative positions and family responsibilities. This supports the findings of the Greenhaus et al. (1989) study which found that women experienced greater impact of work role salience on work-home conflict than did men.

The interviewed respondents, male and female, believed they possessed the necessary characteristics. These findings contradict findings from previous studies concerning females in terms of their lower capacity in adaptability (McCartney, 1989), independence (Heilbrun, 1973; Kohlberg, 1966; Singer, 1976), aggressiveness and assertiveness (Kagan, 1980),

decisiveness (Childress 1986, Foster, 1986), and self-confidence (Dix, 1987, Schein, 1975, Wiley & Elkinson, 1982).

However, some female respondents did not rate themselves very highly on the set of characteristics in the beginning of their administrative careers. Female respondents reported uneasiness in their communication ability. These findings support findings of a study by Tannen (1990) which examined differences in communication styles between males and females.

The interviewed respondents managed their obstacles according to the nature of the obstacles rather than the gender of the respondents. For obstacles which were believed to be unchangeable, respondents tried to just ignore them or move away to other places where the obstacles occurred less frequently. For obstacles perceived to be changeable, respondents did something, either to themselves, to the work-system, or to others.

In exploring female respondents' feelings about being women in their current positions, it was found that even though the respondents were now comfortable in their positions, they had previously had to face years of battle. Being a woman and having a career was difficult because of the difficulties of gaining

legitimacy in the system and the difficulties of role-conflicts. The difficulties in gaining legitimacy were reported in large corporations (Highman, 1985) as well as in higher education institutions (Ost & Twale, 1988). Role conflicts as experienced by female respondents were predicted by theorists (Kopelman et al., 1983) and proven in studies, whether it is work-family conflict in general (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Higgins, Duxburry, & Irving, 1992; Ornstein & Isabella, 1993) or more specifically in dual-career family (Backer 1985).

Limitations

Interviews for this study were conducted only in Jakarta and Bogor, at four higher education institutions: Universitas Indonesia (UI - University of Indonesia), Institut Keguruan dan Ilmu Pendidikan (IKIP - Institute for Teacher's Training), Universitas Terbuka (UT - Indonesian Open University), and Institut Pertanian Bogor (IPB - Bogor Institute of Agriculture). These four institutions are located around Jakarta, the capital city of Indonesia, which is probably more open and provides broader opportunities for women's involvement in the work-force, in general, and in higher education institutions, specifically.

Therefore, interviews conducted only in these two major cities limits the interpretation for the general population.

Nevertheless, the number of women senior administrators interviewed in these four institutions comprises 20% of all female senior administrators in Indonesia. Information from senior administrators in state higher education institutions located outside Jakarta and Bogor (the other 45 Institutions) was gathered by questionnaire.

Second, this study is limited in that it allowed subjects to present their own ideal sets of characteristics. It is possible that there may be some characteristics left out even though they may actually be thought to be important.

Third, this study only examined administrators' perceptions, but not necessarily the actual success or failure of an individual as an administrator.

Recommendations

Recommendations for Policy

Based on the results of this present study, some recommendations are suggested for government policies in higher education institutions, as follows:

1. Administrators in state higher education institutions in Indonesia are evaluated using 8 characteristics. Only 2 of the 8 characteristics are included in the 10 most frequently mentioned characteristics for administrators to effectively carry out their responsibilities. These results suggest that reconsideration of the characteristics used for evaluation is warranted. The basis of this review could be the 10 most frequently listed characteristics by senior administrative appointments: personal integrity, knowledge, judgment, nurturance, enthusiasm, objectivity, and administrative ability.

2. Family situations contributed to obstacles faced by senior administrators. Demands in the family combined with insufficient financial remuneration as senior administrators affected not only the senior administrators' job performance but also their integrity. It is proposed to increase extra-to-load allowance for senior administrators.

3. Organizational structure served as a major
    contribution to the obstacles faced by senior
    administrators in their career. Centralization
    causes dependency on the superstructure, which in
    turn slowed down the speed of work in the
    institutions. It is recommended that
    decentralization occur, where higher education
    institutions could focus on their SWOT (strengths,
    weaknesses, opportunities, and threats) to develop.

4. Promotion causes obstacles for senior
    administrators not only because of insufficient
    regulation but also because of subjectivity in the
    process. Instead of only separating academic and
    administrative promotions, it is suggested to
    differentiate promotion regulations into three
    groups: academic, administrative, and academic who
    are posted in administrative positions. In so
    doing, not only will the regulation sufficiently
    accommodate differences that exist in the nature of
    work for 'academic', 'administrative', and academic
    member members, but it will also increase the
    objectivity of the process.

Recommendations for Further Research

Based on the results of this study, some recommendations are suggested for further research as follows:

1. The sample of the present study was drawn from state higher education institutions from all Indonesia. However, only those posted in Jakarta and Bogor were interviewed for more detailed information. Further study is, therefore, suggested which would enlarge the population of the study to involve institutions outside Jakarta and Bogor. The comparison and contrasting could be based on the location of the institutions: Java and outside Java, or Western Indonesia and Eastern Indonesia.

2. Findings from this present study suggested no differences in male and female administrators as to characteristics for success in their positions. In addition, from eight characteristics used formally to evaluate candidates for promotion only two were included in the ten most frequently listed characteristics by respondents in the present study. It is suggested, therefore, to conduct

study to further investigate the relationship between the eight characteristics and the effectiveness of those who are promoted.

3. Findings from the present study revealed different sources of obstacles for male and female administrators. While both male and female administrators faced obstacles rooted in the organizational structure, females also faced obstacles related to their family situation and the fact that they are women. It is, then, necessary for further study not only to examine what it is in the system that prevents administrators from doing their best, but also to provide ways to deal with it.

4. A replication of the present study is recommended. Given the government's efforts to increase women's participation in higher education which have resulted in greater numbers of female graduates, and the examples provided by female role models in senior administrative positions, it is expected that there will be increasing numbers of female representatives in senior administrative positions in higher education institutions. It would be

useful to examine the same issues addressed in the present study in five years, to identify any differences.

5. A longitudinal study is recommended as a further step to the present study. The study should start with those males and females who aspire to administrative positions in higher education institutions. Over several years and several studies, then, it can be examined whether there will be a consistency in characteristics for effective administrators and in obstacles faced. The examination should include those who are successfully promoted to senior administrative positions, and those who were not promoted.

6. A comparison of issues addressed in the present study with those occurring in other government offices and private companies is recommended, since there has never been such a study. The result of the study might contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of male and female involvement in senior positions in Indonesia.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A
Questionnaire
(English version)

Directions: This questionnaire is designed to identify obstacles faced by senior administrator and to identify the characteristics of effective senior administrator in higher education institution. This questionnaire is focussed on the following four areas: personal information, professional information, characteristics perceived to be important, and obstacles faced. Please provide the information in the format request.

PART I: PERSONAL INFORMATION

Age   : _____

Sex   : _____

Religion : _____

Marital Status: Never Married . . . ( )
                  Divorced. . . . . . ( )
                  Widowed . . . . . . ( )
                  Now married . . . . ( )

Number of Marriages: _____

Spouse's Occupation: _____

Number of Children: _____   Age of Children: ___ , ___ ,

                                  ___ , ___ , ___ , ___ , ___ .

Father's education: _____

Mother's Education: _____

Number of siblings:

 Younger Brothers : _____   Older Brothers: _____

 Younger Sisters : _____   Older Sisters : _____

PART II. PROFESSIONAL INFORMATION

Degree Earned

    Doctorate: No . . . ( )
                   Yes. . . ( )

                Institution Granting Degree:

                _____

                Type of Institution: Public . . . . ( )
                                  Private . . . . ( )
                Major: _____

    Master's: No . . . ( )
                   Yes. . . ( )

                If yes, type of degree:
                    MA . . . ( )   MBA. . . ( )
                    MEd. . . ( )
                    Other (specify) . . . ( )

                Institution Granting Degree:

                _____

                Type of Institution: Public . . . . ( )
                                    Private. . . . ( )
                Major: _____

Baccalaureate: No . . . ( )
               Yes. . . ( )

                If yes, type of degree:
                    DRS. . . ( )   IR . . . ( )
                    Other (specify) . . . ( )

                Institution Granting Degree:

                _____

                Type of Institution: Public . . . ( )
                                    Private. . . ( )
                Major: _____

Previous Experience
Positions held in Higher Education.
Chronologically, beginning with the first position, indicate the office you have. If you changed institutions but kept the same title, please make separate entries for each position occupied.

Position Chronology	Position	Years in Position	Type of Institution
1	_____	_____	_____
2	_____	_____	_____
3	_____	_____	_____
4	_____	_____	_____
5	_____	_____	_____
6	_____	_____	_____
7	_____	_____	_____
8	_____	_____	_____
9	_____	_____	_____
10	_____	_____	_____
11	_____	_____	_____
12	_____	_____	_____

Total Years in Higher Education Administration: _____

Total Years of Experience Outside Higher Education: _____

Current Position

Years in Current Position: _____

Rank: _____

Scholarly Activity

Number of Books Published: _____

Approximate number of Article in Referred Journal: _____

Approximate Number of professional Organization
Membership: _____

Two Professional Organization in which You Participate
frequently:

Organization #1: _____

_____

Office(s) Held : _____

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Organization #2: _____

_____

Office(s) Held : _____

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PART III. CHARACTERISTICS OF AN EFFECTIVE SENIOR ADMINISTRATOR

Please list down all necessary characteristics of effective
administrator in your current position.
Use separate paper if the provided space is not enough.

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PART IV.   OBSTACLES IN PURSUING ADMINISTRATIVE CAREER

Please list down obstacles you faced in moving upward in
administrative positions.   Use separate paper if the provided
space is not enough.

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Apendix B
Kuesioner
(Indonesian version)

PETUNJUK: Kuesioner ini didesain untuk mengidentifikasikan
karakter yaNg idealnya dimiliki oleh Pejabat di
institusi perguruan tinggi agar sukses dalam
menjalankan pekerjaannya. Disamping itu, kuesioner
ini mencoba untuk mengidentifikasikan kendala yang
dihadapi dalam meniti karir struktural di institusi
perguruan tinggi.
Kuesioner ini dibagi menjadi empat bagian:
(1) informasi pribadi, (2) informasi profesional,
(3) karakter ideal pejabat, dan (4) kendala yang
dihadapi.
Mohon mengisi informasi yang dibutuhkan sesuai dengan
format yang disediakan.

BAGIAN I. INFORMASI PRIBADI

U m u r   : _____

Jenis Kelamin   : _____

A g a m a   : _____

Status Perkawinan   :   Bujangan ( )
                        Cerai   ( )
                        Kawin   ( )

Jumlah Perkawinan   : _____

Pekerjaan Suami/ Istri : _____

Jumlah Anak   : _____   Umur Anak: ___, ___, ___, ___,

                                         ___, ___, ___, ___.

Pendidikan Orang Tua:
Pendidikan Tertinggi Ayah : _____

Pendidikan Tertinggi Ibu : _____

Jumlah Saudara:
     Kakak Laki-laki: _____ orang   Adik laki-laki: _____ orang

     Kakak Perempuan: _____ orang   Adik Perempuan: _____ orang

BAGIAN II: INFORMASI PROFESIONAL

Pengalaman Kerja

Jabatan yang pernah dan masih dipegang di institusi
perguruan tinggi.
Secara kronologis, dimulai dengan jabatan pertama, mohon
tuliskan jabatan-jabatan yang pernah dipegang. Jika Anda
pindah institusi tetapi tetap memegang jabatan yang sama,
mohon pisahkan penulisannya.

Kronologis	Jabatan	Lama menjabat (Tahun)	Type Institusi (Negri/Swasta)
1			
2			
3			
4			
5			
6			
7			
8			
9			
10			
11			
12			

Lama bekerja di administrasi/manajemen perguruan tinggi: _____
tahun

Lama bekerja di luar institusi perguruan tinggi: _____ tahun

Aktivitas Ilmiah

Jumlah buku ilmiah yang pernah diterbitkan: _____ buah

Jumlah, kira-kira. artikel yang pernah diterbitkan dalam Jurnal
Profesi/Ilmiah: _____ buah

Jumlah Organisasi Profesi yang diikuti: _____ buah

Sebutkan 2 (dua) buah Organisasi Profesi dimana Anda paling
sering terlibat:
    1. Organisasi #1: _____

        Kantor di   : _____

    2. Organisasi #2: _____

        Kantor di   : _____

Gelar yang dimiliki

    S3: Tidak ( )
        Ya   ( )
        Institusi pemberi gelar:

        _____

        Major: _____

    S2: Tidak ( )
        Ya   ( )
        Jika "Ya", gelarnya: _____

        Institusi pemberi gelar:

        _____

        Major: _____

    S1: Tidak ( )
        Ya   ( )
        Jika "Ya", gelarnya: _____

        Institusi pemberi gelar:

        _____

        Major: _____

BAGIAN III. KARAKTER IDEAL BAGI PEJABAT DI PERGURUAN TINGGI

Mohon tuliskan semus karakter/sifat yang Anda pikir idealnya dimiliki oleh pejabat pada posisi yang Anda jabat saat ini, agar dapat efektif dalam menjalankan tugas.
Gunakan halaman tambahan jika halaman yang disediakan tidak mencukupi.

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BAGIAN IV. KENDALA YANG DIHADAPI DALAM MENITI KARIR STRUKTURAL DI PERGURUAN TINGGI

Mohon tuliskan semua kendala dan hambatan yang Anda hadapi dalam meniti karir struktural di Peguran Tinggi.
Gunakan halaman tambahan jika halaman yang disediakan tidak mencukupi.

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Appendix C
Guidance for Interview

Part I.   Introduction

Discussion of purpose, format, and confidentiality of the interview.

Part II.   Characteristics of Effective Administrator

1.   Why are those characteristics necessary for effective administrator?
2.   Are those characteristics gender related?
     Did the subject picture specific gender when listing the characteristics?
        If yes, why?
        If no, why?
3.   Will the characteristics be different if the gender of the effective administrator's mentioned?
        If yes, why?
        If no, why?

Part III. Self-rating on the set of Characteristics

1.   How does the subject rate her/himself in the set of effective characteristics?
        Does the subject feel comfortable?
2.   How does the subject see him/herself in his/her current position?
3.   Does the subject think that she/he is in the right place?
        Why?

Part IV. Obstacles Faced in Pursuing Administrative Career

1.   How does the subject see/perceive the obstacles?
        Why?
2.   How does the administrator deal with the obstacles?

Part V.   Interview Wrap-up

I would like to thank you for your time and assistance in this interview. Before closing, are there any additional comments, impressions, or concerns you would like to address about these issues.

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Appendix D
Father Education by Sex

Cate- gory	Educational Level	Male		Female		Total	
		n	%	n	%	n	%
0	No education	35	16.0	1	.5	36	16.4
1	Some primary	22	10.0	0	.0	22	10.0
2	Primary	50	22.8	7	3.2	57	26.0
3	Some secondary	10	4.6	0	.0	10	4.6
4	Secondary	29	13.2	5	2.3	34	15.5
5	Some tertiary	1	.5	1	.5	2	.9
6	Diploma	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0
7	Bachelor	32	14.6	4	1.8	36	16.4
8	Master	8	3.7	0	.0	8	3.7
9	Doctoral	14	6.4	0	.0	14	6.4
	Total	201	91.8	18	8.2	219	100

Appendix E
Mother Education by Sex

Cate-gory	Educational Level	Male		Female		Total	
		n	%	n	%	n	%
0	No education	49	22.6	1	.5	50	23.0
1	Some primary	27	12.4	3	1.4	30	13.8
2	Primary	48	22.1	7	3.2	55	25.3
3	Some secondary	14	6.5	3	1.4	17	7.8
4	Secondary	42	19.4	2	.9	44	20.3
5	Some tertiary	6	2.8	0	.0	6	2.8
6	Diploma	9	4.1	0	.0	9	4.1
7	Bachelor	8	3.7	1	.5	9	4.1
8	Master	1	.5	0	.0	1	.5
9	Doctoral	0	.0	1	.5	1	.5
	Total	199	91.7	18	8.3	217	100

Appendix F
Number of Professional Organization's Membership

Number of	Academic		Administrative		Total	
Organization	n	%	n	%	n	%
0	9	4.4	13	6.4	22	10.8
1	35	17.2	8	3.9	43	21.2
2	62	30.5	7	3.4	69	34.0
3	31	15.3	5	2.5	36	17.7
4	21	10.3	1	.5	22	10.8
5	5	2.5	0	.0	5	2.5
6	3	1.5	0	.0	3	1.5
8	1	.5	0	.0	1	.5
9	2	1.0	0	.0	2	1.0
Total	169	83.3	34	16.7	203	100

Appendix G
Characteristics of Effective Administrators in Higher Education Institutions
by Position

Characteristics	'Academic'	'Administrative'	Total
I. Self			
A. Appearance			
1. Appearance	18	5	23
2. Attractiveness	1	-	1
B. Ability			
1. Intelligence	39	4	43
2. Knowledge	99	19	118
3. Fluency of speech	41	11	52
4. Adaptability	13	5	18
5. Originality, Creativity	38	10	48
C. Objectivity			
1. Judgment	76	19	95
2. Independence, Non-conformity	27	5	32
3. Objectivity	61	15	76
4. Personal integrity, Ethical conduct	115	22	37
5. Resourcefulness	34	12	46
D. Emotional Stability			
1. Adjustment	21	5	26
2. Aggressiveness, Assertiveness, Alertness	12	3	15
3. Enthusiasm	62	18	80
4. Extroversion	5	1	6
5. Self-confidence	25	4	29
6. Strength of conviction	6	1	7
7. Tolerance of stress	20	13	33
II. System			
A. Work Commitment			
1. Achievement drive, Desire to excel	2	-	2
2. Drive for responsibility	13	2	15
3. Enterprise, Initiative	36	10	46
4. Persistence against obstacles	17	6	23
5. Responsible in pursuit of objective	34	5	39
6. Task oriented	15	4	19
III.Interaction between Self and System			
A. Self directed			
1. Ability to enlist cooperation	30	6	36
2. Administrative ability	59	12	71
3. Nurturance	63	22	85
4. Sociability, Interpersonal skills	30	5	35
5. Diplomacy	84	17	101
B. Other directed			
1. Prestige	17	6	23
2. Social participation	14	1	15

Appendix H
Characteristics of Effective Administrators in Higher Education Institutions
by Sex

Characteristics	Male	Female	Total
I. Self			
A. Appearance			
1. Appearance	20	3	23
2. Attractiveness	1	-	1
B. Ability			
1. Intelligence	39	4	43
2. Knowledge	105	13	118
3. Fluency of speech	49	3	52
4. Adaptability	15	3	18
5. Originality, Creativity	47	1	48
C. Objectivity			
1. Judgment	86	9	95
2. Independence, Non-conformity	29	3	32
3. Objectivity	68	8	76
4. Personal integrity, Ethical conduct	123	14	137
5. Resourcefulness	41	5	46
D. Emotional Stability			
1. Adjustment	25	1	26
2. Aggressiveness, Assertiveness, Alertness	14	1	15
3. Enthusiasm	71	9	80
4. Extroversion	5	1	6
5. Self-confidence	27	2	29
6. Strength of conviction	6	1	7
7. Tolerance of stress	29	4	33
II. System			
A. Work Commitment			
1. Achievement drive, Desire to excel	2	-	2
2. Drive for responsibility	14	1	14
3. Enterprise, Initiative	42	4	46
4. Persistence against obstacles	19	4	23
5. Responsible in pursuit of objective	34	9	43
6. Task oriented	19	-	19
III.Interaction between Self and System			
A. Self directed			
1. Ability to enlist cooperation	32	4	36
2. Administrative ability	61	10	71
3. Nurturance	78	7	85
4. Sociability, Interpersonal skills	33	2	35
5. Diplomacy	95	6	101
B. Other directed			
1. Prestige	20	3	23
2. Social participation	11	4	15

Appendix I
Characteristics of Effective Administrators in Higher Education Institutions
by Age

Characteristics	<50	50-60	>60	Total
I. Self				
A. Appearance				
1. Appearance	10	12	1	23
2. Attractiveness	1	-	-	1
B. Ability				
1. Intelligence	14	27	2	43
2. Knowledge	44	62	12	118
3. Fluency of speech	21	27	4	52
4. Adaptability	7	11	-	18
5. Originality, Creativity	13	32	3	48
C. Objectivity				
1. Judgment	35	52	8	95
2. Independence, Non-conformity	14	15	3	32
3. Objectivity	21	46	9	76
4. Personal integrity, Ethical conduct	45	76	16	137
5. Resourcefulness	12	31	3	46
D. Emotional Stability				
1. Adjustment	7	16	3	26
2. Aggressiveness, Assertiveness, Alertness	6	9	-	15
3. Enthusiasm	28	45	7	80
4. Extroversion	2	4	-	
5. Self-confidence	11	16	2	29
6. Strength of conviction	3	4	-	7
7. Tolerance of stress	5	24	4	33
II. System				
A. Work Commitment				
1. Achievement drive, Desire to excel	2	-	-	2
2. Drive for responsibility	4	10	1	15
3. Enterprise, initiative	14	28	4	46
4. Persistence against obstacles	5	17	1	23
5. Responsible in pursuit of objective	13	21	5	39
6. Task oriented	7	11	1	19
III.Interaction between Self and System				
A. Self directed				
1. Ability to enlist cooperation	13	19	4	36
2. Administrative ability	21	43	7	71
3. Nurturance	24	53	8	85
4. Sociability, Interpersonal skills	9	22	4	35
5. Diplomacy	33	57	11	101
B. Other directed				
1. Prestige	6	15	2	23
2. Social participation	7	6	2	15

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Appendix J
Obstacles Faced by Administrators in Pursuing Administrative Careers
in Higher Education Institutions by Position

Obstacles	'Academic'	'Administrative'	Total
I. Self			
A. Family-related			
1. Parenting responsibilities	15	1	16
2. Financial problems	14	1	15
B. Emotional stability			
1. Difficulties in maintaining personal integrity	8	-	8
2. Difficulties to adapt new situation	4	-	4
3. Emotional imbalance	4	-	4
4. Lack of aggressivity	7	2	9
5. Lack of discipline	7	1	8
6. Lack of initiative	2	1	3
C. Technical			
1. Age limitation	5	-	5
2. Difficulties in academic advancement	9	2	11
3. Lack of communication skills	7	2	9
4. Lack of experience	5	2	7
5. Time limit in one position	39	7	46
II. System			
A. Organization structure			
1. Bureaucracy	19	7	26
2. Centralized system	5	2	7
3. Conservatism	2	-	2
4. Ineffective communication network	26	7	33
5. Ineffective organizational structure	47	5	52
B. Promotion			
1. Academic vs administrative requirements	6	3	9
2. Insufficient regulation	24	7	31
3. Lack of objectivity	23	6	29
4. Lack of rewards & recognition	10	6	16
5. Lack of job rotation	2	-	2
6. 'Primordialism', Nepotism, Religion	25	3	28
C. Politics			
1. Political factor	-	8	8
D. Support system			
1. Lack of training & education	16	-	16
2. Lack of support facilities	37	8	45
III. Interaction between Self and System			
A. Colleagues & subordinates			
1. Diversity of character	19	4	23
2. Negative perception toward women	5	2	7
3. Professional jealousy	9	8	17
B. Superior			
1. Interference, Pressure	20	5	25
2. Hindrance	13	1	14

Appendix K
Obstaclesx Faced by Administrators in Pursuing Administrative Careers
in Higher Education Institutions by Sex

Obstacles	Male	Female	Total
I. Self			
A. Family-related			
1. Parenting responsibilities	11	5	16
2. Financial problems	15	-	15
B. Emotional stability			
1. Difficulties in maintaining personal integrity	8	-	8
2. Difficulties to adapt new situation	4	-	4
3. Emotional imbalance	4	-	4
4. Lack of aggressivity	8	1	9
5. Lack of discipline	7	1	8
6. Lack of initiative	3	-	3
C. Technical			
1. Age limitation	4	1	5
2. Difficulties in academic advancement	10	1	11
3. Lack of communication skills	9	-	9
4. Lack of experience	6	1	7
5. Time limit in one position	43	3	46
II. System			
A. Organization structure			
1. Bureaucracy	22	4	26
2. Centralized system	6	1	7
3. Conservatism	2	-	2
4. Ineffective communication network	28	5	33
5. Ineffective organizational structure	51	1	52
B. Promotion			
1. Academic vs administrative requirements	8	1	9
2. Insufficient regulation	27	4	31
3. Lack of objectivity	28	1	29
4. Lack of rewards & recognition	16	-	16
5. Lack of job rotation	2	-	2
6. 'Primordialism', Nepotism, Religion	27	1	28
C. Politics			
1. Political factor	8	-	8
D. Support system			
1. Lack of training & education	15	1	16
2. Lack of support facilities	40	5	45
III. Interaction between Self and System			
A. Colleagues & subordinates			
1. Diversity of character	20	3	23
2. Negative perception toward women	-	7	7
3. Professional jealousy	17	-	17
B. Superior			
1. Interference, Pressure	24	1	25
2. Hindrance	14	-	14

Appendix L
Obstacles Faced by Administrators in Pursuing Administrative Careers
in Higher Education Institutions by Age

Obstacles	<50	50-60	>60	Total
I. Self				
A. Family-related				
1. Parenting responsibilities	5	9	2	16
2. Financial problems	3	1	1	151
B. Emotional stability				
1. Difficulties in maintaining personal integrity	1	6	1	8
2. Difficulties to adapt new situation	1	3	-	4
3. Emotional imbalance	1	3	-	4
4. Lack of aggressivity	1	7	1	9
5. Lack of discipline	1	6	1	8
6. Lack of initiative	1	2	-	3
C. Technical				
1. Age limitation	1	2	2	5
2. Difficulties in academic advancement	4	6	1	11
3. Lack of communication skills	2	7	-	9
4. Lack of experience	1	6	-	7
5. Time limit in one position	14	28	4	46
II. System				
A. Organizational structure				
1. Bureaucracy	8	16	2	26
2. Centralized system	4	3	-	7
3. Conservatism	2	2	-	2
4. Ineffective communication network	11	20	2	33
5. Ineffective organizational structure	16	30	6	52
B. Promotion				
1. Academic vs administrative requirements	4	4	1	9
2. Insufficient regulation	9	19	3	31
3. Lack of objectivity	10	17	2	29
4. Lack of rewards & recognition	8	8	-	16
5. Lack of job rotation	1	-	1	2
6. 'Primordialism', Nepotism, Religion	10	18	-	28
C. Politics				
1. Political factor	2	4	2	8
D. Support system				
1. Lack of training & education	9	7	-	16
2. Lack of support facilities	14	30	1	45
III. Interaction between Self and System				
A. Colleagues & subordinates				
1. Diversity of character	5	16	2	23
2. Negative perception toward women	-	7	-	7
3. Professional jealousy	7	10	-	17
B. Superior				
1. Interference, Pressure	5	16	4	25
2. Hindrance	6	8	-	14

VITA

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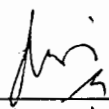## Honours and Awards:

CIDA Scholarship   1988
CIDA scholarship   1991-1994

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Title of Dissertation: <u>An examination of role perceptions of senior administrators in state higher education institutions in Indonesia</u>

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December 5, 1994
(Date)