A Woman With a Plan: Recognizing Competencies for Ascent to Administration in Higher Education

Paaige K. Turner
Associate Vice President
International and Academic Affairs
Associate Professor
Department of Communication
Saint Louis University

Kristen Norwood
Postdoctoral Research Fellow
Office of Academic Affairs
Saint Louis University

Charlotte Noe
Adjunct Professor of Speech
Oakton Community College
Account Coordinator
Summit Group, LLC

Despite progress, women are still disproportionally underrepresented in leadership positions in higher education. Women must contend with a glass ceiling, which we argue is constituted by discourses of impossibility and femininity. These discourses discourage women from recognizing their qualifications, continuing to develop skills, and making a plan that would position them to obtain leadership positions in colleges and universities. Although the problem has been articulated before, little practical information is offered to help women navigate it. To rectify this, we identify and outline competencies needed for advancement in higher education and suggest strategies for recognizing, tracking, and developing relevant skills.

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Paaige Turner, turnerp@slu.edu.

Aspiring women leaders need an understanding of the problems that keep them from advancing, an awareness of the competencies needed for administration, practical tactics for acquiring such proficiencies, and a sense that their goals are attainable. In sum, they need a plan.

At the 2009 Missouri Regional American Council on Education (ACE): Office of Women in Higher Education conference, Dr. Jann Weitzel, Provost and Vice President of Academic Affairs, Lindenwood University, turned to the audience of approximately 100 female administrators and asked them to describe how they had laid out a plan to achieve current or future professional positions. There was absolute silence. She then asked, "How many of you plan?" Only three hands went up. In the discussion that followed the dominant theme was that women found their positions either by accident or personal invitation. These bright, successful women expressed doubts that they were truly qualified for the position, said they felt like imposters, or that they didn't have what it takes (see the *imposter phenomenon*, Clance & Imes, 1978). When asked what it takes, there was more silence.

Although some progress has been made in the last few decades, women (and People of Color) are still disproportionally underrepresented in senior leadership positions in higher education (ACE, 2007; Athey, Avery, & Zemsky, 2000; Christman & McLellan, 2008). Women are repeatedly told by colleagues, supervisors, and professional and popular media that they will face challenges that are almost insurmountable. Although the disproportional representation of women in higher education demonstrates these challenges are real, women's propensity to respond is undercut by the discourses of impossibility and femininity. Women must navigate these discourses with little guidance for how to develop and articulate their competencies to themselves and others. In this article, we identify key competencies needed for advancement in higher education, offer strategies for their development and for creating advancement opportunities (see Table 1), and provide a tool that women can use to assess their capability for advanced positions (see Appendix A), as well as a list of helpful resources for information and assessment (see Appendix B). In offering this information we do not mean to suggest that women are not operating within a system that is biased against them or that a simple increase in the numbers of women in leadership positions remedies the problem, as this does not address the underlying structures that create and sustain the unfair system (Buzzanell, 1995). Instead, we offer guidance for women who want to prepare themselves for leadership and a means by which they can come to recognize and value what they bring to administration.

Table 1

Strategies for Advancement at a Glance

Recognize, Track, and Develop Your Skills	Recognize skills you have already, track skill development, and identify skills that need work. Every three to six months, record any projects (personal or professional) with which you are involved and identify the competencies you developed or demonstrated. Review the list annually, identifying areas that need growth so that you can request or accept useful assignments.
Take on Relevant and Challenging Assignments	Seek out opportunities that provide new experiences and can help you expand an existing competency, like • a leadership role on faculty or staff advisory committees; • a leadership role in your professional organization; • a leadership role in a community or institutional fundraiser; • a leadership role in policy or curriculum reform; and • chairing or heading your division, even if only temporarily. (Interim positions can provide learning opportunities without permanent commitment or high risk!)
Make Important Connections	Find a mentor—a consistent resource for support and information is crucial. It builds bonds with other women and men in administration or those who hope to get there.
Be Your Own Advocate	Sponsorship is advantageous for women, but do not be afraid to apply for a position without it. Let relevant parties know that you are interested in promotion and in administrative assignments and roles. Ask mentors and colleagues to keep you in mind for open positions.
Get Familiar With the Job You Want	Job-shadow an administrator. Ask the person about advancement and about the daily responsibilities and challenges he or she faces. Utilize written resources: read books and articles about management in higher education; know your institution's policies, structures, vision, etc.; and learn about trends in higher education.

Understanding the Problem

Women are continually presented with a discourse of impossibility that both describes and replicates the reality they face and reinforces their doubts about the possibility of ascent. A discourse is a macro level arrangement of meanings that creates cultural and historical frames for understanding a social reality (Harré, 1979). Discourses tell us what is important, what to pay attention to, what to dismiss, and what is possible. These meanings are very real symbolic formations that shape and constitute our everyday lives. It is in everyday communicative practices that cultural discourses are performed, recreated, sustained, and altered (Foucault, 1980). The discourse of impossibility is reflected, produced, and reinforced by the disproportional number of men and women in high-level administration.

The number of women in senior positions at colleges and universities is noticeably unbalanced not only in relation to men, but also in relation to the number of women who earn college degrees, as well as the number of women in faculty positions (ACE, 2007; Corrigan, 2002; Dean, 2009; Ross & Green, 2000). In 2008, Bilen-Green, Froelich, and Jacobson examined 221 doctoral-granting institutions and found that only 14% of them had a female president and only 25% of the provosts or deans were women. Overall, the number of women in leadership is highest in traditionally female fields, like nursing and education, and at smaller schools and two-year institutions (Dugger, 2001); and lower at religious, public, and land-grant research institutions (Cejda, Bush, & Rewey, 2002). Women in the academy "continue to experience bias in the hiring process; inequitable workloads, salaries, and resources; and limited opportunities for professional development and advancement" (Dean, Bracken, & Allen, 2009, p. 2).

A woman looking upward in higher education cannot help but see that she is looking through a glass ceiling through which few may pass. "The concept of a glass ceiling is generally viewed as a set of impediments and/or barriers to career advancement for women and people of color" (Jackson & O'Callaghan, 2009, p. 460). Gender scholars have long argued that gender is not simply a part of organizational life, but fundamental to the ways organizations are built and operated (Acker, 1990; Britton, 2000; Mumby & Ashcraft, 2006). Acker (1990) argues that masculinity anchors the values and expectations of organizations, necessarily positioning women as outsiders within, and higher education is no exception. Moreover, leadership is a particularly gendered construct (Billing & Alvesson, 2000). Because men have historically dominated leadership positions, our perceptions of leader are associated with

men (Collinson & Hearn, 1996). Perceptions of good leadership are steeped in traditional masculine characteristics of "command and control, of autocracy and dominance, of personal power and charisma, decisiveness, initiative and courage," which women are presumed not to have (Middlehurst, 1997, p. 14). Alternative forms of leadership that may reflect more traditionally feminine characteristics (servant, transformational) may be devalued.

As a social construct, the glass ceiling tells women that it is impossible to advance because they do not have what is needed to progress beyond a certain level. Interwoven with this discourse of impossibility are traditional meanings of femininity that inhibit women from recognizing, articulating, and developing the skills that can crack the ceiling by negating its very right to exist or that can help women pass through it by reframing perceptions of leadership for themselves and others. Femininity consists of a set of assumptions about and expectations for women's behaviors, speech, interests, skills, emotions, and desires (Wood, 2006). Femininity is constructed in opposition to masculinity, so that what is expected of women is usually the opposite of what is expected of men (Maltz & Borker, 1982). Eagly and Carli (2007) describe the roles for men and women as agentic and communal, respectively. They explain

> *Communal* associations convey a concern with the compassionate treatment of others. Women elicit communal associations of being especially affectionate, helpful, friendly, kind, and sympathetic as well as interpersonally sensitive, gentle, and soft-spoken. In contrast, *agentic* associations convey assertion and control. Men elicit agentic associations of being especially aggressive, ambitious, dominant, self-confident, and forceful as well as self-reliant and individualistic. (p. 86)

Working from the assumptions that both organizations and leadership are built on masculinity, it is not difficult to see why a glass ceiling exists for women. In order to succeed, women must act like men, but when they do so negative perceptions and criticisms often ensue since they have violated the expectations of femininity (Rudman & Glick, 2001). For women, being caught between expectations for femininity and performance expectations associated with masculinity creates a "double bind, a behavioral norm that creates a no-win situation no matter what" (Oakley, 2000, p. 324). Not only is it clear that women face difficulty negotiating gendered behaviors at work, it is also clear women's perceptions of themselves and their abilities may be influenced by the discourse of femininity. Women may be hesitant to recognize, value, and champion the talents they have that would position them for advancement since for the most part, these are not talents for which they are lauded or

encouraged to develop. Further, they may neglect to make a plan for advancement to administration, even if they desire to make the move, since femininity discourages assertive action and encourages women to wait for someone to notice their talents and potential (Babcock & Laschever, 2003).

The challenge women face is a double helix that is created by the discourses of impossibility and femininity, each twisting around and reinforcing the other. The resulting message women are getting is this: It is very unlikely that you will be successful in higher education administration, but to be successful requires that you actively work to develop specific skills and show others that you have them—yet as a woman you probably should not do so, lest you face the consequences of violating feminine expectations. These contradictions can create a frustrating conundrum for women who desire to lead in the academy. One means for countering such messages is for women to develop a plan of action that includes recognizing and developing competencies in knowledge and skills necessary for upper-level administrative positions, as well as to engage in strategies that will facilitate ascension and foster success, all while recognizing that they face a unique situation as women.

Getting Prepared and Taking Action

To help women counter these discourses and create a plan of action we provide an overview of key competencies; strategies for developing competencies and creating opportunities; and a *Planning for the Future Worksheet* (Appendix A) that women can use to chart the skills they already have, track the growth of new skills, and identify areas in need of development. The key competencies are Leadership, Communication, Business Knowledge and Skill, Knowledge of the Industry, and Balancing Life Responsibilities. We have gathered the information for these competencies and their components from research on leadership and academic leadership, and from personal and professional conversations with successful women leaders.

Leadership

Leading in an academic institution may be more complicated than leading in other organizations. Although academic institutions were originally founded on ideals of academic freedom and personal accountability, colleges and universities are now geared toward mass education—with higher enrollments, greater competition, more governmental control, and fewer resources—leading to a shift from collegial to managerial structures (Yielder & Codling, 2004).

Leading in an environment with both academic and corporate elements can be challenging. Professors who become administrators will face challenges separating themselves from their roles as faculty members in order to make decisions that do not overly rely upon allegiance to colleagues and traditional values of the academy (Doyle Walton & McDade, 2001; Hoppe, 2003). Conversely, those who begin their careers as staff or administrators may be asked to demonstrate knowledge of the academic facets of the institution, as well as empathy for faculty. An administrator would do well to have established credibility in her own field before taking on a leadership role, given the need to work both within and across operational and academic units. For academic leadership, women should consider how they can develop or have developed the following skills.

Vision. Creating a vision for those you lead is important (Garman, Butler, & Brinkmeyer, 2006). A vision is a statement telling where the university, program, or department is headed. A compelling vision creates a sense of purpose, and an effective leader encourages followers' commitment to it (Shockley-Zalabak, 2006). Both short- and long-term goals should accompany a vision. To be led effectively, subordinates must know what they are working towards. Objectives should be specific and measurable, challenging yet reachable. Further, a leader should keep followers committed to the goal by outlining an action plan of goals and rewards and supplying all necessary resources for reaching the goal (Locke & Latham, 1990). Establishing a vision does not have to be an individual effort, so do not hesitate to seek input from team members. Others are likely to be more committed to a vision if they help to devise it.

The first step in developing this aspect of the leadership competency is to recognize the visioning, goal-setting, and planning in which you already engage. Everyday each of us contemplates the future and sets goals for projects, ranging from grading papers to reallocating a budget. Beyond this, we recommend volunteering to lead one or more projects from conception to completion. This can be done at multiple levels of the organization—for example, in leading policy or curriculum reform in your unit, chairing a college or university committee, or planning a conference for your professional organization. The most significant development will come with reflection upon and application of the lessons you learn from these experiences. Once a project is complete, ask yourself: What was the vision? How was the goal reached? What resources were in place? How were goals and strategies communicated? What motivated team members? If you cannot articulate answers, you may wish to revisit and improve your process.

Decision making and problem resolution. Administration requires effective, daily decision making, which entails "good judgment, fundamental fairness, reasonableness, precedent, consistency, and common sense" (Jenkins, 2003, p. 73). To achieve these for a given decision process, an administrator would do well to (a) gather accurate information from the best sources, including legal ramifications of the decision; (b) outline the pros and cons of each option; (c) examine precedent in an analogous situation and the precedent the present decision may establish; (d) consult, when appropriate, the campus attorney and supervisor; (e) and determine the sound rationale behind the final decision (Jenkins, 2003, p. 74). Resolving problems requires reactive rather than proactive decision making and may be prompted by "some immediate disturbance of work, an accident . . . an unusual request by higher management . . . handling some types of people problems. . . ." (Yukl, 1989, p. 138). When decisions need to be made quickly in response to problems, managers often fail to use systematic or logical analysis to discern the cause of the issue resulting in ineffective solutions (Kepner & Tregoe, 1981). It is best to strike a balance between orderly and quick decision making by engaging in an abridged version of the decision-making steps described above (Yukl, 1989).

Women tend to avoid conflict and also undervalue their contributions to decisions and resolutions (Chusmir & Mills, 1989). Putting yourself in positions where you will be faced with making decisions and solving problems is integral for development. It is best to take on developmental roles that test leadership capability and performance (Ohlott, 1998). New assignments "provide an opportunity to assess strengths or deficiencies, creativity, and tolerance for ambiguity. They can also be a test of decision making, conflict resolution, and interpersonal skills" (Hoppe, 2003, p. 8). Familiarizing yourself with a decision model and your decision style will help you to be aware of your usual approach and alternatives that may be effective in diverse situations.

Flexibility and integration of leadership styles. There is a cultural bias towards leadership styles perceived as traditionally masculine, yet research suggests that selecting your leadership style based upon the context and players can provide better outcomes (Hersey & Blanchard, 1977). High-level administrators report that besides appropriate academic or professional credibility, all academic leaders need to have "openness, honesty, the need to consult others, the ability to think broadly/strategically, and [the ability] to engage with people" (Spendlove, 2007, pp. 411–412) all of which are characteristic of the *transformational* leadership style (Bass, 1990; Gardiner, 2006). Equally important, though, are the components discussed above: long-range planning, problem resolution, and decision making. The most successful leaders integrate styles,

have a vision, set goals, engage others, are reflective, resolve problems and make effective decisions without always seeking permission (Eagly & Carli, 2007).

To bolster your leadership skills, you should first assess your past and current leadership approach. Familiarity with leadership theory (see Northouse, 2010) will aid in your self-assessment, allowing you to recognize different tendencies and actions that make up your approach(es). With this suggestion, we offer a word of caution. Much of the literature on gender and leadership starts with the assumption that men and women have different ways of leading (Billing & Alvesson, 2000), and some even argue that feminine styles are more effective than masculine (Eagly, 2007). While this may seem like a means for closing the leadership gap, the focus on gendered styles only reinforces the gendered nature of leadership, positioning men and women as essentially different. This creates expectations for sex-appropriate behavior and opportunities for criticizing behavior that deviates (Billig & Alvesson, 2000).

Once you have evaluated your own leadership approach, you can identify elements to incorporate or eliminate, keeping in mind that you should not calcify one particular style, as the most effective leaders are adaptive. A good way to become flexible is to vary the leadership experiences you undertake. Volunteer for what seem like uncomfortable opportunities, because working in new territory will likely foster development of fresh skills (Madsen, 2008). When you do so, be sure that you also identify an appropriate support network that can help you navigate unfamiliar territory. For example, if you are going to be working on budget matters, identify an individual with a finance background with whom you can discuss your plan. Also, seek feedback from those who you are leading and have led so you can continually assess your style.

Leadership programs. The final strategy for developing this competency is to participate in workshops, forums, and seminars geared toward educational leadership. In Madsen's (2008) interviews with 10 female presidents of colleges and universities, leadership development programs were mentioned as important and influential for their success. The women cited advantages like, "increased confidence . . . personal and professional growth and development, and broadened contextual understanding of management in higher education" (p. 195). The ACE Office of Women in Higher Education holds leadership development programs, including national leadership forums for the advancement of women leaders. At these workshops university and college presidents work with women who aspire to obtain administrative positions. Similarly, NASPA–Student Affairs Administrators in Higher Education has a Center for Women that provides professional development programs for women at all career levels.

Communication

Communication skills are essential to administrative effectiveness. Although communication is often simplified as public speaking and writing skills, communication is the mode by which we construct meanings about ourselves, others, and our world. Communication constitutes interpersonal skill, identity performance, interpersonal influence, and relating (Carl & Duck, 2004; Craig, 1999). To be perceived as a competent communicator is to be seen by others as both effective and appropriate (Spitzberg, 2000). First, being familiar with the specific culture of an institution will help administrators to communicate more effectively with others (Garman et al., 2006). Second, administrators should cultivate the following proficiencies: emotional intelligence, listening, conflict management, team building, negotiation, networking, and professionalism (Lafreniere & Longman, 2008; Spendlove, 2007).

Emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence is multifaceted. It is the ability to recognize one's own feelings, manage them appropriately, encode or relay them to others in an accessible and appropriate manner, as well as the ability to decode or accurately interpret the feelings of others and to engage in perspective-taking and emotional mentoring (Goleman, 2000). Because of gender role socialization, women may be particularly proficient at identifying the feelings of others, but lack the ability to classify their own emotions, particularly negative ones that are inconsistent with societal expectations of femininity. The interpersonal facet of emotional intelligence is probably best improved by developing an awareness of your sensitivity toward others during interactions and by verifying your perceptions of others to calibrate your ability to read emotions. Development of the intrapersonal facet can come from self-reflection and feedback. Asking colleagues about your management of emotion (e.g., "Are your messages interpreted in the ways you intend them?") can help you to locate areas for improvement.

Listening. Managers spend somewhere between 65%-90% of the day listening to others (Nicholas & Stevens, 1990). Failure to listen can results in errors, wasted time and resources, and conflict. You can improve this skill using simple tactics. In professional settings, taking notes will aid involvement and recall. Giving feedback, both verbal and nonverbal (e.g., nodding), can increase others' participation, and paraphrasing increases accuracy. Information for a listening assessment tool is provided in Appendix B.

Conflict management. Conflict is inevitable because competing goals will be present in any organization, especially one as complex as a college or university. Five documented styles of conflict communication are: (a) *competing* (high

in assertiveness, low in cooperation), (b) *compromising* (moderate in assertiveness and cooperation), (c) *collaborating* (high in assertiveness and cooperation), (d) *avoiding* (low in assertiveness and cooperation), and (e) *accommodating* (low in assertiveness, high in cooperation) (Thomas & Kilman, 1974/2007). A leader should keep in mind that different situations call for different approaches and that these styles can be used accordingly. Assessment tools such as the Thomas-Kilman Conflict Mode Instrument (see Appendix B) and the Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory-II (Rahim, 1983) can help you identify your typical style and alternatives to it.

Team building. A sense of cohesiveness and trust must be created around high performance standards and commitment to common goals in order for a group of individuals to become a team (Tuckman & Jensen, 1977; Shockley-Zalabak, 2006). This requires a leader who possesses emotional intelligence and skills in listening and conflict management. Team building, like most communication skills, can be improved through practice, feedback, and reflection. Volunteer to lead a committee and implement the stages of team building discussed by Tuckman and Jensen (1977) making sure to take time to build relationships, cohesion, and effective group communication norms at the outset. Seek feedback on team satisfaction and effectiveness along the way and bring a sense of closure to the group when the task is complete.

Negotiation. Negotiation is communication between interdependent parties aimed at achieving seemingly divergent goals (Putnam & Roloff, 1992). All administrators will need to negotiate with supervisors, colleagues, and subordinates and should, thereby, develop competency in bargaining (Lax & Sebenius, 1986). Distributive bargaining includes "competitive claiming, the use of threats . . . and positional commitments," while integrative bargaining includes "exchange of information about preferences and priorities . . . and the cooperative creation of value" (Beersma & De Dreu, 2002, p. 228). Distributive strategies aim for a "win/lose" outcome, while integrative strategies aim for "win/win," and are perceived by others as more competent. The methods you should employ depend upon the situation you face, but starting with integrative strategies will likely foster perceptions of communicative competence.

Women face a unique challenge when it comes to negotiating. Babcock and Laschever's (2003) research demonstrates that women often do not negotiate even in situations in which negotiation is expected, resulting in lower salaries, fewer benefits, and less respect. When women do engage in bargaining, they risk violating the discourse of femininity. Negotiation needs to be reframed from something that is in violation of our expectations for women to something that is perceived as appropriate and contributing to their competence.

Networking. Networking is both a competency and strategy for women who want to become high-level administrators. It is important to establish contacts and relationships that can provide professional and personal support in the male-dominated academy. Networks can be imperative for advancement and for the accomplishment of goals related to administrative tasks. It is vital for women to form varied networks including women who are or aspire to be in administration, both internal and external to their institution, in order to develop strategic resources. Some institutions have groups for female faculty and staff that provide opportunities for networking across departments and units. Additionally, networking outside of your institution can provide a valuable network for support and information that mitigates some of the risks of disclosing concerns and aspirations to individuals with whom you work. You can make connections with other women by attending workshops or lectures on leadership. Finally, mentoring is particularly essential for women who have fewer role models in the academy than men, so find a mentor who can provide you with information, support, and possibly even sponsorship for promotion.

Professionalism. Generally, professionalism consists of the ability to align personal conduct with ethical and professional standards that serve the best interest of the university (Garman, Evans, Krause, & Anfossi, 2006), an understanding of your position and its expectations, and the ability to exchange constructive feedback with supervisors and subordinates. Professionalism also entails conducting oneself in a manner consistent with values and policies important to the institution (e.g., respecting diversity). Professionalism requires familiarity with institutional culture and the ethical and professional values that underpin it. Learn what is expected of the position you hold or hope to obtain by asking those with experience and consulting institutional handbooks. Also, your approach to feedback matters; critique should be exchanged in an informative, professional, and confirming manner (see London, 2003).

Business Knowledge and Skill

The shift of colleges and universities to a more corporate model necessitates increased familiarity with elements that are a part of any business. Academic administrators oversee a variety of processes requiring them to be knowledgeable about strategic planning and marketing, risk management, financial management, human resources, personnel development, unit evaluation, and legal matters. While these may not be areas with which all academic professionals are familiar, taking steps to learn about the business aspects of an institution will give any individual an excellent advantage.

Strategic planning and marketing. Strategic planning is the process of outlining broad objectives and policies, while operational or action planning is the development of detailed steps for carrying out policies and meeting goals. "Strategic planning provides direction, identifies purpose and mission, and drives the use and allocation of fiscal resources" (Filan & Seagren, 2003, p. 28). Strategic and operational planning should stem from a leader's vision for what the department, division, college, or university should strive to become. Marketing is an important part of institutional evolution as the contemporary climate of higher education transitions to a competitive marketplace. Strategic planning and marketing skills can be developed through leadership opportunities within your division or professional organizations. Chairing or heading your department or division may be the best way to develop business skills. In these positions you will learn about planning, budgeting, managing risk, human resources and personnel development, legal matters, and evaluation. Serving as a chief officer or conference planner for a professional organization can also develop planning skills such as scheduling, developing goals, marketing strategy, and budgeting.

Risk management. Effective management of a unit or institution requires attention to the risks associated with its operations (Garman et al., 2006). An administrator should be informed of "the relationship of risk management to personal law, quality management, and safety" (Garman et al., p. 82). Institutions with forward momentum and multiple new projects are less likely to experience sizable setbacks if projects are unsuccessful (Shattock, 2003). However, risks must be assessed holistically. An assessment should address questions such as: "Does it [the initiative/investment] reinforce existing academic strengths or buttress weaknesses? Are there financial, physical planning, or human resource implications? Will it enhance the university's reputation?" (Shattock, p. 40). Networking is another mechanism for gathering information necessary to address these questions.

Financial Management. Financial management can encompass budget analysis and planning, resource allocation, and fundraising. "Financial literacy needs to be widely distributed . . . academic managers outside the finance office should be free to challenge financial assumptions and academics need to understand and participate in financial discussion or they will be unable to contribute effectively to decision making. . . ." (Shattock, 2003, p. 44). Skills used to manage financial issues include analysis of reward and risk, implementation of financial monitoring systems, and matching financial planning to specific goals of the unit and the larger system (Garman et al., 2006). Increasingly, administrators are expected to be involved with fundraising (Doyle

Walton & McDade, 2001). If you are in a field amenable to it, applying for grants and conducting grant-funded research is an excellent way to practice budget planning. Serving on committees that deal with institutional finances or being involved in a fundraising effort in a community organization or internal to the university (e.g., United Way campaign) also provides excellent experience. Finally, job shadowing an administrator can give you a glimpse at financial management. When you request to job shadow someone be sure to specify what you would like to observe and discuss so that you are developing the specific skills you need.

Human resources. An understanding of the employment setting, workforce planning, and performance management is important for an administrative role (Garman et al., 2006). Administrators must oversee an array of people including other administrators, faculty, staff, and students, each unique but highly interrelated. Familiarity with human resources policies and practices related to hiring, firing, tenure, promotion, as well as to group interests, legal rights, and safety is integral to effective management. Again, leading a department will serve you well in this skill, but simply reviewing the policies, practices, and procedures of the human resource division at your institution will give you a head start.

Personnel development. Personnel development or "strengthening the faculty and staff is one of the most important responsibilities of academic officers" (Jenkins, 2003, p. 73). Making sure that employees have adequate resources to perform well is crucial to the operation of a unit or program. Further, keeping personnel current in technology, information management, and organizational practices will ensure growth of not only a unit, but also its members. An administrator would do well to develop each individual's unique contribution and align that with the needs of the university.

Evaluation of units. The responsibilities of an administrator will likely include evaluation of units or departments, which involves "the identification, clarification, and application of defensible criteria to determine an evaluation object's value, quality, utility, effectiveness, or significance. . . ." (Worthen, Sanders, & Fitzpatrick, 1997, p. 5). *Formative* evaluation provides members with information that will help to improve the program, while *summative* evaluation provides information to those who make decisions related to resource allocation. Worthen et al. (1997) outline these steps for evaluation: (a) determining standards for judging quality and deciding whether those standards should be relative or absolute; (b) collecting relevant information; and (c) applying the standards to determine merit, which leads to recommendations for optimizing the program's function and reputation.

There are likely many valuable opportunities available at your institution through which to gain experience in program evaluation, like involvement in your division's self-study or serving as an external reviewer for a program at another institution.

Legal matters. "Academic administrators face the challenging responsibility of staying knowledgeable of current federal and state laws related to higher education and implementing these laws into their respective administrative duties and decisions" (Jenkins, 2003, p. 65). Administrators must be familiar with laws pertaining to free speech, discrimination, due process, religious matters, disability accommodation, and contractual provisions (such as those related to handbooks, syllabi, and policy statements). Become familiar with laws related to higher education through reading about them and perhaps also by reading cases in which such laws were enforced or contested.

Knowledge of the Industry

An administrator must have a working knowledge of the broader industry of higher education. Key areas with which you should familiarize yourself include organizational structure, trends in higher education, funding organizations, and professional organizations.

Organizational structure. Learning the structure of your institution as well as the typical flow of information will help you to understand how decisions are made, how policies are implemented, and the role various constituents play in those processes. Learning the structure of other institutions allows you to identify areas of strength or improvement at your own. You can find the organizational chart with a list of the departments and programs for an institution on its website. You should also be able to identify the governing bodies, such as the board of regents or accrediting agency, on the web. Knowing the organization's structure will allow you to more effectively gather accurate information when making decisions (Jenkins, 2003), identify potential members for teams, select individuals and positions that you should cultivate as part of your network, and choose a mentor to help you in any area of development.

Trends. Staying abreast of trends in higher education is a good idea for current and aspiring administrators. Some recent trends include the rise of interdisciplinary programs, online learning, high-technology classrooms, and diversity awareness. The Chronicle of Higher Education or the Society for College and University Planning can provide you with a quick overview of national trends. In addition to national and international trends, you must

pay attention to changes and special initiatives at your own institution. Your networks can help you here.

Funding organizations. Being aware of various funding agencies that might offer grants or partnerships can help you with strategic planning and financial management. Some organizations that support higher education include the National Science Foundation, the National Endowment for the Arts, the National Endowment for the Humanities, and the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation. The go-to place to learn about these is your institution's Office of Sponsored Programs or Research Services, if one exists. The staff can provide you with a list of organizations and connect you to a database of funding opportunities.

Professional organizations. Even if your field is not education, you can benefit from participation in higher education associations, especially once you are an administrator. The National Teaching and Learning Forum website contains a helpful list of professional organizations related to higher education, as does StudentAffairs.com. You can also ask administrators at your institution to which organizations they belong and would recommend.

Balancing Life Responsibilities

One of the unique barriers that hold women back from administrative careers is their actual or perceived commitment to family life (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Sims LeBlanc, 1993). Even when men contribute equally to housework, childcare, and other family obligations, the assumption remains that they will be more committed to work than to family (Sims LeBlanc, 1993). The opposite is true for perceptions of women. When women administrators are questioned about their job experiences, they often name family and household commitments as obstacles they must overcome (Lafreniere & Longman, 2008). Operating in the presence of the discourse of femininity, women may struggle to manage the roles of administrator, partner or mother, or all of these. Even when women work outside the home they are often charged with working a *second shift* in the home consisting of housework, childcare, errands, and cooking (Hochschild & Machung, 1989).

The good news is that inhabiting multiple roles is linked to enhanced leadership skill (Ruderman, Ohlott, Panzer, & King, 2002). The first step to balancing multiple roles is recognizing and appreciating when the skills you have developed in one role can be utilized in another. Nine of the 10 female presidents interviewed by Madsen (2008) said they developed skills through mothering that were beneficial in leadership including abilities to organize,

multitask, manage conflict, set goals, prioritize, facilitate conversations, cope with stress, accept imperfections, and self-discipline. As you complete the *Planning for the Future Worksheet* (Appendix A), consider including tasks that are not necessarily part of your defined career. Despite potential benefits of inhabiting multiple roles, if a female administrator has responsibilities to a partner, children, or other family members, she will need to take steps to make such responsibilities manageable in light of equally demanding work responsibilities. Being an administrator requires the ability to manage time and stress effectively (Borkowski, 2005; Lafreniere & Longman, 2008).

Time management. An administrator's time is her chief resource because she must handle numerous responsibilities at once. Britton and Glynn (1989) offer a list of time-management practices for maximizing intellectual productivity that can be transferred to any kind of productivity: choose goals and subgoals, prioritize the goals, generate tasks from the goals, prioritize the tasks, document the tasks on a "to-do" list, schedule the tasks, and then carry out the tasks. Multitasking is helpful in many situations, but it is also good to recognize when focusing on one task leads to greater effectiveness and efficiency. In a study of 10 female academic presidents, Madsen (2008) found that while a few used integrative approaches, most compartmentalized work and home life, preferring to be totally focused on one at a time. One strategy for doing this is to block off particular hours on certain days that you will devote to something important that otherwise may be neglected, like exercise or professional development. When possible, be sure to get adequate sleep so that your time is well utilized during the day.

Remember to challenge the discourse of femininity that promotes women as needing to take care of everything themselves, particularly in the private sphere. Share and delegate responsibilities. You can and should rely on others to do things that do not have to be done by you. If married or in a committed relationship, work out terms with which you and your partner both feel comfortable via open and honest communication. Do not be afraid to revisit and amend the terms since what works one month may very well not work the next. If you have children, time share with other parents (e.g., set up an alternating schedule for picking up kids from school). Consider childcare (familial or professional) an investment in your career and peace of mind. Social and professional networks provide invaluable instrumental support that enables women to juggle multiple responsibilities. Family members and friends also are important sources of personal support, but recognize that your professional networks can contribute to a sense of balance by helping you to meet your professional obligations.

Stress management. Women consistently report being more stressed than men due to general job stressors, sex discrimination, and balancing work and family demands (Borkowski, 2005). While these very real conditions contribute to stress, research demonstrates that "the level of stress a person experiences, and perhaps the extent to which deleterious effects occur, depends on how and how well the person copes in stressful situations" (Latack, 1986, p. 377). In addition to instrumental support, social networks provide essential emotional and social support. Although relationships can sometimes be the cause of stress, the giving and receiving of support and affection actually help to manage it (Floyd, Pauley, & Hesse, 2010).

Along with interpersonal support, you can manage stress through coping strategies. *Anticipatory coping* means preparing for an impending stressor (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985); while *proactive coping* means taking action to prevent, avoid, or alter an anticipated stressor (Thoits, 1986). Coping can come in different forms: *action*, a response focused on the stressor itself; *cognitive reappraisal*, the (re)framing of the situation; and *symptom management*, responses to stress focused on its symptoms (e.g., loss of appetite) (Latack, 1986; Moos & Billings, 1982). Proactive coping means making sure you have things in place to prevent stressors. For example, before taking on more responsibility at work make sure you can accommodate it in your personal life and ensure that you have the professional support you will need. When offered an opportunity, ask for time to consider the request before responding. Assess your current situation, identify any additional resources you need to successfully accomplish the new task, and negotiate for those resources (e.g., "In order to successfully complete this task on time I will need additional staff, adequate training, and a more flexible work schedule."). Asking for what you need, both personally and professionally, can reduce the stress you will feel later. Once a stressor occurs, do not underestimate the power of framing: thinking of a stressor as manageable or as having a positive outcome can make a difference in your emotional response and ability to take action. Finally, symptom management is vital—sleep, eat well, and take breaks from work.

Conclusion

While the competencies outlined here are at once potentially overwhelming and certainly incomplete, this overview provides a starting place for women who hope to challenge the discourses of impossibility and femininity. Women who aspire to lead in the academy need an understanding of the problems that keep them from advancing in numbers proportionate to men, an awareness

of the knowledge and skills needed to succeed in administration, practical tactics for acquiring these, and a sense that their goals are attainable, despite difficulties. Women can use the sample *Planning for the Future Worksheet* to organize and document their skill development. First, take stock of the skills you already have and then spot areas that need attention. This can help you recognize your existing competencies, which will help you articulate them to others, and will help you to see where to concentrate further development. Finally, it can help you target relevant opportunities that will better prepare you for an administrative role. Revisit the worksheet at least every three to six months to log your progress and plan further.

We hope that this article echoes the sentiment of Babcock and Laschever (2003), who do not minimize the cultural forces that keep women from professional equality, but still hope to provide women with information and tools with which they can take some action against these forces and "retool their social training, reframe their interactions with others, and overcome the low sense of entitlement, fear, or extreme caution that can keep them from taking full advantage of their talents" (p. 13). While the proverb, "Failing to plan, is planning to fail" may not necessarily be true, it certainly cannot hurt to plan for one's future. Recognizing existing competencies, actively pursuing opportunities for enhancing them, and documenting and championing such skills will help women reach administrative positions for which they are qualified.

References

Acker, J. (1990). Hierarchies, jobs, bodies: A theory of gendered organizations. *Gender and Society*, *4*, 139–158.

American Council on Education. (2007). *The American college president: 2007 edition.* Washington, DC: Author.

Athey, S., Avery, C., & Zemsky, P. (2000). Mentoring and diversity. *The American Economic Review, 90*(4), 765–786.

Babcock, L., & Laschever, S. (2003). *Women don't ask: Negotiation and the gender divide.* Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Bass, B. M. (1990). From transactional to transformational leadership: Learning to share the vision. *Organizational Dynamics*, *18*(3), 19–31.

Beersma, B., & De Dreu, C. K. W. (2002). Integrative and distributive negotiation in small groups: Effects of task structure, decision rule, and social motive. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 87*(2), 227–252.

Bilen-Green, C., Froelich, K. A., & Jacobson, S. W. (2008). The prevalence of women in academic leadership positions, and potential impact on prevalence of women in the professorial ranks. Paper presented at Women in Engineering Program Advocates Network (WEPAN) annual conference, St. Louis.

Billing, Y. D., & Alvesson, M. (2000). Questioning the notion of feminine leadership: A critical perspective on the gender labeling of leadership. *Gender, Work, and Organization, 7*(3), 144–157

Borkowski, N. (2005). *Organizational behavior in health care.* Sudbury, MA: Jones and Bartlett Publishers.

Britton, B. K., & Glynn, S. M. (1989). Mental management and creativity: A cognitive model of time management for intellectual productivity. In J. A. Glover & C. R. Reynolds (Eds.), *Handbook of creativity* (Vol. 24, pp. 429–440). New York, NY: Plenum Press.

Britton, D. M. (2000). The epistemology of the gendered organization. *Gender & Society, 14*(3), 418–434.

Buzzanell, P. M. (1995). Reframing the glass ceiling as a socially constructed process: Implications for understanding and change. *Communication Monographs, 62,* 327–354.

Carl, W. J., & Duck, S. W. (2004). How to do things with relationships. In P. Kalbfleisch (Ed.), *Communication Yearbook, 28,* (pp. 1–35). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Cejda, B. D., Bush, W. B., & Rewey, K. L. (2002). Profiling the chief academic officers of Christian colleges and universities: A comparative study. *Christian Higher Education, I,* 3–15.

Christman, D., & McClellan, R. (2008). "Living on barbed wire": Resilient women administrators in educational leadership programs. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 44*(1), 3–29.

Chusmir, L. H., & Mills, J. (1989). Gender differences in conflict resolution styles of managers: At work and at home. *Sex Roles, 20*(3/4), 149–163.

Clance, P. R., & Imes, S. A. (1978). The imposter phenomenon in high achieving women: Dynamics and therapeutic intervention. *Psychotherapy: Theory, Research & Practice, 15*(3), 241–247.

Collinson, D., and Hearn, J. (1996) *Men as Managers, Managers as Men*. London: Sage.

Corrigan, M. (2002). *The American college president: 2002 edition*. Washington, DC: American Council on Education.

Craig, R. T. (1999). Communication theory as a field. *Communication Theory, 9,* 119–161.

Dean, D. R. (2009). Resources, role models, and opportunity makers: Mentoring women in academic leadership. In D. R. Dean, S. J. Bracken, & J. K. Allen (Eds.), *Women in academic leadership: Professional Strategies, Personal Choices* (pp. 128–148). Sterling, VA: Stylus Publishing, LLC.

Dean, D. R., Bracken, S. J., & Allen, J. K. (2009). The balancing act revisited: Professional strategy and personal choice on the path to academic leadership. In D. R. Dean, S. J. Bracken, & J. K. Allen (Eds.), *Women in academic leadership: Professional strategies, personal choices* (pp. 1–7). Sterling, VA: Stylus Publishing.

Doyle Walton, K., & McDade, S. A. (2001). At the top of the faculty: Women as chief academic officers. In J. Nidiffer & C. T. Bashaw (Eds.), *Women administrators in higher education: Historical and contemporary perspectives* (pp. 85–100). Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Dugger, K. (2001). Women in higher education in the United States: I. Has there been progress? *The International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy, 21*, 118–130.

Eagly, A. H. (2007). Female leadership advantage and disadvantage: Resolving the tensions. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 31,* 1–12.

Eagly, A. H., & Carli, L. L. (2007). *Through the labyrinth: The truth about how women become leaders.* Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

Filan, G. L., & Seagren, A. T. (2003). Six critical issues for midlevel leadership in postsecondary settings. *New Directions for Higher Education, 124,* 21–31.

Floyd, K., Pauley, P. M., & Hesse, C. (2010). State and trait affectionate communication buffer adults' stress reactions. *Communication Monographs, 77,* 618–636.

Folkman, S., & Lazarus, R. S. (1980). An analysis of coping in a middle-aged community sample. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior, 21,* 219–239.

Foucault, M. (1980) *Power/knowledge: Selected interviews and other writings 1972–1977.* New York, NY: Pantheon.

Gardiner, J. J. (2006). Transactional, transformational, and transcendent Leadership: Metaphors mapping the evolution of the theory and practice of governance. *Leadership Review, 6,* 62–76.

Garman, A. N., Burkhart, T., & Strong, J. (2006). Business knowledge and skills. *Journal of Healthcare Management, 51*(2), 81–85.

Garman, A. N., Butler, P., & Brinkmeyer, L. (2006). Leadership. *Journal of Healthcare Management, 51*(6), 360–364.

Garman, A. N., Evans, R., Krause, M. K., & Anfossi, J. (2006). Professionalism. *Journal of Healthcare Management, 51*(4), 219–222.

Goleman, D. (2000). *Working with emotional intelligence*. New York, NY: Bantam.

Harré, R. (1979). *Social being: A theory for social psychology.* Oxford, England: Basil Blackwell.

Hersey, P., & Blanchard, K. H. (1977). *Management of organizational behavior: Utilizing human resources* (3rd ed.) New Jersey, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Hochschild, A., & Machung, A. (1989). *The second shift: Working parents and the revolution at home*. New York, NY: Viking.

Hoppe, S. (2003). Identifying and nurturing potential academic leaders. *New Directions for Higher Education, 124,* 3–12.

Jackson, J. F., L., & O'Callaghan, E. M. (2009). What do we know about glass ceiling effects? Taxonomy and critical review to inform higher education research. *Research in Higher Education*, *50,* 460–482.

Jenkins, C. R. (2003). Selected legal aspects of academic administrative leadership: An orientation for new academic administrators. *New Directions for Higher Education*, *124*, 65–77.

Kepner, C. H., & Tregoe, B. B. (1981). *The new rational manager*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton Research Press.

Lafreniere, S. L., & Longman, K. A. (2008). Gendered realities and women's leadership development: Participant voices from faith-based higher education. *Christian Higher Education, 7*(5), 388–404.

Latack, J. C. (1986). Coping with job stress: Measures and future directions for scale development. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 71*(3), 377–385.

Lax, D. A., & Sebenius, J. K. (1986). *The manager as negotiator: Bargaining for cooperation and competitive gain*. New York, NY: Free Press.

Locke, E. A., & Latham, G. P. (1990). A theory of goal setting and task performance. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

London, M. (2003). Job feedback: *Giving, sending, and using feedback for performance improvement* (2nd ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Earlbaum Associates.

Madsen, S. R. (2008). *On becoming a woman leader*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Maltz, D., & Borker, R. (1982). A cultural approach to male-female miscommunication. In J. J. Gumpertz (Ed.), *Language and social identity* (pp. 196–216). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Middlehurst, R. (1997). Leadership, women, and higher education. In H. Eggins (Ed.), *Women as leaders and managers in higher education* (pp. 3–16). Buckingham, England: Open University Press.

Moos, R. H., & Billings, A. G. (1982). Conceptualizing and measuring coping resources and process. In L. Goldberger & S. Breznitz (Eds.), *Handbook of stress: Theoretical and clinical aspects* (*pp.* 212–230). New York, NY: Free Press.

Mumby, D. K., & Ashcraft, K. L. (2006). Organizational communication studies and gendered organization: A response to Martin and Collinson. *Gender, Work, and Organization, 13*, 68–90.

Nicholas, R. G., & Stevens, L. A. (1990). Listening to people. *Harvard Business Review, 68,* 95–102.

Northouse, P. G. (2010). *Leadership: Theory and practice.* (5th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Oakley, J. G. (2000). Gender-based barriers to senior management positions: Understanding the scarcity of female CEOs. *Journal of Business Ethics, 27,* 321–334.

Ohlott, P. J. (1998). Job assignments. In C. D. McCauley, R. S. Moxley, & E. Van Velsor (Eds.), *The Center for Creative Leadership handbook of leadership development* (pp. 127–159). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Putnam, L. L., & Roloff, M. E. (Eds.). (1992). *Communication and negotiation.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage

Rahim, M. A. (1983). A measure of styles of handling interpersonal conflict. *The Academy of Management Journal, 26*(2), 368–376.

Ross, M., & Green, M. F. (2000). *The American college president.* Washington, DC: American Council on Education.

Ruderman, M. N., Ohlott, P. J., Panzer, K., & King, S. N. (2002). Benefits of multiple roles for managerial women. *Academy of Management Journal, 45*(2), 369–386.

Rudman, L. A., & Glick, P. (2001). Prescriptive gender stereotypes and backlash toward agentic women. *Journal of Social Issues, 57,* 95–100.

Shattock, M. (2003). *Managing successful universities.* Berkshire, England: Open University Press.

Shockley-Zalabak, P. S. (2006). *Fundamentals of organizational communication: Knowledge, sensitivity, skills, values.* Boston, MA: Pearson.

Sims LeBlanc, D. (1993). Barriers to women's advancement into higher education administration. In P. T. Mitchell (Ed.), *Cracking the wall: Women in higher education administration,* (pp. 41–49). Washington, DC: The College and University Personnel Association.

Spendlove, M. (2007). Competencies for effective leadership in higher education. *International Journal of Educational Management, 5*, 407–417.

Spitzberg, B. H. (2000). What is good communication? *Journal of the Association for Communication Administration, 29*, 103–119.

Thoits, P. A. (1986). Social support as coping assistance. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 54*(4), 416–423.

Thomas, K. W., & Kilmann, R. H. (2007). *Thomas-Kilmann conflict mode instrument.* Mountain View, CA: Xicom, a subsidiary of CPP. Retrieved from www.kilmann.com/conflict.html (Original work published 1974)

Tuckman, B. W., & Jensen, M. A. C. (1977). Stages of small-group development revisited. *Group and Organization Studies, 2*(4), 419–427.

Wood, J. T. (2006). Gender and communication in interpersonal contexts: Introduction. In B. J. Dow & J. T. Wood (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of gender and communication*, (pp. 1–7). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Worthen, B. R., Sanders, J. R., & Fitzpatrick, J. L. (1997). *Program evaluation: Alternative practices and practical guidelines* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Addison, Wesley, Longman.

Yielder, J., & Codling, A. (2004). Management and leadership in the contemporary university. *Journal of Higher Education Policy Management, 26*(3), 315–328.

Yukl, G.A. (1989). *Leadership in organizations* (2nd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Appendix A: Planning for the Future Worksheet

We recommend that you list and describe a project with which you were involved or a strategic action you took relevant to a competency. Then, identify the skills within each competency that were demonstrated, developed, or benefited from the experience or action. This will help you identify areas that need development and those where you are competent. Being aware of your competencies can position you well to pursue relevant opportunities and to articulate your skills to others as you pursue an administrative role. We provide examples to get you started.

	Leadership	Communication	Business Knowledge and Skill	Knowledge of the Industry	Balancing Life Responsibilities

	• Vision
	  – Goal setting
	  – Long-range planning
	• Decision making
	• Problem resolution
	• Flexible and integrative leadership
		• Emotional intelligence
		• Listening
		• Conflict management
		• Team building
		• Negotiation
		• Networking
		• Professionalism
			• Strategic planning and marketing
			• Risk management
			• Financial management
			• Human resources
			• Personnel development
			• Evaluation of units
			• Legal matters
				• Organizational structure
				• Trends
				• Funding organizations
				• Professional organizations
					• Time management
					• Stress management

Professional and Personal Projects or Strategic Actions In 2009, I served as the cochair of the Undergraduate Initiatives Committee. During this time, we reorganized the UIC into different divisions, established a new Advising/Mentoring Program, and created connections with three off-campus programs	• Led a project from start to finish • Engaged in long-range planning • Created a collaborative vision • Set and achieved goal of creating new program	• Engaged in team building • Networked on behalf of the UIC, but also established professional contacts for myself • Requested constructive feedback from the committee	• Strategic planning • Evaluation of UIC and reorganization of the unit		• Delegated to other committee members when appropriate

Appendix B: Helpful Resources

American Council on Education: Office of Women in Higher Education: www.acenet.edu/AM/Template.cfm?Section=OWHE

Babcock, L., & Laschever, S. (2003). *Women don't ask: Negotiation and the gender divide*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Buckingham, M., & Coffman, C. (1999). *First, break all the rules: What the world's greatest managers do differently*. New York, NY: Simon & Schuster.

McShane, S. L. (2000). Build your management skills: Active listening skills inventory. In *Instructors' manual and transparency masters to accompany organizational behaviour*. Burr Ridge, IL: Irwin/McGraw-Hill. Retrieved from www.mhhe.com/business/management/buildyourmanagementskills/ updated_flash/topic13b/quiz.html

Rowe, A., & Boulgarides, J. (1992). Decision-making style inventory-III. In *Managerial decision making: A guide to successful business decisions*. New York, NY: Macmillan. Retrieved from http://teaching.fec.anu.edu.au/ MGMT7030/Decision%20Style%20Inventory.pdf

NASPA–Student Affairs Administrators in Higher Education: Center for Scholarship, Research, and Professional Development for Women: http:// www.naspa.org/divctr/women/default.cfm

National Teaching and Learning Forum: www.ntlf.com/html/lib/assoc/index. htm

The Chronicle of Higher Education: www.chronicle.com

Shattock, M. (2003). *Managing successful universities*. Berkshire, England: Open University Press.

Society for College and University Planning: www.scup.org

Zichy, S. (2001). *Women and the leadership Q: The breakthrough system for achieving power and influence*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.