

ADMINISTRATION AND VALUES: THE CAREER ADVANCEMENT OF WOMEN
MANAGERS IN THE BRITISH COLUMBIA PUBLIC SERVICE

by

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ABSTRACT

This study consists of an investigation of the relationship between the values of the organization, the work-related values of managers, and the career advancement of female managers within the British Columbia Public Service. Organizational value priorities were determined through the categorization by Deputy Ministers of fifteen organizational values. Through statistical analysis, the study established: the extent to which the values of public service managers are shared with those of their organization; the relationship between career advancement and value congruency; the change in managers' values over time; and managers' perceptions of the influence of other factors on career advancement. Anecdotal data were treated non-statistically.

The study concludes that there are few individual value differences between The British Columbia Public Service and its managers regardless of level or gender. Although no significant differences were observed between the composite values of the various management groups and the organization, correlations between the values of the two bodies diminish as one descends the organizational hierarchy. These findings suggest that values do have an influence on the achievement of senior administrative

positions, and that women at all management levels have the value potential to reach these positions. However, since women's level of attainment of top positions is much lower than that of their male colleagues, it is suggested that other value-based factors, possibly including educational level, family responsibilities and organizational bias against women may be as influential on career advancement as the organizational and work-related values examined in the study.

On the whole, managers' values were not found to change significantly over their years of experience with the organization, therefore the study concludes that hiring practices within the British Columbia Public Service are effective in identifying managerial employees who share the organization's values, although this may be an unconscious process. It is also concluded that male junior managers may feel that their careers will be particularly vulnerable to the effects of the career advancement of female managers, and that managers of both genders feel undervalued as employees and are struggling to balance work and family responsibilities, although the latter problem appears to affect women more than it affects men.

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

Many organization theorists believe that organizations have values which affect activities within them and that values are the elements which hold the organization and its members together and on track (Katz & Kahn, 1978; Kelly, 1980). One area of activity which appears to be of contemporary importance to organizations, individuals, and society, and which may be influenced by the values held by either the organization or its employees, is individual career advancement. Research has tended to neglect the investigation of this issue in the public sector to this point. Recent economic and social developments, however, suggest that an examination of the influence of values, with particular reference to their influence on the career advancement of women managers within such organizations as the British Columbia Public Service, may be advantageous to the expansion of research knowledge in this domain and contribute to a clearer understanding of the issue.

Over the past twenty years, several cycles have occurred in the demand for personnel to fill management positions in the public and private sectors at all

levels, ranging from the most junior positions to those at the chief executive officer level. In the seventies, staff shortages resulted from economic expansion. In the eighties, staff surpluses resulted from contraction in the economy and subsequent lay-offs. Downsizing of British Columbia's Public Service occurred in response to the recession which occurred in the early eighties, and in response to public perception that the bureaucracy was inflated in size and costly.

Demographic forecasts predict that, in the nineties, Canada will face shortages of workers in a number of occupations and professions (Collard, 1989). Although unemployment appears generally to be a severe and persistent problem, Collard claimed that some job categories, including the managerial and administrative categories, are expected to be particularly affected by labour shortages due to a shrinking pool of young people upon which to draw and an anticipated decrease in the annual number of graduates between 1988 and 1995 in public and business administration, economics, commerce, and related fields. The shortage of, and competition for, such workers poses a challenge to Deputy Ministers in British Columbia, who are required to maintain the highest standards in managing their ministries and who have

publicly committed themselves to the development of a highly trained workforce. However, it also presents an opportunity for women who wish to enter or move ahead in public service careers.

Another potential opportunity for women relates to the claim that world wide economic competition is now at such a level that government administration in the nineties will be at a disadvantage in competing within the global economy unless it develops an outstanding workforce (Chambers & Cullen, 1989). Demographics cited by Chambers and Cullen indicate that recruiting and retaining first class, highly skilled staff will take place in a very tight labour market in which there will be near equality in the respective size of pools of qualified males and females, and that competition for such staff will be intense.

Highly competent senior executives are considered a prerequisite to any organization's capability to compete in the business world, and governments must compete on equal terms with the private sector for the best candidates. One way to secure such administrators is to develop the existing workforce and assist promising employees of both genders to advance within all levels of administration. Two new, value-based aspects of the problem of developing the administrative workforce are increasing competition

within and between the sexes for career advancement, and deliberate decision-making on the part of members of both sexes to achieve balance between their personal and professional lives.

It may be argued that organizational leaders may perceive benefits in employing individuals whose value systems are similar to those of their organizations. This is complicated, however, by an apparent confusion in the research literature over gender differences in relationship to shared values (O'Neill, 1985), and a scarcity of empirical data that decipher and compare the degree of value congruency between female and male managers. It is, therefore, of academic interest to look at the values of managers and the difference in values between the female and male cohorts at various levels of the administrative hierarchy. This examination may, perhaps, also contribute to the practical solution of the quantity and quality problems faced by senior public servants in staffing ministries from the lowest to most senior levels and to the solution of problems which face women as they attempt to establish and develop careers in public service management.

In view of the implications of the foregoing background information, a number of factors which could affect the career advancement of managers in the British

Columbia Public Service, especially women managers, will be investigated in the study, including: the relationship between the values of the organization, the work-related values of employees who are managers, and the career advancement of female administrators and managers within the British Columbia Public Service; the perceptions of managers of the influence of certain factors such as behaviours, skills, and training on career advancement; the relationship between the demographic characteristics of managers and their management status; and the opinions of managers on values which have acted as aids or obstacles to their career advancement, on the effects of value conflicts experienced, and on value change within their organization.

Women in Management in the British Columbia Public Service

Senior positions in the Public Service have traditionally been held by men, with a few notable exceptions. A trend now exists, however, for women to pursue administrative careers and women are filling junior management positions in unprecedented numbers in British Columbia (Appendix A). This reflects the national trend which, during the last decade, was towards a dramatic increase in the employment of women in management and

administrative positions. Between 1982 and 1989, the number of women in such positions more than doubled in Canada, and the percentage of all working women employed in management and administration, rose from 6% in 1982 to 11% in 1989. Some of this increase can be attributed to refinement in the way occupational data are now classified. However, even without the artificial boost given to the increase by definitional changes in the Labour Force Survey instituted in 1984, there was still considerable growth in the employment of women in the management and administrative category (Shea, 1990).

The British Columbia Government's interest in the advancement of its female employees was stated in its Plan for Progress (1986). This document indicated that one aim of the plan was to increase the representation of women in management by creating a working environment conducive to their career advancement. This was to be carried out by ensuring that personnel policies reflected a positive attitude toward career placement and advancement for women and by ensuring that obstacles to their career advancement, such as direct and systemic discrimination, did not exist. In terms of the representation of women in management, considerable change occurred between 1986 and 1991 with women now occupying about 30% of all management positions

in government in British Columbia. However, women managers are thickly clustered at the lower classification levels and their representation exceeds 20% only in the lowest 5 of the twelve levels (Appendix A).

A corresponding increase in the number of women in the most senior management positions in government is not yet visible, despite formal and informal efforts which have been made to assist women to move into senior positions in British Columbia's Public Service. Progress has been made at the Assistant Deputy Minister level, however, partly through proactive search for candidates. By January 1991, eleven women occupied Assistant Deputy Minister positions. Of these, nine were at the two lowest levels, Levels 9 and 10, with women occupying approximately 11% of the positions at these levels. Two (14%) of the Assistant Deputy Minister positions, Level 11, were held by the remaining two women of the eleven. Additionally, two women were Deputy Ministers, constituting approximately seven percent of the total Deputy Minister cohort. In general, the picture in government, in which women occupy very few of the most senior positions, is repeated in private corporations and public institutions (Highman, 1985).

The interest of British Columbia's senior public servants in increasing the representation of women at

higher management levels may have accelerated in response to labour force projections which predict shortages of managers and to the realization that competition for well-trained, skilled, and experienced employees, which is already heavy, will intensify. The shortage of and competition for such workers is of concern to Deputy Ministers and to senior officials involved in filling management positions.

Developing existing personnel is one of the long-term challenges to be faced in ensuring that there will always be an adequate supply of well trained managers. Additionally, finding new ways to assist women in advancing their careers may well be part of an improved solution to developing and maintaining the necessary pool of managers.

Approaches to the advancement of women into administrative careers in the British Columbia Public Service have included: identification of systemic barriers to the advancement of women and attempts to remove them; encouraging the mentoring of women; and encouraging formal and informal networking activities. These approaches may have contributed to the progress which has been made, but contradictory findings by researchers elsewhere indicate that there is little agreement as to their effectiveness (Orland, 1986; Vaudrin, 1983). Nevertheless, women appear

to be permanently attached to the workforce and consequently expect to receive career development opportunities at all levels. This suggests that preparing women to take their place as part of the high level workforce which managers need, and assisting them to gain access to high level positions is consistent with contemporary social expectations. Since earlier approaches have not conclusively been proven successful and since some researchers have found that certain capable women are choosing not to advance their careers, but to remain in middle-management positions or even to abandon their careers, exploration of the connection between values and career development issues appears to be justified.

Values and their Role in Career Advancement

The general pervasion of the administrative enterprise with values, including notions of right and wrong, good and bad, benefit and cost, and efficiency and effectiveness, has been extensively discussed as have the challenges to the administrator of achieving organizational purposes, such as maintenance and growth, in a field of conflicting and changing forces (Hodgkinson, 1978, 1983). Review of the career advancement of women, itself a value issue, and

of the possibly conflicting values of the organization itself and of the male and female employees within it, are essential to the proposed study. Hodgkinson's analysis and value paradigm, which can be applied to any action or event, can be used as a basis for this review. The paradigm and its value typology, when applied to the issue of women's career advancement, suggest that change, or retention of the status quo, may occur because of the values espoused by those involved in the issue.

Competing metavalues, perhaps including those relating to the traditional views of appropriate male/female occupational and domestic roles, as well as nomothetic organizational values that may conflict with ideographic needs may influence the career development opportunities offered to female employees and the related decisions which are made. Although value conflicts need not be resolved (Hodgkinson, 1978), they do result in affective tension and problems associated with the attitudinal and motivational aspects of organizational life. The question of how much tension between organizational and personal goals can be tolerated before dysfunctional effects are experienced by the organization and its employees is important both to the organization and to individuals within it. This provides further justification for the study of values in

administration.

Recognition that value implies freedom of choice suggests that investigation of the limitations to women's career advancement and of the value-based obstacles which may stand in their way, may throw light on their career decisions. Similarly, the view that power can alter relationships and events without altering values raises the question of the role of Deputy Ministers and other senior officials in the advancement of female managers. It also suggests that perhaps an increase in the number of women in positions of power might, in itself, alter organizational value orientations and influence the opportunities for other women through decisions on hiring and promotion. Hodgkinson's (1983) description of administration as an enterprise based on power in which decisions are made for and about others, raises value questions about the distribution of women in powerful administrative positions in the Public Service. These questions may seem even more salient in those ministries whose business is health, the care of children, education, and fields which are of particular concern to women as the primary care givers and where women typically form the majority of employees.

It is also possible to hold values without operationalizing them, and the apparent willingness at the

political and senior administrative levels to advance women to the highest levels in the Public Service appears to conflict with the continuing paucity of women in such positions, thus raising questions about the true values held relative to women's career development by politicians, administrators and the women themselves.

Whether or not one is conscious of the influence of values on decisions made throughout life, and however subliminally personal value systems are functioning in any specific case, human decisions, including those relating to career advancement, are founded in some system of values. Some of the most profound choices relating to career advancement may, within the boundaries of current organizational expectations, entail compromising strongly ingrained ideologies which govern the way people wish to and do behave in organizational and other situations. In the final analysis, value-based organizational demands may be a contributing factor to deliberate decision-making not to proceed further with the climb up the executive ladder if the two value systems are in conflict. Or, if organizational values are congruent with their own, the decision to persevere in the attempt to reach the top may be an easy one for aspirants to make. Thus, the hand may fit the glove.

Furthermore, it appears that in recent years the conflict between home and work responsibilities has increased for all employees, although it seems to be more severe for women than it is for their male colleagues (Hochschild, 1989). Additionally, the issue of quality of life, with its emphasis on time-consuming activities such as exercise, recreation and further education, concerns many contemporary workers and can compound value conflicts.

In senior positions in the Public Service, responsibilities are extensive, hours of work tend to be long, stress levels tend to be high, and the challenges of the job can become an all-consuming preoccupation. Dedication to the job, to the employer and to the Public Service, if coupled with dedication to family life or the desire to participate in self-development activities external to work, may bring about irreconcilable, value-based, inner conflict for the employee. Conflict of values, which may be more severe for women in some respects, may be contributing to the loss of promising administrators of both genders and to the low representation of women in senior positions in government today. Managers may be confronted with the problem of responding to the implicit demands of government that senior employees espouse and adopt organizational values,

while simultaneously remaining true to their own, possibly conflicting, values. The salience of personal values may be an important source of constraint on the advancement of female managers into more senior positions in government.

Antecedents to the Study

The conceptual framework for this study has been developed primarily from the review of the literature and from the approaches taken by other researchers on the effects of values within organizations, usually in the private sector.

Change in any organization can result from many influences. The increasing numbers of women in the workforce, and the desire of some of them to become managers and to gain promotion to the most senior levels are examples of contemporary change. Economic need, social expectations, improved self-esteem, labour force shortages and greater regard for opportunity and equality for women may all have contributed to this change. On the other hand, at the same time as women are moving into the management ranks and striving for promotion, others, accompanied by some of their male colleagues, are either re-evaluating their decision to compete for jobs and

promotion, or are making deliberate, value-based decisions not to seek further advancement but to remain in less demanding and stressful positions. Throughout these complex dynamics, organizations are dependent on trained and experienced administrators to provide the expertise they need to compete in the world economy. Desire to understand the relevance of values to this complex situation is the central motivation for this research.

The research was based on the theory that top-level managers are "the builders and keepers of organizational values" (Albrecht, 1983, p. 83) and that their behaviour influences value development. There is evidence, for example, that managers who foster and reward initiative and independent thinking demonstrate that change and innovation are key organizational values. Theoretically, if employees and employers share key values, the company is more likely to become highly productive (Peters & Waterman, 1982). Recent studies by researchers seeking evidence that shared values contribute to personal and corporate efficiency (O'Neill, 1985) and to identify the characteristics of highly successful companies (Albrecht, 1983) indicate that organizational values are predominantly related to the beliefs and personal values of top executives. Hodgkinson (1978) and Scott and Hart (1979) confirmed that

organizational values are determined at the senior administrative level. The work of Albrecht, Hodgkinson, O'Neill, and Scott and Hart demonstrates the importance of determining the relationship between the values of the organization and the values of employees in any study relating to the development of personnel.

This study builds on evidence gained in the private sector that managers share more value similarities than differences regardless of level or organization (Cameron, 1979; Clare and Sanford, 1979; Hodgetts, 1978) and that there are no gender differences relating to the organizational values espoused by men and women (O'Neill, 1985). The study tests these theories in the public sector.

There is also evidence that corporations shape individuals' values and behaviour through a socialization process which tends, over time, to dissipate original value differences between employee and employer. Kanter (1977) and Schein (1968) claim that it is the nature of organizations to shape employees' values and behaviour and there is support for the contention that a shift in value orientation accompanies promotion and that values vary with age, sex, status and length of service in the organization (Hodgkinson, 1970). Role theory supports the view that

individuals in similar work-roles tend to share similar beliefs (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Value differences have been found to be major sources of superior-subordinate tensions and conflicts which are clearly inimical to personal or organizational development (Schmidt & Posner, 1982). These concepts provide a basis for a portion of the research.

Differences and similarities in values between the organization and groups within the organization have implications for the future performance of the organization and for the comfort and satisfaction of the employee groups concerned as they work within it. The present study builds on the concepts described above to determine the effects of the values of the organization and of the employees on career advancement in the British Columbia Public Service, with particular reference to women.

Purposes and Form of the Inquiry

The primary purpose of the inquiry is to investigate the relationship between the values of the organization, the work-related values of employees who are managers, and the career advancement of female administrators and managers within the British Columbia Public Service. To accomplish this end the study will take form by:

1. Establishing the organization's values using base-line information provided by Deputy Ministers;
2. Identifying and examining what differences exist between the work-related values of men and women;
3. Identifying and examining what differences exist between the work-related values held by managers at various levels and the values held by their organization;
4. Determining if managers' work-related values change as their careers progress;
5. Exploring the views of public service managers on factors including skills, behaviours, and training relating to organizational values, which may affect managers' ability to achieve organizational goals, and thus influence their career advancement;
6. Exploring areas in which earlier research has established the potential for value conflict, particularly in women. This will include an examination of educational levels, marital status, and parental responsibilities;
7. Identifying key values which may have assisted or hindered managers' individual career advancement;
8. Examining the value conflicts experienced by managers;
9. Determining what organizational value changes are recommended by managers.

Implicit Hypotheses and Research Questions

The implicit hypotheses of the study are as follows:

1. That managers share more value similarities than differences, and there are more similarities than differences between their values and those of the organization;
2. That career success will correlate positively with value congruency between top-level officials and aspirants;
3. That value congruency will diminish as one moves down the ranks of the organizational hierarchy;
4. That gender differences will be less relevant to career success than congruency with organizational values;
5. That value change over time will be relevant to managers' levels of achievement;
6. That gender differences will be less relevant to perceptions of the degree to which factors such as behaviours, skills, and training influence career advancement than level of achievement;
7. That the educational levels of managers will be relevant to their levels of achievement and will be comparatively higher for women than for men;

8. That the incidence of marriage and incidence of parenthood will be relevant to managers' levels of achievement and will be comparatively lower for women than for men.

These implicit hypotheses, in turn, generate the explicit research questions in Chapter 3.

Significance of the Study

Research

This study may make a contribution to the body of knowledge concerning the relationship between organizational values, individual work-related values, and career progress. Despite the recognition of the importance of the influence of values on behaviour within organizations, several researchers emphasize the need for further information in this area (Campbell, Daft & Hubin, 1982; Posner & Munson, 1981). The difficulty of determining female-male value differences and similarities due to lack of research is also noted (Watson & Ryan, 1979). Value homophily is treasured by organizations, and may affect career advancement within them significantly because of the phenomenon of executive succession (Enz, 1988). Additions to the body of knowledge on female-male

value similarities and differences, may be useful at both the theoretical and practical levels.

The study has long-term significance for future research in that it provides baseline data for longitudinal studies to track possible value changes in the cohorts at the various managerial levels as they move through the system and as their seniority and status change.

Administration

This study provides an opportunity for senior public servants in British Columbia to assess the nature and appropriateness of current organizational values. Such a review could be of great utility to the Public Service as it strives to maintain a well-staffed, stable, and productive working environment in an era characterized by change in domestic, personal, and occupational lifestyles and by change in social expectations relating to equality and opportunity, all of which have a significant impact in the workplace.

With regard to gender, demographic forecasters expect that women will continue to enter and remain in the workforce in large numbers where they will continue to aspire to obtain interesting jobs and earn good incomes.

This suggests that administration will remain an attractive option to many women and that career advancement opportunities within management will be of continuing interest to women. The study may benefit women by explicating the value dimensions of organizational life with regard to hierarchical success. The findings of this study may assist senior executives in achieving their staffing objectives through expanding their knowledge of the effects of values and, on the basis of this new knowledge, indicate how women can be helped by senior management to advance in their careers.

Similarly, the findings may assist those senior officials directly responsible for filling management positions to be more successful in external competitive recruiting. It may help senior public servants to develop better organizational strategies and systems for recruiting, retaining, evaluating, developing, and promoting managers of both genders. Internally, the findings may help senior officials to develop a management cohort which is sophisticated in the value aspects of organizational life. Improved understanding of the relationship between organizational values and career advancement may be of benefit to aspiring managers by contributing to more relevant individual career planning

and professional development activities. In short, it may lead to better decision-making by aspiring managers and senior officials.

Assumptions, Limitations and Delimitations

Assumptions

1. The statistical techniques employed are appropriate for the analyses conducted.
2. The data published by Statistics Canada and the Government of British Columbia are as accurate and reliable as any obtainable.
3. Where data-reporting techniques have changed over time, the resulting differences are not so great as to impair comparability seriously.
4. The instrumentation and methodology will yield data sufficiently valid and reliable to generate confidence in the answers to the research questions.
5. Top-level executives are legitimate judges of organizational values.
6. The voluntary, unidentified participation by subjects, and assurances that complete confidentiality will be maintained and data used for research purposes only,

will ensure that subjects are truthful in their responses.

Limitations

1. Information on payroll data for the years 1986-1990 was based on the month of issue by the Office of the Controller General. These months varied from year to year, but were all in the first half of the calendar year. Data for 1991 are based on information from Government Personnel Services Division and are comparable.
2. Changes in the Labour Force Survey instituted in 1984 tend to raise the reported percentage of women working in management and administration slightly, compared with earlier years.
3. Value questions of social policy of a politically controversial nature, and of contentious philosophical debate, underlie aspects of this study and might intrude unconsciously into the research process.
4. Reliance by subjects on memory in reporting their career-entry values may lead to some distortion.

Delimitations

1. This study covers the period 1986 to 1991.
2. The analysis is limited to a random sample of management employees of the Government of British Columbia, employed at management levels 3 to 6, and 8 to 12. Managers at levels 1, 2, and 7 were not included, for reasons which are explained later in the text.

Definition of Terms

In the course of the study, essential definitions will be given in full, but the following preliminary definitions serve to explain key concepts.

Excluded managers: Managers excluded from membership in a union or licensed professional bargaining unit, by agreement between the bargaining unit and the employer.

Chief Executive Officer in the Public Service: Deputy Minister. B.C. Public Service Management Level 12.

Senior manager: Assistant Deputy Minister or Executive Director. B.C. Public Service Management Levels 8 to 11.

Middle manager: B.C. Public Service Manager Levels 5 and 6.

Junior manager: B.C. Public Service Manager Levels 3 and 4.

Administration: The formulation and implementation of collective purposes. It subsumes management which is essentially the implementation of policy rather than its formulation.

Administrator: An employee located high in the organizational status hierarchy who determines, in part or in whole, the organizational values.

Career advancement: Career progression, through vertical, lateral, and radial movement within the organization, which ultimately leads to promotion.

Radial movement: Movement within the organization which involves drawing closer to those who hold positions of power and influence.

Central agencies: The controlling agencies of government which provide policy direction, monitoring, and evaluation for ministries and other government organizations. The Premier's Office, Treasury Board, and Government Personnel Services Division are examples of central agencies.

Value: A concept of the desirable or preferred state of affairs, which possesses motivating force.

Value system: An orientation of values with dynamic and static ordering.

Value conflict: A situation at the intra-personal, intra-hierarchical, or inter-hierarchical level in which there is contention between contradictory values.

Organizational values: Values considered most important by an organization in carrying out its mission and goals and achieving its objectives.

Work-related individual values: Values considered most important by individuals in accomplishing workplace objectives and personal goals.

Metavalue: A concept of the desirable so vested and entrenched that it seems beyond dispute or contention.

Needs, wants and desires: Indicators of individual or group deficiency or shortfall with a consequent potential or propensity for remedial action. They are not values in themselves, but are sources of value.

Motives: Conscious reasons or subconscious drives, or some combination of both, which are a source of value.

Attitudes: Surface phenomena: predispositions to act or respond to stimuli in relatively stable or persistent ways which provide the first public manifestations of value.

Organizational culture: The shared pattern of basic values, attitudes, and norms held by the organization's members.

CHAPTER 2

Review of the Literature and Research

Before the relationship between organizational values, personal values and the career advancement of women managers can be examined, described, interpreted, and understood, clarification of the nature of these issues is essential. Therefore, the review of the literature for this study will examine the issues from a broad perspective, in accordance with the following outline:

Organizational Values and Work-Related Personal Values

- a. The relationship between organizational values and administration
- b. Shared values in organizations
- c. Comparison of values between men and women managers
- d. Traditional and emergent values
- e. Human resource management issues

Career Advancement Issues

- a. Women managers: Success factors
- b. Women managers: Obstacles to advancement

- c. Work and family responsibilities
- d. Sex-role stereotypes and management
- e. Approaches to the career advancement of women managers

Organizational Values and Work-Related Personal Values

The Relationship Between Organizational Values and Administration

Values have been defined as concepts of the desirable which possess a motivating force (Hodgkinson, 1978) and, as such, appear to be of interest to organizations which, through their administrative practices, attempt to achieve their organizational goals. However, although substantial research has been conducted on employee and managerial values, the influence of organizational values on administrative practices in organizations has been less pursued and merits attention (England, 1967; Phillips & Kennedy, 1980). The empirical study of values in organizations is thought by some researchers to be difficult because of vagueness associated with the study of values and because values are intangible, inchoate, and hard to get at (Kaplan, 1964; Kelly, 1980; Mindell &

Gordon 1981). The difficulty of obtaining relevant data on organizational values from appropriate sources has been recorded (Sussman, Richio, & Behohlev, 1983) as has the difficulty of determining the values of an organization unless they are embodied in charters, creeds, recruitment materials or formal statements of corporate philosophy (Schein, 1973). Nevertheless, it has been recognized that there is a large component of value judgement in the practice of administration and that the hesitancy of administrators about coming to grips with value questions may be partly attributed to their complexity (Hodgkinson, 1978).

Typically, organizational values are qualitative rather than quantitative in nature in that they commonly refer to such qualities as excellence, innovation, growth, service, and equality and may be expressed via slogans such as "IBM means service" (O'Neill, 1985, p. 20). Organizational values indicate what matters are to be attended to most assiduously, what kinds of information are to be taken most seriously and what kinds of people are to be most respected within the organization, (Deal and Kennedy, 1982). Sharing values with the organization would appear to have the potential to affect the career development of women managers positively, but there has

been little specific research.

Productivity is an important value for most organizations, and it is thought that frustration of career expectations may result in lower productivity (Reitz 1981). Colwill (1982), however, suggested that job satisfaction is not a reliable predictor of productivity even though most organizations use it as such. Nevertheless, clarification of the relationship between possible career frustration and productivity is of academic and practical interest and research which examines the relationship between values and career advancement is required to aid understanding of the issue.

Attitudes demonstrate values, and the attitudes of key executives, especially the Chief Executive Officer, manifest the organizational values to employees and seem to have the greatest influence in developing and maintaining organizational core values (Sathe, 1983; Wilkins, 1983). It is thought difficult to differentiate between the values of Chief Executive Officers and those of the corporation (Mandt, 1979; Silverman, 1970). This value similarity seems to have implications for administrative practices relating to career advancement within organizations and Reskin and Hartmann (1986) identified senior level commitment to women's career advancement as one of several

factors crucial to increasing their opportunities. There would appear to be some potential for the Chief Executive Officer to impede or implement change in organizational values and to influence resulting administrative practices because little gets done which is unacceptable to dominant or influential political groups, which may be defined to include the bureaucratic leadership group Minogue (1983). It remains to be investigated whether the values of Chief Executive Officers are replicated by managers at subordinate levels in the administrative hierarchy, as one would expect, based on the above findings.

In their study of organizational values, Deal and Kennedy (1982) concluded that values are the bedrock of corporate culture and provide a sense of common direction for employees and guidelines for their behaviour within the organization. This suggests that the values of organizational leaders, such as senior managers, might be expected to be similar to those of the organization, and reinforces the need for investigation of whether this is so.

Peters and Waterman (1982) suggested that the most successful organizations try to develop strong cultures which are imbued with the organization's most esteemed

values and to find ways to break down functional divisions and to integrate common norms and priorities into everyday practices. Functional divisions seem to occur in reaction to the difficulties experienced by women in breaking the barriers to achieving senior management positions, and the investigation of factors which may be contributing to these divisions needs to occur.

Morgan (1986) saw the central values as symbols of important aspects of corporate philosophy but suggested that the existence of competing values and value systems within organizations may create a mosaic of organizational realities rather than a uniform corporate culture and that even where organizational values are emphasized, support for these values within the organization may be superficial. Modern organizations may appear to be sustained by belief systems that emphasize rationality and objective action, but Morgan views this as a myth designed to assist organizations to deal with the uncertainty and ambiguity underlying values and actions. Beliefs about the organization's identity, mission and ideal environment may have a tendency to be realized in administrative practice, and Morgan's views suggest that the effectiveness of change in administrative practice, such as advancing women in managerial careers and promoting them to the most senior

levels, depends on changes in the images and values that influence and guide socio-cultural action and on cultural change. He indicated that where organizational culture is strong and robust, employees exude the characteristics that define the identity and mission of the organization and that managers can influence this organizational culture by being aware of the symbolic importance of their actions and by fostering the desired values.

Morgan suggested that many organizations are dominated by gender-related values that bias organizational life in favour of one sex over another. In his view, segmenting of opportunity structures and job markets may enable men to achieve positions of power and prestige more easily than women and may produce gender-related biases in the way the organizational reality is created and sustained. Both open and less visible discriminatory practices may pervade an organization. Thus, even in apparently rational and democratic organizations, modes of domination in which certain people or groups acquire and sustain an overwhelming influence over others, perhaps through subtle processes of socialization and belief, may affect administrative practices. Pfeffer and Ross (1990) suggested that public organizations are more likely to discriminate in promotion than are private organizations.

To some degree, this was refuted in a study of barriers to women in the Canadian Public Service in which women, in general, were found not to advance more slowly than men. Even so, the reduction of discrimination and stereotyping were among the most important items identified by women for improving their rate of advancement, and organizational values appear to have a bearing on the problem (Government of Canada, 1990). In view of this disagreement, investigation of the achievement levels of male and female managers in relation to their levels of education, years of service and other related factors, is necessary, and the findings may add weight to one or other of the opinions.

Organizations pursue metavalues, which tend to go beyond values and to be regarded as beyond dispute but, in his discussions of metavalues, Hodgkinson (1963, 1978) warned that although metavalues are by definition good, they may not necessarily be right. In his view, the most pervasive metavalues are maintenance, growth, effectiveness, and efficiency, and he claimed that maintenance is essential for the survival of the organization in order to carry on its basic functions. He noted that growth necessitates competition for resources and power, and success in attaining these may also provide the organization with protective layers of personnel,

although over-reaching expansion may be destructive, since size is not necessarily an indication of quality or rightness. According to Hodgkinson, effectiveness and efficiency are the dominant metavalues in administrative and organizational life, and an organization is effective if it can achieve its purposes. The questions raised regarding the possible "rightness" of certain metavalues, suggest that the tendency of metavalues to override values in administrative decision-making, and the possible outcome of this tendency in connection with the career advancement of women, may merit examination.

In pursuing metavalues, organizations utilize rational processes, but the dangers of the use of exclusively rational processes are discussed by Begley (1990) in his study of the influence of values on administrators' decision making. In this study he suggested that an exclusively rational view can be devoid of feelings and full of unexamined values. In terms of investigating value-laden issues such as the career advancement of women, the literature seems to imply that it is essential to involve both the head and the heart as one examines the values and metavalues which may both contribute to administrative practices which affect women's progress in the workplace.

Hodgkinson's Value Paradigm (1983) provides a tool for an analysis which considers rational and emotional aspects of an issue, because it acknowledges that any value can be manifested at any of its four levels. In descending order of power from what is "right" to what is "good", these are: Type I, principles; Type IIA, consequences; Type IIB, consensus; and Type III, preference. Type I values of principle are transrational in that they go beyond reason, and imply an act of faith, intent, or will. Type II values of rationality may move from general agreement, perhaps manifested through legislation on an issue, to a higher level of rationality in which the consequences of an action are considered, and decisions made on the basis of such deliberation. Type III values of preference are justified in accordance with the liking or preference for them felt by the individual. It appears that administrative decisions and actions relating to the career advancement of women may be influenced by values deriving from any of the grounds described above, and that the Value Paradigm may assist appropriate analysis of this issue.

Simmons-Kiecker (1982) investigated the differences in men's and women's perceptions and experience of organizational reality relating to gender, through intensive, in-depth interviews with six executive men. At

a rational level, all six subjects acknowledged women's competencies in terms of being successful in their careers and their contribution to the organization. However, some subjects claimed not to have experienced this in their interaction with female employees. Male executives either felt accepting of female executives at a personal level or they were threatened by them. Accepting males were supportive and understanding of female employees, but threatened males were not.

Nash's (1981) findings that executives believe corporate values and operations are dynamically intertwined but that no workable process for the effective articulation of organizational values exists, and that, despite the good intentions of Chief Executive officers, their plans often fail to be implemented at lower levels, also have implications for administrative action relating to the career advancement of women. She stated that unless the Chief Executive Officer articulates his values and expectations, and monitors the results, his intentions will not be accomplished, especially if there are competing values at other levels. Larwood, Gutek and Gattiker (1984), in a study on resistance to change, discussed ways in which organizations can eliminate discrimination where it exists. They claimed that strenuous efforts made by the

power holders to insist that discrimination is not acceptable and that organizational values will supersede the values and preferences of managers in hiring and promotion decisions, were effective. In situations of resistance to change, such as may exist in the context of the career advancement of women, where values of principle, consensus, consequence, and preference may each play a part in influencing continuation of the status quo versus implementation of change, examination of the comparative strengths of these types of values may provide useful clues as to the likelihood of the change being implemented or rejected. An approach to understanding the complexities of the situation is needed, and Hodgkinson's Value Paradigm provides a tool for such an analysis.

Motivation and its connection to values in administration is less often discussed than outcomes. However, researchers appear to be at the early stages of conducting integrated examinations of the possible compatibility or competition between administrators' attempts to achieve organizational goals, the desire of women to achieve career goals, and the influence of intervening factors, such as traditional management approaches, on these issues. Needs, wants and desires, with their underlying tension, implication of shortfall,

and potential for remedial action, can affect organizations and individuals, and were discussed by Hodgkinson (1978) as sources of value and as related to the concept of motivation. Hodgkinson stressed the problem behind motivated behaviour where the end is not in sight, but is subconscious or even unconscious. It may be that in the issue of the achievement of organizational goals through administrative practices, unexamined motivation and values may affect the career advancement of women positively or negatively. Hodgkinson's Value Paradigm provides a structure through which the connection between value and motivation in the workplace may be examined.

In general, the implications of the research discussed above on organizational values in administrative decision making, as they relate to the career advancement of women, appear to be serious. Research which compares the values of the organization and those of male and female managers at all levels is required to determine whether shared values appear to have the potential to assist women to achieve senior management positions, and also to aid general understanding of the problem.

Shared Values in Organizations

Successful organizations appear to attempt to maintain a high degree of shared values between the organization and its employees (Uttal, 1983). This seems essential to success because shared values represent common basic assumptions that guide organizational thinking and activities (Sathe, 1983). Shared values also seem desirable from the employee perspective, and research has suggested that job satisfaction, work commitment, communication, and career progression will all be improved where employee and organizational values are shared (Andrews, 1967; Barth, 1973; Kemelgor, 1982; Kidron, 1978). In one study of 1,460 managers, Schmidt and Posner (1983) concluded that shared values between the organization and the employee lead to greater feelings of personal success, strengthen loyalty to the organization and commitment to organizational goals, reduce work/home stress levels and are a major source of personal and organizational effectiveness. It has been suggested that the goals of women in management could be more easily achieved within organizations whose values were more similar to their own values (Larwood & Lockheed, 1979).

A weakness of many of the studies in which researchers find generally positive outcomes relating to the sharing of values, is their failure to discuss any potentially dysfunctional effects on employees of sharing values with the organization. Morgan (1986) is one of the few researchers to do this. He claimed that, in order to advance in their careers, executives may feel they must identify and comply completely with the organization's values. An ensuing dysfunctional effect may be workaholism and, in his view, the negative effects on health, marriage and family of such conditions as workaholism can be horrendous. Investigation of employee values and of their work status, marriage and family situations, and views on a balanced lifestyle is required to add to the understanding of this specific issue.

Kasten and Astbaugh (1988), in a comparative study of values in administrative decision making, supported Morgan's finding that there is a tendency in administrators to subordinate their personal concerns to organizational issues. They claimed that this tendency allows organizational values to dominate decision making and suggested that the danger of doing this is that the individual becomes less valued than the organization. In their opinion, administrators need to be conscious of their

personal values and continually self-reflective about the relevance and legitimacy of those values as guides to action in organizations. Begley (1990) took issue with Kasten and Ashbaugh as to whether organizational or personal values dominate administrative decision making. His opposing view suggests that investigation of the difference between organizational values and those of managers at all levels is needed to aid the understanding of value domination within organizations.

A further weakness of some studies relating to the sharing of values, is their failure to investigate how organizational values are identified and interpreted by employees. Marchilonis (1983) noted that newcomers to organizations often do not adopt the corporate values because they are not consistently espoused, transmitted and practised, nor do mechanisms exist to perform these functions. Warick (1987) outlined the difficulties experienced by employees in organizational value identification and stressed the need for research to provide a basis for the development of mechanisms through which newcomers to organizations can analyze and define the organization's values and check for personal value compatibility. In Lang's (1986) study of values and the commitment of individuals to organizations, he

suggested that a socialization process reflecting the organizational values is essential to the inculcation of commitment in employees. Such a socialization process may, in fact, occur naturally over time, and Hodgkinson (1970), in a study of organizational influence on value systems, suggested that as individuals accumulate some experience with the organization, the gap between personal and organizational values closes. Scott and Hart (1979), shared Hodgkinson's viewpoint on this issue and claimed that the longer people remain in management jobs the more they will absorb the orthodox managerial outlook and their personal values come to reflect those of the organization. Research to check these views within the contemporary workforce is required.

Organizational problems such as poor motivation, lack of commitment and low productivity have been attributed to conflicting values between organizations and employees (Mankoff, 1974). Briscoe (1980) noted that the interface between treatment of employees as humans and as resources is a potential flash point for major problems between organizations and employees. Researchers tend to agree on the dysfunctional effects of divergence between the values of the organization and those of employees, and the benefits of convergence. However, little consideration

appears to have been given in the research to the possible utilization of value differences to the benefit of the organization in terms of future growth or development. Investigation of the difference between the values of the organization and those of managers at various levels of achievement would add specific information to the general body of knowledge in these areas.

Comparison of Values Between Men and Women Managers

Male and female values have been fairly widely examined in the research literature, but the findings from comparative studies tend to be inconclusive and contradictory. Among those who claim to have found differences between male and female values are Gilligan (1982) and Lips and Colwill (1978) who argued that there are fundamental differences in values between men and women and that men make value decisions based on an ethic of fairness, equality, and justice whereas women make value decisions based on caring and avoidance of inflicting hurt. In similar vein, Bussey and Maughan (1982) suggested that men differ from women in moral orientation, with men oriented towards rights and women towards caring. The consequences of these possible differences in the

organizational context are insufficiently explored by these authors, however. and research which adds to the understanding of the effects of any differential value orientations of male and female managers is required.

In a study of the professional goals of administrators, based upon the Value Orientation Model of Career Choice which holds that individuals react towards different goals because they hold different values, Afzali (1984) suggested that there was a significant difference in professional goals held by men and women, which he related to their contrasting values resulting from the different socialization processes within the workplace.

Howard and Bray (1988) also noted differences in male-female values expressed as behavioral differences related to management. They claimed that women are different in personality, interests, and values from conventional expectations of the manager role and more likely to be task oriented, motivated to do what they like, and self-evaluating, than their male counterparts. They claimed that men are more loyal, self-interested, ambitious, independent, optimistic, and realistic than women. Howard and Bray's additional finding that women were less likely than men to develop close friendships at work, although it brings into question the findings of other researchers

relating to the depth of women's feelings towards their colleagues and the orientation of women towards caring for others, did not adequately investigate the question of time constraints upon women's opportunity to develop close relationships in the workplace brought about by their role as the primary caregivers at home. The relationship between level of career achievement and family responsibilities requires investigation.

The differences in values between men and women examined by Lenz and Myerhoff (1985) influenced their optimism for the future of organizations and society. In their view, women are reshaping the workplace by introducing more humanistic values. They outlined their belief that women's willingness to listen and their care for others positively affect the qualitative aspects of the work environment, and that women's values are beginning to be adopted by men who are realizing that the values and attributes that have been disdained as feminine are essential human resources for personal growth and relationships. Lenz and Myerhoff described women as making a positive contribution to the quality of life and work in the workplace through their uniquely feminine qualities and values and by bringing a warm, humanizing quality to the workplace through integration of love and work.

Scherr (1988) examined the effects of women's values on how they define themselves, the way they reason about moral dilemmas, and how they view success, and discussed the compatibility of the values they hold with the male-dominated mode of operating within organizations. She questioned how women can survive and succeed in "masculine" organizations and still nurture their value differences. Scherr also suggested that women can contribute to the humanization of organizations, which many men also find alienating, by speaking out and sharing their perceptions.

The belief that the values traditionally held by women are now being adopted by men, and that women are humanizing the workplace, is not accepted by all researchers. Indeed, Cullen (1990), in her critique of contemporary management ideology, took the contrary viewpoint and claimed that there is still unquestioning acceptance of the characteristics needed to get ahead in careers, of how things should be done in organizations and on how they should be structured, and that the model upon which this acceptance is based is a male model. Investigation of contemporary differences between the values held by organizations and those held by managers, and of managers' comparative perception of appropriate career development behaviours, is needed to assist researchers to get at the

truth pertaining to both sides of the continuing argument.

A study of the differing importance placed on values by 190 graduate students in business, by gender, suggested that women attach significantly more importance to the values of beauty, freedom, happiness, independence, and self-respect than men, and researchers found that no values were rated higher by the male subjects (DeVito, Carlson & Kraus, 1984). Ryan, Watson, and Williams (1981), in a study of the relationship between managerial values and managerial success of male and female managers, found significant differences between males and females in 11 of 66 scales including autonomy, compromise, confidence, emotion, equality, government, leisure, liberalism, skill, stockholding, and organizational stability. In each case of significance, the mean score of female managers exceeded that of male managers.

It can be seen from the studies cited above that although these researchers agree that there are differences between the values of men and women managers, not all of the research truly examined values. Other constructs, termed values but relating more to attitudes and behaviour, tended to enter the discussion from time to time. Additionally, few of the studies directly compared the values of men and women managers with those of the

organizations which they serve. These omissions indicate that research relating only to values and investigating the difference between values of managers and of organizations is required to clarify the work of earlier researchers.

In contrast to the findings cited above, many other researchers found no significant differences between the values of men and women managers. In a comparative study of personal values among male and female managers, using England's Personal Values Questionnaire, no significant differences were found between the two groups of managers (Watson & Ryan, 1979). Boulsarides and Rowe (1983) claimed that the value profiles of successful women seem to resemble those of successful men. McCaney and Ahmed (1989) found no significant differences across gender in the meanings of work values among public service managers, and other research suggested that the work values of female managers are similar to those of male managers (Greenberger, 1982).

O'Neill (1985), in a comparative study of shared values in organizations, found no significant differences between men and women managers in the importance they attached to the organizational values of employees' welfare, organizational growth, high productivity, organizational stability, profit maximization, social

welfare, organizational efficiency and industrial leadership, and found that a similar degree of shared values exists among men and women managers.

A study of the personal value systems and career goals of men vis-a-vis women officers in the United States Air Force, in which the values and objectives of 307 female and 323 male officers were analyzed to establish which were likely to be translated into behaviour, refuted conventional wisdom that women do not seek responsible jobs. Women appeared to be at least as positively career inclined and more dedicated to their military organizations than men with the same years of service (Bartholomew, 1973).

Poston (1989) surveyed 944 sales managers across the United States to investigate whether men and women have different values regarding the traits they admired in leaders. Gender was not found to be significantly correlated with the 21 leadership traits rated. For both sexes the highest ranking characteristics were honesty, ability to inspire, competence, and vision, and there was an overwhelming preference for male leaders by both men and women, regardless of the respondents' gender, age or time in corporate management.

Schmidt and Posner (1982; 1983) studied the perceived compatibility between men and women managers' personal values and the values of their organizations. They concluded that women managers see their values as being more compatible with those held by their organizations than do male managers. In their study, managers of both genders, and managers at all levels believed a close link between personal and organizational values to be the key to effective management. It was also claimed that women value career development more than do men, are prepared to work longer hours, and derive more satisfaction from their jobs. A weakness of this research was that the organizational values were unspecified in the Shared Value Scale developed and used by these researchers, therefore the reliability and validity of the data collected are questionable. The findings do challenge certain sex-role stereotypes relating to women's roles in organizations, but duplication of parts of this research using more reliable instruments is indicated.

Whether or not there are significant differences between men's and women's values, value compatibility with organizations is of interest to contemporary researchers, based on the inconclusive nature of earlier research. It remains to be investigated whether the perceptions of

Schmidt and Posner's subjects that women's values are less different from those of their organization than are men's holds true among public service managers.

Rokeach (1973) indicated that value differences among individuals may not be in the mere presence or absence of values, but in the hierarchical arrangement of the values they hold, and this concept, extended to include value differences between individuals and the organization, also merits investigation in the public sector. Further analysis of these issues and of the organizational values held by managers, and comparison of the values of male and female managers is indicated by the foregoing literature.

Traditional and Emergent Values

Traditional North American work values based on a commitment to materialistic goals appear to be undergoing change, and it may be that individual value changes affect the values of organizations. Some organizational theorists believe that organizational values based on humanistic and democratic ideals are replacing the values of depersonalized bureaucratic systems (Margulies & Raia, 1972). The shift in values relating to gender roles is an example of the fulfillment of this predicted change and

Greenglass (1982) illustrated the effects of the shift through his discussion of concerns about the low percentage of women in senior positions in organizations.

Researchers have identified a loss of confidence in employees' commitment to organizational values because workers appear to feel less satisfied, less equitably treated, and less respected than they did twenty five years ago (Cooper, 1979). Other researchers reported an undercurrent of restlessness and diminished loyalty to jobs, which they predicted could cause problems for organizations in terms of absenteeism and costly turnover rates (Renwick and Lawler, 1978). Pierre (1986) and Morrison (1987) also warned that the negative effects of current workplace stress, pressure and frustration might lead to attrition. Berg and Hunter (1990) confirmed this possibility in their investigation of the attrition of a wide range of highly trained professional women from the workforce. The women, who were partially but not totally committed to their professions and careers, claimed to have experienced a clear conflict with the values of the male organizational ethos. They reported that depersonalization of the workplace was problematic for them, as was balancing work and family responsibilities. They claimed to regret the values which forced them to make the decision to leave

their careers, as they wanted to contribute to society and be professionally fulfilled, but stated that they also wanted a balanced life.

From his research, Maccoby (1989) claimed to have distinguished two types of values in the workplace: traditional male values focused on individual achievement and advancement up the hierarchy; and traditional female values focused on helping others and gaining appreciation. In his view, a value shift caused by changes in family structure and socialization has occurred and new generation values have evolved which are shared by men and women, and focus on gaining independence and opportunity for self-development. He described the struggles of the new generation to create a balanced life, sacrificing neither work nor family. Maccoby claimed that one fifth of all managers, but one third of those under 30 and 40% of new college graduates, possess new generation values and predicted that their numbers will continue to increase as the number of dual-career families increases. He noted that some very competent young managers do not aspire to top positions because they feel uncomfortable with their superiors. Instead of promotions, they seek lateral transfers that prepare them to start or join entrepreneurial businesses. It appears possible that

this discomfort may be indicative of value differences between managers and their organizations.

This shift from traditional to contemporary values is regarded by some researchers as the most important factor affecting employee and managerial behaviour. Worker values appear to have changed and the demand for individual recognition and self-fulfillment to have increased in tandem with the decline in motivation and productivity (Baird & Meshoulam, 1984; Stanton, 1983). Yankelovitch (1978) attributed these expectations to the markedly different values of adults who matured during the social movements of the 1960s and 1970s. He predicted that the new work values will affect the management ranks and create a new breed of managers to match the new breed of workers. Breen (1983) suggested that failure of organizations to recognize the changing managerial value systems is a major cause of conflict between top executives and middle managers. It has also been suggested that the new social values are resulting in change in the character of work and pressure on organizations to take into consideration the welfare of society as well as to make profits (Thompson, 1978).

On the whole, agreement by researchers on the existence of value change and of the potentially negative

effects of this change on organizations tends to be general in nature and non-specific in terms of comparing the values of the organizations with those of contemporary managers at different levels and of different genders. Specific research, therefore, is required. Another deficiency is the lack of research into whether there are differences between the perceptions of male and female managers, and between the perceptions of managers at different levels of achievement, regarding the need to work very long hours, be available whenever needed, and put job before family, in order to affect career advancement positively. Such information might aid understanding of the issue by academics and add to the capability of top executives and managers to understand and resolve the problems which face them. Since this is the first generation in which most couples seem to find it necessary for both partners to hold paid jobs in order to ensure economic survival, the understanding by organizations and managers of the possible consequences of agreement or disagreement between personal value systems and those of organizations has crucial implications in personal, social, and economic terms.

Human Resource Management Issues

An important task of the human resource manager is to support the achievement of organizational goals through the identification of appropriately qualified staff to undertake the necessary work. Burke (1990) discussed population demographics which suggest that, in the next decade, Canadian organizations will have an increasingly difficult time attracting and retaining staff. Burke claimed that the pool of trained and experienced women will be a critical resource for them and that the challenge will be to fully utilize women's talents along with the talents of men. According to Burke, human resource managers are aware of the new, and intensive, concern on the part of organizations to improve their understanding of the unique qualities and problems that women bring to the workplace and the effects women are having and will have on organizations of the future. A variety of problems appears to beset working women and resolution of many of them is delegated to human resource managers. In his analysis of research needs for the nineties, Burke suggested that there are insufficient solutions to help managers and government policy-makers be creative and successful in dealing with the opportunities and issues that face these women. This

shortage of solutions may partially be resolved through research into the relationship between women's career advancement and organizational values. Such research may, in the long term, positively affect the satisfaction and well-being of women and men, both in the work environment, and in their personal lives.

Sabia (1990:a) examined the issues that arise when female socialization meets male corporate culture, in which masculine rules of career development apply. These issues relate predominantly to the organizational values of productivity and efficiency in the workplace, and to human resource utilization - all of which Sabia described as of major concern to managers striving to make their businesses more competitive in the global economy. She stressed the need for research which will assist businesses to recruit, train, develop, and retain the best employees of both genders. She concluded that since few women become senior managers, businesses are underutilizing or losing talent they have invested heavily in developing. Research on improved methods of human resource management with emphasis on women professionals was recommended.

Studies which compare the values of those employees of both genders who do become senior managers with the values of managers at lower levels may, ultimately, contribute to

improving methods of resource management with emphasis on women professionals, as recommended by Sabia.

Woody (1990) explored the factors relating to women achieving top management positions, from a human resource management perspective. In her opinion, contemporary human resource development approaches, coupled with strong commitment by top management, may accelerate representation of women in senior management positions. Her view that optimal organization and production assume a free flow of resources, including human resources, into production, implies that constraints and artificial restrictions such as subjective bias create a sub-optimum economy. In her view, in order for human resource personnel to attract the best managers, assurance is required that a professional meritocracy exists where entry, mobility, and leadership opportunities are open and where performance, as opposed to politics or individual preference, dominates.

Investigation of the values of managers may shed light on impediments to the free flow of resources and thereby aid human resource managers in their efforts to reduce the risk of organizational mediocrity and assist the career advancement of women. It remains to be investigated whether the values of high achieving managers are different from those of managers in lower level positions.

Peitchinis (1990), in his study of discrimination against working women, suggested that the segregation of women and men into different occupations, when not based on performance, is a significant source of inefficiency in the allocation and use of human resources, resulting in men and women undertaking employment in which their potential is underutilized. In his view, these inefficiencies include: the failure to develop the full potential of a scarce human resource; the possibility that workers of inferior, rather than superior potential may be developed; and the impact of resentment related to the injustice of the situation on working relationships and on the efficiency of the working process. According to Colwill (1982), failure of human resource managers to reduce inefficiencies by including the female cohort in the development of the senior managerial cohort will incur costs to all parties including: failure to tap good resources; risk of legal action; poor public image; and low levels of job satisfaction. Distortion and the inability to make the rational decisions in which organizations take pride are also cited as costs to those who discriminate by excluding women. Costs to the individual, in Colwill's view, are emotional, economic, and lead to loss of opportunities.

Rationality, efficiency and cost effectiveness tend to be important organizational values, and contemporary issues such as the career advancement of women, which researchers seem to relate to the achievement of organizational goals, remain to be more thoroughly investigated. In particular, investigation of the difference in values held by female managers at all levels and those of their organization is required.

A recent study of women managers and professionals suggested that the issue of the career advancement of women has progressed from a moral issue to an economic one for organizations since, because of the reduction in the number of young people entering the labour market, organizations can no longer afford to overlook the talents of their female workforce (Chapman 1989). The study is unclear as to whether approaching women's career advancement from an economic rather than a moral viewpoint would lead to less avoidance of the issue and to more positive results for women who aspire to senior management positions.

Research is now needed which will provide information which may have the potential to contribute to improving human resource management processes relating to the selection and development of the most highly talented representatives of both genders.

Career Advancement Issues

Women Managers: Success Factors

The female labour force in North America has grown dramatically and consistently since the 1960s and, over the past thirty years, there has been a steady and significant increase in the number of women in traditionally male-dominated professions such as management (Gray, 1983). It appears that women's most significant move in the workforce has been into management and the number of female managers and administrators doubled in the seventies whereas male managers increased by only 14% in the same decade (Schmidt & Posner, 1983). In British Columbia, the number of women in the provincial labour force tripled between 1969 and 1989. By 1988, 29% of the Province's female labour force worked in management, the professions, and administration, according to a statistical analysis prepared for British Columbia's Women's Programs Office (Fenn, 1990).

Several reasons why women moved from the more sheltered home environment to that of the autonomous worker have been suggested including consciousness raising by the women's movement which highlighted women's sense of weakness and led to women using work as a means to overcome

their perceived weakness, according to Veroff (1982). Additionally, changes in women's attitudes and values towards compensation seem to have occurred and women appear to be becoming more materialistic. In a longitudinal study over ten years, it was found that 77% more women wanted to be well off financially at the end of the period than at the beginning (Astin, King and Richardson, 1979). Improved education opened the doors to the workforce and enabled women to enter middle management and by 1975, 15% of management trainees were women compared with 1% in 1965 (Brown, 1981). Female holders of business degrees tripled between 1973 and 1983 (Fischgrund, 1983) and among all the employment changes in the major groups of the managerial and professional category from 1976 to 1987 examined by Statistics Canada, the grouping in which women registered the biggest percentage gain was the Managerial/Administrative grouping in which they experienced a 282% increase (Collard 1989).

The increase in the numbers of women in management positions and current interest in their career development is such that the characteristics and behaviours which women managers need to demonstrate in order to succeed have become of increasing interest to researchers.

Commitment to career is one possible success factor which has been studied by several researchers who suggested that women are more likely to look to their careers for personal satisfaction than male colleagues, are more committed to their jobs and organizations, and seem to show more self-sacrifice in terms of their work than men (Schmidt & Posner, 1983). However, Donohue (1981) warned that commitment may wane if women begin to feel a need to pursue a different lifestyle once they achieve their early ambitions. In his view, transitional periods occur in the lives of women which provide opportunities for re-evaluating their lives and establishing new goals for each upcoming decade. It remains to be investigated whether there are differences between the perceptions of male and female managers, and between the perceptions of managers at different levels of achievement, of the importance of commitment as expressed through such behaviours as constant availability and willingness to work very long hours, to their career advancement.

Communication has long been regarded as crucial to good administration (Barnard, 1938; Katz & Kahn, 1978; Simon 1948) and skill in this area can, therefore, be viewed as a potential career success factor. Women appear to have an advantage in this respect because, whereas men

appear to be less encouraging, considerate, and accurate in their communication, female communication styles may be more motivational (Kotthoff, 1984). The contribution that women's communication habits make towards accomplishing integrative decision-making and group problem solving has also been documented by Bendelow (1983) and by Hyman and Kahn (1984). In two studies carried out by Hyman (1980) in industrial settings, male and female managers were thought to communicate differently from one another, with males tending to be more dominant and quicker to challenge subordinates, whereas women supplied more information to subordinates than did males. Women tended to stress interpersonal relations, appeared more receptive to ideas and encouraging of effort and, overall, were seen as better communicators. In Hyman's view, women managers seem to have their own uniquely feminine communication style that aids them in their efforts to achieve organizational goals.

Much of the research on the importance of communication has been directed towards its contribution to the achievement of organizational goals. However, research has tended to neglect the influence of good communication skills on career advancement. It remains to be investigated whether managers perceive good communication to be important in the achievement of the personal goal of

career advancement and whether there is any difference between male and female managers in their perceptions of the importance of good communication skills to their career success.

The background underlying executive success for women was investigated by Anderson (1983) who compared the personal and professional lives of 16 female chief executive officers in both business and higher education to determine life patterns, sacrifices made, workplace discrimination experienced, and whether or not there are differences between the two groups of women. At an early stage, many of the women had been achievement oriented and competitive in athletics, academics or argumentation, had experienced adversity, had had the opportunity to practise leadership skills, and had developed good communication and team-playing skills. They came from supportive families, and had successful parents whom they admired and imitated. They had supportive husbands or no husbands. Most of these women felt they had sacrificed to reach their career goals in terms of time for self, children, friends and relaxation. There were far more similarities than differences between the two groups. They had followed traditional career paths to reach chief executive officer positions, and all had experienced discrimination. They

claimed to handle discrimination through a variety of methods including superior job performance, humour, confrontation, charm, or developing a tough skin. Though useful in a broad sense, this research failed to isolate key success factors adequately, and to identify clearly the most important background components. Failure to prioritize resulted in over-generalization at the expense of specific information.

Gilson's (1987) survey of 25 executive women listed in Dunn and Bradstreet's Million Dollar Directory, whose corporate titles were vice-president or above, suggested that education, intelligence, results orientation, and hard work were key success factors in women's career development. She found that the most successful women in terms of salary and position were the best educated. However, the subjects of the study tended not to realize this. Gilson pointed out the difference between the subjects' perceptions of factors vital to managerial success and the workplace reality. In her view, women often fail to grasp the realities of the corporate world. Whether the level of achievement of public service managers is related to the level of education held, and whether the perceptions of women managers at all levels as to the importance of education and of the behaviours, skills, and

training which researchers have suggested influence career success are similar to those of their male counterparts requires investigation.

Aspiration to reach the top may well be a success factor, and some researchers have explained the absence of women in senior administration as a matter of preference with males learning to prefer prestigious occupations and women to avoid them. In one study of sex differences and age trends in occupational preference and occupational prestige, the relationships between preference and prestige were found to be positive and stronger for males than for females; those between aversion and prestige were positive and stronger for females than for males (Barnett, 1975). Barnett concluded that women may be underrepresented in prestigious occupations such as senior administration, not because they opt for such roles and are thwarted, but rather because early in their development many women learn not to aspire to such positions, and that this may be due to rebuffs suffered by earlier generations which resulted in external barriers eventually becoming internalized. This suggests that, over time, this process may be reversible and that removing such barriers may lead to career success for more women.

Women's career aspirations appear to be partly dependent on the support of employers and colleagues, and on the role modelling of other women who have succeeded, and this issue has been discussed by several researchers. Edson (1981) suggested that if positions open up and some women demonstrate success in obtaining administrative positions, others begin to aspire to the ranks of administrators. Gilson (1987) found that executive women differed from men in the source of their career aspirations, in that they required more encouragement from employers or friends to further their careers. In her view, men are more likely to draw their career aspirations from within themselves than are women. Her theories may suggest explanations as to why women who achieve corporate success tend to be older than their male counterparts.

Kanter (1987) saw the issue not as one of preference but of opportunity, in which managerial cloning perpetuates opportunity and power problems. In an earlier analysis, (1977) which also related to opportunity, she suggested that more critical to women's success or failure than their gender is their number. She concluded that when they realize that very few of them will be promoted to prestigious positions, they make the job in hand their major source of satisfaction and self-esteem.

Alternatively, they gain this gratification through the quality of their relationships with co-workers. Thus, where there are few future career development prospects, being well liked becomes an alternative form of success. This appears to indicate that women do value success, but may have to invent alternative forms of success if career advancement is impossible. A similar logic might, of course, apply to those males who reconcile themselves to the realities of "no room at the top".

In general, the research suggests that career aspiration may relate to gender and implies that values held by gender affect career aspiration, but there is disagreement on the source of career aspiration and the reasons for gender differences. The perceptions of managers as to the contribution of the values held by them to their career success and the impediment to career advancement brought about by other values which they hold require investigation, in order to illuminate this issue.

An aggressive approach to advancement opportunities may contribute to career success and, in an investigation of the absence of women from the upper echelons of community college administration in Illinois, it was claimed that women failed to seek higher positions aggressively, but waited to be discovered (Lenny, 1980).

However, Pavan (1988) claimed, based on a survey of 622 aspiring and incumbent certified school administrators, that women's job search strategies were superior to men's in effort and technique. The study found that, in their efforts to overcome barriers to advancement, women submitted more applications, had more interviews, searched longer than men and employed more strategies than their male colleagues, with incumbent female superintendents using 17 strategies, whereas their male counterparts used 13. Pavan concluded that it cannot fairly be said that women are not trying hard enough to meet their career goals and suggested that any blame for women's lack of success needs to be assigned elsewhere.

Career success is often measured in terms of position achieved in the organizational hierarchy and, in an analysis of corporate cultures, it was found that values played an important role in determining how far anyone can rise in an organization (Deal & Kennedy, 1982). Other studies of managerial performance and advancement support the contention that advancement within organizations tends to be greater for managers whose values and needs are congruent with organizational values, which may pose a problem for ambitious women in that values have traditionally been defined by males ((Andrews, 1967;

Burrow, 1978). The successful model in management is essentially a male model, adapting to which may be difficult for women, according to Lenz and Myerhoff (1985) and O'Leary (1974).

Researchers appear to agree on the importance of values to career development and that male values prevail. There is disagreement among researchers about the effect that female values will have on management when women achieve executive positions and on whether women will remain in the competition for senior executive positions under the prevailing male model of success. The research is clouded by lack of clarity on whether or not managers' values within organizations are homogeneous and the issue urgently requires illumination. Investigation is needed to determine whether the values of male and female managers are significantly different by gender at various levels of achievement, and whether they are significantly different from those of the organization they serve.

Women Managers: Obstacles to Advancement

Despite the encouraging statistics on the increase in the number of women managers and their improved levels of education, research has shown that improved education for

women did not remove their educational disadvantage compared with men. Markoff (1988) found that in 1980, only 13% of women, compared with 20% of men, were graduates. Women continue to select traditional educations, even though modern technology seems to call for a scientific education (Richards, 1986). Most significantly for aspiring managers, few women entered engineering, which is a traditional source of managers in many fields (Rosenfeld 1982).

This situation has now changed somewhat and, in British Columbia, a higher percentage of women in the 15 to 25 year age group now earn degrees than their male counterparts, and the percentage of engineering graduates who are women has risen from 1% in 1972 to 12% in 1987 (Fenn, 1990). The human capital approach dominates contemporary approaches to labour economics and explains observed differences in participation rates as a function of comparatively lower investment in education and training (Ehrenberg and Smith, 1982). The predictive capability of this explanation, in terms of the quality and quantity of education women now have, requires verification with respect to women in management and investigation of the relationship between the educational levels of managers and their levels of career advancement is required. The

perceptions of women and men managers at all levels, as to the importance of holding post-graduate degrees, also remain to be investigated.

Different obstacles to women in entering administrative careers and rising to senior executive positions have been documented: difficulty in overcoming early sex-role conditioning (Hennig & Jardim, 1977); lack of successful female managers as role models (Greenwald, 1980); increased family pressures which affect women's ability to advance in their careers (Russell & Fitzgibbons, 1982); organizational inertia (Martin, Harrison & Dinitto, 1983); the male-dominated culture in organizations (Konrad, 1990); unsuitable behaviour and management style (Kipnis & Schmidt, 1988); and insufficient training (Woody, 1990).

It has been suggested that by influencing perceptions, stereotypes also influence action decisions bearing on women's career success and advancement. For example, in an experimental situation, when administrators were asked to act on requests from ostensible subordinates, requests for promotion and requests to attend conferences were granted significantly more often to males than females presenting the same justifications (Rosen & Jerdee, 1974, 1978). In her study of corporate policy relating to women, Woody (1990) found that although women participated broadly in

training at entry level, the dropoff was rapid in high-potential programs and women were rarely included in upper status management training, especially that involving secondment to prestigious business schools.

Action decisions likely to influence women's career advancement, also based on stereotypes, were discussed by Feather and Simon (1975) who noted that not only have stereotypes taught us that women have little interest in management and less interest in leadership positions, they have also described the few women who did succeed in the male domain as having unpleasant personalities.

Assertiveness, which is valued in males, is often disdained in women and Faranda (1980) suggested that assertive women tend to be socially rejected in organizations, which can affect their careers negatively.

Hussain (1981) examined the difficulties encountered and the support received by men and women middle managers in local government in New York. She found that women had almost the same level of aspiration as their male colleagues but men had a better understanding of their future goals. The overwhelming majority of women respondents perceived that women face discrimination but male respondents did not perceive women to be discriminated against. More detailed investigation of why these

perceptions differed would have added to the usefulness of the research. In terms of perception of obstacles to women's career advancement, Sutton and Moore (1985) replicated a 1965 survey of 1,900 women and claimed that women still see resistance to their progress in the corporate world, even though male executives' attitudes now seem more positive towards women in the workplace. Positive change in male attitudes is contested elsewhere, however (Peitchinis, 1989; Rothwell, 1986).

Peitchinis (1989) claimed that the barriers to women's career advancement remain and are subtle and highly effective. In his view, important components of the barriers to women's career advancement are discrimination in the selection process, differential assignment of responsibilities, slower promotion, and poorer pay. Peitchinis concluded that reducing subjectivity and arbitrariness in these activities will assist women to attain senior positions.

Discrimination in the selection process is discussed in Fidell's (1975) survey of hiring practices in psychology which, although it does not relate to managers, illustrates the problem. Heads of 147 academic departments were sent descriptive paragraphs of eight Ph.D.s who were given a male name half of the time and a female name the other

half. Respondents were asked to indicate the desirability of each candidate and the rank at which each should be offered a position. Although women were not rated as significantly less desirable employees than men, there was a significant difference in the ranks suggested for them. For men, associate professor was the modal response. For the identical descriptions bearing a female name, assistant professor was the mode. This suggests that assertion of belief in parity may accompany the practice of sexual discrimination. This research revealed that how discrimination operates is not always clear and a survey of the position of academic women 40 years after they were admitted to Cambridge University concluded that underrepresentation of women at all levels is the effect of discrimination which has been underestimated because of ignorance about how it operates (Hart, 1989).

A contrary viewpoint on discrimination in hiring in the university setting, which also does not relate to managers, was presented by Irvine (1991) who claimed that, for all other ranks than full professor, there has been discrimination in favour of women, against men, since the mid 1960s. Irvine's research utilized Statistics Canada data, and compared the estimated percentages of women applicants for positions with the percentages of women job

recipients. Except at the full professor level, he found the percentage of females hired to be greater than the percentage of female applicants. Irvine's explanations of the low percentage of female applicants compared with male applicants, and the small size of the pool of qualified women are persuasive, but ignore several non-quantifiable factors which have a bearing on both. Brown (1991), in a denunciation of preferential policies for women in universities, also suggested that there had been discrimination in Canadian Universities in favour of women, against men, since the mid 1960s. His analysis was based partially on data developed by Irvine.

On the basis of their study of discrimination against competent women, Hagen and Kahn (1975) suggested that competent women are often denied experiences likely to help them advance in their careers and that competent women are often excluded from task groups in favour of either competent men or incompetent women.

Despite the twelve year old Equal Opportunities for Women Policy and an unprecedented increase in the participation of women in the workforce, opportunities for the advancement for women are still more limited than they are for men in the Canadian Federal Public Service (Hunt, 1987). Research into the provision of equal

opportunities for women in terms of career advancement has tended to neglect investigation of the priority given to the provision of equal opportunities by chief executive officers, especially in the public service. This priority remains to be investigated in relation to the British Columbia Public Service as, indeed, does the broader question of what priority is given to a wide range of organizational values. Additionally, differences in perception between male and female managers at all levels as to the level of opportunity for career advancement available to public service managers by gender require investigation.

Many researchers have examined the involvement of women administrators in mentoring relationships which influence their career advancement. Donohue (1981) concluded, based on the findings of her study of the life styles and career stages of senior administrative women in higher education, that mentoring relationships are important to career development. However, Kovach (1985) uncovered an obstacle to women managers in developing the necessary mentoring relationships. Male managers senior in age and rank to female colleagues were found to be unwilling to act as mentors to them because of the prejudices of their typically non-career wives against

women in management and high status occupations. A further obstacle to women's career advancement appears to be that they often do not know how to use mentors (Gallese 1989). Additionally, in a study of 265 men and women in management positions, it was found that more men than women have contacts who could assist them to move to another position (Weigand, 1982).

Not all researchers agree on the value of mentorship to career advancement. Based on a random survey of 400 employees in the U.S. Civil Service, Vertz (1985) claimed that mentoring may have dysfunctional effects such as inhibiting protegees' self-sufficiency if the mentoring relationships become too strong. However, based on a survey of 1,600 senior executives from local, state, and federal governments in the United States, Henderson (1985) claimed that, despite the fact that mentoring is often viewed by outsiders as suspect, mentoring is beneficial to the future careers of public executives. Even so, difficulty in obtaining mentors seems likely to remain an obstacle, as researchers have warned of the diminishing supply of mentors with experience, due to constant restructuring within organizations (Sonnenfeld & Peiperl 1988).

Overall, there appears to be some disagreement among researchers as to the usefulness of mentorship as an aid to career advancement, particularly in relationship to women's careers. The perceptions of public service managers on this issue, and whether there are differences in perception by level and by gender require investigation.

In a study of women's career development, Rothwell (1986) documented many reasons for the slow advancement of women including: personnel policies and organizational structures which are not consciously discriminatory but which are shaped by the traditions of the male career; lack of provision for career breaks and re-entry; lack of appropriate provision for women's management development; organizational climate and the attitudes of senior managers; lack of awareness of the pervasiveness of masculine assumptions; lack of interest in the need for strategic change to increase the utilization of female resources; and lack of support for the few women who do succeed. He concluded that the emphasis currently placed on the development of human resource skills offers the best hope for company survival in a competitive world, but asked what changes are taking place to achieve a better utilization of the skills of the female proportion of the labour force. In his view, senior managers are frequently

so absorbed by the drive for profitability and productivity that the contribution that greater use of women's potential could make to them is usually ignored. He questioned the commitment to women's career advancement by senior executives who, while professing support for the advancement of women managers, only occasionally seem prepared to give any sustained commitment to a program of change. Rothwell suggested that, in terms of removing obstacles to women's career advancement, much depends on the attitudes of decision makers, and discussed the need for training courses designed to help men to explore awareness of themselves, their attitudes, and the implications of being a man in modern society.

Gallese (1989) also indicated that barriers to women's career advancement at the senior level are still holding firm and suggested that this will not change until the effects of the demographic changes currently taking place at lower and middle levels, where women are represented in somewhat greater numbers and where the pool of men is less, are felt at the senior levels.

Research indicates that many obstacles stand in the path of women's career advancement but, for the most part, fails to consider the role of values in women's slow progress through the managerial ranks and into senior

executive positions. What priority, for example, is given to organizational values which may affect career advancement, what organizational and personal value conflicts have been experienced by managers in the course of their careers, and what are their perceptions as to which values held by them have contributed to their career advancement, and which have hindered it? Is there a difference between organizational values and those of women managers which might partly explain the relatively slow career advancement of the women?

It should be noted that the issue of women's career advancement has been politicized by a broad spectrum of groups with strongly entrenched value orientations, including radical feminists, "REAL Women", and male interest groups on both sides of the issue. The resulting politically-oriented activism has, at times, impeded detached examination of the issue. This situation further reinforces the need for impartial research into the career advancement of women.

Work and Family Responsibilities

The influence of work and family responsibilities on career advancement is a contemporary issue of great

significance to men, women, and organizations. According to Faver (1981), women view work and family as equally enriching and important even though, as primary caregivers, women experience more negative effects of the dual role than do men. Because of heavier domestic responsibilities, women are less able than men to devote the necessary hours to compete effectively and achieve advancement in the workplace (Hochschild, 1989; Parasuraman, Greenhaus, Rabinowitch, & Mossholder, 1989; Shelton & Firestone, 1988).

Decisions relating to career dominance may also affect women's career advancement. Sometimes, the couple mutually agrees that the man's work matters more than the woman's, and the concomitant greater domestic responsibilities may lead to a situation in which the potentially equally successful female partner succumbs to fatigue and frustration and reverts from "having it all" to "giving it up" (Hochschild, 1989). Career advancement may involve a transfer to another city, and Highman (1985) discussed the special difficulty which this may pose for married women who, she claimed, are significantly more likely to decline than to accept transfers. In her study of the career advancement of 363 female executives, she found that 20% of married women surveyed expected to refuse promotional

transfers because of the dominance of husbands' careers, and that 49% expected to refuse them for other reasons which include the disruption of children's lives. However, 31% of married women surveyed expected to accept promotional transfers. One tenth of all women surveyed in the study had already done so.

Cullen (1990) discussed the critical stage in career development at which it is important to establish oneself as a key player in the organization and which usually coincides with the childbearing years. In her view, women who have a family are regarded as lacking in commitment and this may result in the loss of promising career opportunities. She emphasized the importance of examining the organizational structures to determine how they prevent women from advancing to senior positions, one important structure being the issue of family.

Condry and Dyer (1976) concluded that no amount of individual career preparation will be successful in advancing women into senior positions if there are not substantial changes in the social institutions in which both parenthood and careers are embedded. In their view, women will not be able to play both roles successfully unless career demands and expectations change. They believe that men will need to devote more time to children, and

women less so, if both are to be able to pursue careers in a family context, and both partners should suffer fewer negative social consequences for making this choice than is currently the case. Condry and Dyer warned that this adjustment may involve further disruption of the social fabric and a weakening of traditional ways of doing things, particularly insofar as families and careers are concerned, but that society and organizations can ill afford to continue using the creative energies of only half the population in achieving their objectives.

Change seems to be occurring in the level of male responsibility for young children, however, and men also experience conflict between work and family responsibilities (Greenhaus & Beutel, 1985). However, Greenhaus and Beutel did not sufficiently clarify the differential effect on men and women of family responsibilities. Cheeseman (1985) contested this finding and claimed there are fewer conflicts for men as they tend not to admit to family obligation.

Crouter (1984) studied the extent to which family effects on work were part of the daily experience of 55 employees in industry. His findings suggested that women experienced significantly greater difficulties than did men

and that women with young children at home experienced the greatest negative effect.

McBroom (1986) concluded that the sacrifices made by women for their careers were far greater than those of men, based on surveys of professional men and women. She interviewed 44 women in the finance field and 300 women executives and found that 52% were currently unmarried and 61% had no children, compared with a similar group of male executives of whom only 5% were unmarried at the time of the investigation and only 3% had no children.

Gilson (1987) in her study of the lives of executive women discussed the existence of conflicting values in relation to sex roles and the negative effect on women's career advancement of their tendency to be without partners and lack emotional support. She concluded that this rendered women unable to compete equally with men who were much more likely to be emotionally supported at home. She also concluded that top executive women should be encouraged to have children rather than to remain childless because society will suffer if the brightest women, who have risen to positions of corporate responsibility, fail to reproduce.

It appears that the masculine organizational ethos may promote the myth of "separate worlds" of workplace and

home by denying the interdependence of work and family (Voydanoff 1980). To some degree, this was confirmed in an examination of barriers to the advancement of women in business in which Friedman (1988) found that efforts to explain the slow progress of women in the corporate world have overlooked, underestimated and misinterpreted family factors. However, she claimed that now that women are recognized as crucial to corporate growth, companies that truly want to make use of all their talents are beginning to form policies that ease work-family stress. Questions relating to the importance to career advancement of constant availability, long hours, and the need to put work before family were inadequately answered, and further research is needed.

Rodgers (1989) concluded that business organizations need to worry about the family if they are to achieve organizational goals. In his view, companies will have to develop family programs and flexible schedules which enable them to compete effectively for workers. He suggested that they will also have to recognize that both men and women want more time with their families and are blaming companies when this does not happen; that company inflexibility on family issues decreases productivity; and that although children are the future work force, they are

not getting the personal and educational attention which they need.

Research suggests that the dual domestic and occupational role is harder on women than men, but the issue of loss and retention of women managers is not clearly understood although rejection of the senior administrative role by a substantial proportion of qualified women appears to have been influenced by the domestic demands on them (Shakeshaft, 1987). In Shakeshaft's view, the potential loss of experienced women managers has particular implications for organizations which value access to managerial talent in an era of international competition for expertise and profits. In her view, corporate values such as competitiveness, productivity, long term development, and stability appear to be key to the achievement of organizational goals and women will, in the next decade, make a significant contribution to the ability of organizations to achieve them. It remains to be investigated what differences exist between the values of personnel who accept the senior administrative role and those who operate at lower management levels. This may provide useful information to illuminate the issues of loss and retention.

Schwartz (1989) compared the career patterns of two groups of women managers which she termed "career primary women" and "career and family women". In her view, the former put their careers first and make the traditional sacrifices made by the men who seek leadership positions. She found that career primary women usually remain single and childless or, if they do have children, they are raised by others. Schwartz recommended that such women should be recognized early and artificial barriers cleared from their path to senior executive positions because the best of them are among the best managerial talent available. She concluded that career primary women have an important value to the company as role models and mentors to like-minded women. Organizations could benefit most from the talents of these women by giving them the same opportunities as talented men and by making the same demands on them.

Schwartz also concluded that high-performing members of the career and family group should be treated differently from career primary women. She pointed out that a child-raising break of five years out of a career of 43 years is insignificant and that granting extended maternity leave, in the long-term, allows companies to retain their best people, to get greatly improved performance and satisfaction out of their middle managers,

and to gain significant business advantage as competition for able people escalates.

The steps recommended by Schwartz, though value-based, are inadequately researched and their overall appropriateness contested (Maccoby, 1989). More rigorous investigation of the relationship between level of position achieved and the levels of domestic and family responsibilities is required. Findings may have the potential to develop the knowledge base and to inform companies motivated by a desire to capture competitive advantage in an era when talent and competence will be in increasingly short supply.

Unlike Schwartz, Cullen (1990) believed that commitment to family and the organization can coexist at senior management levels but suggested that organizations do not act to improve the situation, partly because older executives have never experienced the conflict. In her view, this situation will self-perpetuate unless some dual-career family-committed women and men who are sensitive to this issue progress to the positions of influence at senior executive levels in organizations. Examination of the corporate structures could assist researchers to determine how they prevent women from advancing to senior careers

and, in Cullen's opinion, an important related structure is the family.

Research on factors affecting the management of work and family role demands by women managers supports the notion of the coexistence of commitment to family and the organization but indicates that, although women can add the role of a business career, they have difficulty shedding the role of housewife or mother. This can result in various role conflicts that may limit the career advancement of women who are unable to cope effectively with these conflicts (Terborg, 1977).

Men, as well as women, appear to have begun to rebel against organizational expectations based on sex and some have even taken their complaints to court (Loring and Wells, 1972). Colwill (1982) discussed the advantages to men of living in a society where job opportunities and job responsibilities are divided on the basis of motivation and expertise. The advantages to men appear to include greater flexibility in job choice through the sharing of the financial responsibilities of the home, which frees men to choose careers with lower financial gain and thus to make better talent-job matches. Where spouses share financial responsibilities, men can more easily take time off to study or pursue a personal interest. They can take on work

at their preferred level of responsibility, not at the level imposed by financial constraints. Job stress and exposure to industrial hazards are equally shared. The implications of this possibility are value-laden and investigation of the personal and organizational values of men and women is needed to determine what differences between genders exist and to draw conclusions from the findings relating to the unequal sharing of work and family responsibilities and the part which it plays in the career advancement of women managers.

Overall review of the literature reveals that women experience more negative effects of the dual work and family responsibilities than do men. It indicates that individual decisions on balancing work and family issues are value-based and that inflexibility on family issues may lead to economic costs.

Sex-role Stereotypes and Management

The validity of sex-role stereotypes relating to the workplace has been analyzed in several research studies (Bennett & Loewe, 1975; Colwill & Josephson, 1981; Deaux, 1979; Maccoby & Jacklin; 1974). These studies led to the conclusion that, in general, there are more similarities

than differences between male and female employees. Maccoby and Jacklin, in an extensive review of sex differences, concluded that self-confidence is the only achievement-related characteristic that consistently differentiates between the sexes. Despite these findings, other researchers examining sex-role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics have suggested that sex-role stereotypes regarding differences and similarities between men, women, and successful managers in general, remain (Massengill & Di Marco, 1979).

Their findings held with both male and female personnel in management positions. Brenner, Tomkiewitz and Schein (1988), in a longitudinal study of sex-role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics, found that while women's thinking on this issue had changed over 15 years, men's had not. Therefore, they concluded that the negative impact of stereotypical thinking on women's career advancement would likely remain.

The potentially negative effects of sex-role stereotyping on women's career advancement is discussed in several studies, and relate to such factors as hiring, fit, perception of women's capabilities, and opportunities. In terms of success in job competitions, Shakeshaft (1987) found that women were more effective in gaining

superintendent positions in school districts where superintendents were chosen by the general populace through elections than in districts where they were selected by interview panels which tended to be male dominated. 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 attributes 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 than in the line positions which, it is said, more often provide entry to the senior executive ranks.

Bias against women in management may operate against a female not only at the beginning of her career, but also later when she is well established and may have built up a superior performance record (Garland & Price, 1977). The results of their study of attitudes towards women in management and attributions for their success and failure in a managerial position, uncovered evidence of discrimination against women both in gaining access to a

position in an organization and in the treatment they receive after being hired.

The existence of possible sex-role prejudice on the part of women managers against other women managers was 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 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.

Research findings are consistent with hypotheses that sex stereotypes still control social judgements and that women continue to be viewed as non-leaders even when situational cues suggest leadership positions for them (Porter, 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 as 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 emerging as a leader is determined by the expectations of others as well as by the behaviour of the individual concerned. In an earlier study, Day and Stogdill (1972) investigated the behaviour 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.

Schein (1973) examined the relationship between sex-role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics, using as subjects 300 male managers whose task was to describe men in general, women in general, and successful managers. In their descriptions, men resembled managers, but women did not. This study supported the hypothesis that successful middle managers are perceived to possess characteristics, attitudes and temperaments more commonly ascribed to men in general than to women in general. In terms of the advancement of women into senior management positions, sex-role stereotypes may effectuate the perception of women as being less qualified for executive positions than men. Schein suggested that focusing more attention on the feminine characteristics that are related to managerial success might foster a climate of greater receptivity to women managers. In her opinion, the changing roles of the wives and female social peers of male managers will, in the long-term, influence modification of stereotypical perceptions and, as women increase their involvement in the labour force, the relationship between

sex-role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics will be reduced among all age groups. In consequence, this psychological barrier to women in management may be lowered, and it will become easier for women to enter and advance in managerial positions.

The difference in values between men and women managers at all levels, and between personal and organizational values, requires investigation so that a better understanding of the tangled web of research described above may be achieved.

Hennig and Jardim (1977) discussed the process through which female values are developed and the stereotypical masculine/feminine dichotomy which appears to hamper the self-identity of women. In their view, the predominant value system, which emphasizes male superiority, pervades management systems and tends to block women's career advancement. They also discussed the research on organizational socialization, which has tended to focus on person-centred or organization-centred explanations. In the person-centred explanations, personal behaviour patterns, traits and attitudes have been described in terms of differential sex-role socialization on childhood and adolescence (Hennig and Jardim, 1977; Riger and Galligan, 1981). The organization-centred explanations, which

describe behaviours and attitudes in the work place as being conditioned by organizational structures, have been discussed by other these and other researchers including Kanter (1977), Lockheed (1975), and Mayes (1979). In terms of women's careers, Marshall (1985) claimed that socialization founded on both paradigms occurs and begins before recruitment, extends through various stages of training, development and employment, and continues throughout one's working life. Albert and Porter (1988) suggested that parents socialize daughters with values incompatible with managerial expectations and suggested that schools do not teach the attitudes, values, and interpersonal behaviours required to reach management positions. How this teaching might effectively be incorporated into the ever-expanding school curricula is inadequately addressed in their study. However, in view of the apparent significance of these omissions, in terms of women's career advancement, investigation of the compatibility between the values of the organization and of its managers, and between the values of male and female managers at corresponding levels is required.

Despite plentiful research on organizational socialization, ongoing research and testing, and attempts to translate theories of moral development to programs of

moral education in schools, there appears to be no generally accepted developmental theory which explains how adult moral views are developed in men and in women, and what are the consequences of these views in the organizational context (Bussey and Maughan, 1982; Gilligan, 1977; Purpel and Ryan, 1986).

Stereotypical images may emerge from examinations of male-female value systems. For example, the possession of strong moral views in senior women school district administrators' was discussed by Shakeshaft (1987). In her view, women's concept of management is rooted in solid human values, they are more attached to community values than their male counterparts, and they possess a purity of purpose and a morality that men lack. Despite this perceived superiority, nearly three quarters of a century passed between the appointment of the first woman superintendent of the Chicago school system in 1909 and the appointment of the second in 1980, and the administrative prospects for women in both eras were nearly identical, according to Shakeshaft. Her assumption that the organizational values of men and women are different appears to rely more on descriptive than empirical research and requires further verification, especially with respect to values relating to integrity and social well-being.

Vaden and Lynn (1979) concluded that female bureaucrats are, in general, perceived to have different value orientations than their male counterparts. They argued that women have well-established, firm ethical codes based in the socialization process which they underwent, whereas male bureaucrats have value systems more closely tied to the achievement of organizational goals and subject to ethical pitfalls. Potential conflict between bureaucrats as a result of the differing value systems was reported to be a concern which gave rise to questions about the effects on organizations of women entering top administrative positions. It remains unclear as to whether the values of senior administrators are different from those in lesser positions and whether there are differences between the organizational values and those of men and women in senior positions. This question requires answering through research studies.

Stereotypical perceptions appear to be inimical to career advancement for women. Gray (1983), in a study of 300 senior women managers, found that values traditionally reserved for men led to career success. These included ambition, drive, desire to excel, hard work and persistence. Schein (1973) suggested that there is an increased likelihood of a male rather than a female being

promoted to a managerial position because of the perceived similarity between the characteristics of successful middle managers and of men.

Despite the absence of generally accepted theory relating to the development of moral views, the acceptance by researchers of the powerful influence during the socialization of children of stereotypic images of the achieving male and the nurturing female (O'Leary, 1974; Schwartz & Rago, 1973), suggests that it might be expected that the perceptions, behaviour and values of women managers would differ from those of their male counterparts. This possibility remains to be investigated.

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 helpmeet. 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. This argument can be tested further by means of studies such as this which compare the values and perceptions of contemporary men and women relating to commitment to friends and family, and to social well-being. 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 that 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.

None of the proposed models is completely satisfactory in explaining the absence of women from the most senior executive positions. It remains to be tested whether value

differences exist between male and female managers and between women and their organizations which might add weight to one of the existing models or suggest a new explanatory theory.

The power of sexual stereotyping is indicated through the notion that women may need to accept stereotypes and remodel themselves to fit the male world if they are to be successful in administrative careers. This idea has been examined by researchers and the role of the mentor in accomplishing this was discussed in studies which examined the concept of succession socialization (Valverde, 1980, 1975). Within this framework, Valverde suggested that mentorship may involve influencing protegees' attitudes in such a way as to bring them in line with those of their sponsors. The costs to women of making such an adjustment were examined by Marshall (1985) in a study of the professional woman in a male sex-typed career. Marshall focused on women in educational administration and examined the behaviours and attitudes adopted by women in their attempts to achieve an appropriate identity for a career in which they deviate from social expectations. Some of these behaviours and attitudes appear to necessitate compromising the values which the women hold. They include: denial of deviance by emphasizing behaviours and attitudes which

identify them with "normals"; denial of discriminatory practices; retreat from career aspirations which prevent development of a spoiled identity in society but also inhibit career advancement; and "passing" by covering marginality and ascribed deviance, humouring other administrators, using strong language, maintaining ties with other women in the community, and finding ways of helping families come to terms with the partner's/mother's differences. Thus it can be seen that, although managing expressions may be crucial to career success for women administrators, conflict of values in terms of expedient management behaviours adopted, versus enduring beliefs about how one ought to behave, is almost inevitable. The study claimed that the women devote a great deal of energy to managing expressions and manipulating situations, as educational administrators. As deviants they may risk social and professional ostracism and many are prepared to go to great lengths to devise impressions which will help them to advance and attain their career aspirations but simultaneously to avoid exclusion from the society of "normal" women which they also value. If successful they are more likely to be satisfied professionally and socially. The study demonstrated that sex-role stereotyping may exact a heavy price from women in personal

and career terms. The problems which women must overcome to succeed, perhaps contribute to the explanation of their underrepresentation in senior administrative positions in education.

Highman (1985), in a study of the career building efforts of randomly selected women executives in large corporations, women engineers, and career women earning over \$25,000, found evidence to support the view that stereotypic behaviour such as anti-emotionalism is a requisite for career advancement. She noted that the conflict between the objectivity demanded in the work milieu and the feminine culture grates against the female sensibility. Highman implied that ambitious women should take whatever expedient action is necessary to advance their careers, even if it is contrary to their personal beliefs, but a weakness of her research was the failure to examine the possible costs to women of doing this, especially in value terms. Terborg (1977) claimed that many women who pursue non-traditional careers reject sex-role stereotypes and that, once in non-traditional positions they have needs, motives and values that are similar to those of men who are in similar positions. Agassi (1982) found that employed women were quicker than men to relinquish the traditional views and values

concerning the division of labour. It remains to be investigated whether male and female managers at similar levels share perceptions as to the behaviours necessary to achieve career advancement.

In a contrasting analysis, Lenz and Myerhoff (1985) questioned whether women can take their place in the public world without becoming alienated from the feminine values which have sustained them. In their view, if women are forced to fit into the unadapted male model of management when they feel they do not fit the corporate ideals and values, they will experience a loss, as will the organizations, who could benefit from the integration of feminine values and models of relationships into the organizations.

Prenner, Tomkiewitz & Schein (1988) suggested that a gender free view of management characteristics may have encouraged women to enter the field without consideration of the possibility that they might need to adopt masculine traits in order to be successful. In these researchers' view, men's maintained stereotypes may continue to influence women's advancement in the field, as men tend to be the ones who select staff and make advancement decisions for women and men. In their opinion, efforts to minimize the psychological barriers to the career advancement of

women are top priority and, in order to do this, organizational restructuring is necessary. They predicted that, without specific career advancement mechanisms, the negative influence of sex-role stereotyping will continue to prevent women from advancing at the executive and management levels.

Pressure on women to change themselves and their values to conform with stereotypic images of what is appropriate for managers, in order to succeed within the male model of career development, is tempered by warnings from researchers concerning possible dysfunctional effects of attempting to do so. There is disagreement among researchers relating to the necessity for change, and many of their arguments are based on assumptions of differences and similarities which have not been adequately tested. It remains to be determined whether there are, in fact, differences between female managers' values and those of their male counterparts and between the values of the organizations they serve.

Approaches to the Career Advancement of Women Managers

Research has offered valuable insight into the types of approaches to the career advancement of women which have

been successful. Brine (1988) indicated that one factor which had assisted her research subjects in moving into careers as deans and presidents within the Massachusetts Community College System within the last decade, was the training program specifically designed for women. Other research on single sex education suggests that, for women, value transmission is more successfully accomplished in homogeneous groups (Hartman, 1990).

Some researchers are convinced that studies which analyze values are essential in developing approaches to the career advancement of women. For example, Peder and Fritchie (1985) claimed that people's feelings, values, and attitudes are at the heart of the advancement problem and that examining the issue of values is vital, as real or lasting change is unlikely to occur until this is done. In their view, simple analysis of barriers to women's career advancement and development of approaches to removing them, without value analysis will continue to be unsuccessful. It remains to be investigated whether there is a relationship between organizational values, personal values and the career advancement of women managers.

Schein (1971) discussed the value of social affiliation to career advancement in a conceptualization of career mobility in organizations. In this conceptual

schema of the individual, the organization and the career, it was suggested that movement in organizations is possible in three directions: vertical movement, which involves hierarchical advancement, title change and salary increase; lateral movement, which involves task change; and radial movement, which involves drawing closer to those who matter in the organization. In Schein's view, most organizational movement is vertical and lateral, but radial movement is required for ascension to the top position.

Developing the relationships with influential and powerful executives which are necessary to achieve career advancement, is the responsibility of the women themselves according to some researchers (Campbell, 1988; Marchilonis, 1983). Marchilonis examined power from the point of view of managers' perceptions within a high-tech corporation and examined the methods by which managers obtain power. She claimed that forming relationships at all levels helped managers to obtain power, visibility and information, and pointed out that aspiring women need to position themselves in the right place and to realize that they need to form advantageous relationships and become powerful themselves in order to advance their careers. Campbell's (1988) research revealed that women have fewer workplace contacts than men and they appear to value occupational

relationships less. In Campbell's view, women need to learn to value and use social affiliation in advancing their careers. The perceptions of male and female managers of the value of factors relating to the quality and importance of occupational relationships, such as networking, interpersonal skills, and good communication remain to be investigated and compared.

Other research suggests that the responsibility to develop advantageous relationships does not rest solely with the female employees and recommends that women be assisted to make such relationships and to gain access to the powerful organizational networks that they tend to have difficulty penetrating (Moore 1988). For example, organizations can attempt to devise schemes to assist women to obtain mentors who can help them to broaden their range of contacts and gain access to key organizational networks (Sonnenfeld & Peiperl, 1988). The comparative perceptions of female and male managers of the usefulness of mentor relationships in career advancement remain to be investigated.

It has been suggested that it might be to the advantage of women who aspire to senior executive positions to adopt an androgynous management style (Powell, 1988). In a study of men and women in management, Powell found

little evidence to support the traditional belief that men make better managers than women and claimed that, in fact, androgynous managers are more effective (Powell, 1988). This conclusion is not fully supported by other authors (Colwill, 1982; Hardesty & Jacobs, 1986) who viewed suggestions that women should adopt androgynous management styles as thinly disguised attempts to force women to conform to male roles and expectations. In their view, this forces upon women yet another demanding and unwelcome role, the role of the totally androgynous manager who is both a male and a female. Kanter (1987) also questioned the emphasis on teaching women to conform and fit into the system. In her view, such conformity suppresses the creativity and innovation which are now so much needed by managers and organizations in the competitive business world. Moore (1988) concluded that advancement problems are both internal and external and their resolution requires change in males, females, organizations and institutions.

The question of whether or not women should change themselves and their management styles in order to fit into male-dominated organizations is contentious, and research on the need for women managers to change in order to comply with the prevailing organizational values is inconclusive.

As a step towards clarifying these issue, investigation is needed to determine whether the values of female managers are congruent with those of the organizations they serve, and whether women managers' values are significantly different from those of their male counterparts.

The paucity and unsatisfactory nature of tools to assist organizations overcome sex disequity, the apparent difficulty of helping organizations to achieve their objectives relating to the career advancement of women, and the general recognition that such help is needed by organizations and individuals, plus the inconclusive nature of research findings relating to the development of approaches to the career advancement of women managers, indicate that research leading to new approaches is required. It remains to be investigated whether there is a relationship between personal and organizational values and the career advancement of women managers, which might suggest approaches to improving the career advancement of women which could be explored in further research.

Summary

The study of values and of the career advancement of women both have a well-established, independent place in the research literature. However, the question of the relationship between organizational values, work-related personal values, and career advancement, and the underlying value and gender differences has, on the whole, been neglected. Little related research has been conducted in the Canadian public sector, and almost none in the British Columbia Public Service.

With specific reference to research on value differences, deficiencies in some of the existing research can be observed. There is a general lack of clarity in the research, partly because values are often determined indirectly through observation of attitudes and behaviour, and findings tend to be vague, contentious and contradictory. Many assumptions are being made, few of them supported by research or documentation. In particular, value explanations of the underrepresentation of women in the most senior administrative positions are almost lacking, and those which exist are unsatisfactory. Furthermore, the politicization of this question has tended to complicate research objectivity. This study seeks to

remedy these deficiencies by adding to the body of knowledge in this domain.

CHAPTER 3
Research Methodology and Design

This research falls into four major parts: 1) an investigation of the extent to which the values of men and women managers in the British Columbia Public Service are shared with those of their organization and among management groups, and an investigation of value change over time; 2) an investigation of the perceptions of these managers as to the degree to which certain factors including specific behaviours, skills, and training affect career advancement; 3) an examination of the demographic characteristics of the sample population; and 4) an examination of the perceptions of men and women managers as to how their careers have been affected by the values they hold and by value conflicts which they have experienced, and as to how organizational values should be changed. Statistical tests were used to analyze data pertaining to the first three parts of the research.

Research Questions

Specific research questions to be answered through the research were:

- 1a. Do senior, middle, and junior managers differ significantly from each other in terms of the work-related values they hold?
- 1b. Do managers at each of these three levels differ significantly in terms of work-related values held, from the organization in which they are employed?
- 2a. Do female senior, middle, and junior managers differ significantly from each other in terms of the work-related values they hold?
- 2b. Do women at each of these three management levels differ significantly, in terms of work-related values held, from the organization in which they are employed?
- 3a. Do male senior, middle and junior managers differ significantly from each other in terms of the work-related values they hold?
- 3b. Do men at each of these three management levels differ significantly, in terms of work-related values held, from the organization in which they are employed?

4. Overall, do senior managers hold values closer to those of the organization than do middle and junior managers?
5. Is there a significant difference for men and for women between the work-related values held at the beginning of their careers and those held at the time of the investigation?
6. Do managers at senior, middle and junior levels express significantly different opinions as to the behaviours, skills and training which they perceive to be necessary in attaining career advancement in the Public Service?
7. Is there a significant difference in management level achieved between managers who hold advanced degrees and those who do not?
8. Is there a significant difference in management level achieved between married and non-married managers?
9. Is there a relationship between management level achieved and whether or not managers have children?
- 10a. What values do managers at the three levels perceive to have contributed most to their career success?
- 10b. What values do managers at the three management levels perceive to have held them back in their careers?

11. What value conflicts have been experienced by managers at the three management levels and how have they affected their careers?
12. What changes in organizational values do managers at the three management levels recommend, and why?
13. What implications and recommendations for improving policies and procedures concerning the career advancement of women managers in the British Columbia Public Service arise out of this study?

Methodology

To determine the degree of value congruence between the organization (the British Columbia Public Service) and its managers, both parties were surveyed to measure and compare the importance which they attach to 15 organizationally relevant values. In determining the organizational values, the organization was represented by its chief executive officers, the Deputy Ministers, based on earlier studies of private-sector organizations in which it was suggested that top-level executives are legitimate judges of organizational values, as the purported values of an organization are to a great degree an extension of the values collectively held by its top administrative

personnel (England & Lee, 1974; O'Neill, 1985; Scott & Hart, 1979). Deputy Ministers were asked to categorize the 15 values in accordance with the importance which they placed on them in terms of enabling government to achieve its organizational goals. Managers were asked to categorize the 15 values twice, the first time in accordance with the importance which they placed on them at the time of the investigation and, secondly, in accordance with the importance which they attached to these values when they first became managers. Managers were also asked to indicate to what extent they believed that certain factors including specific behaviours, skills, and training, affect career advancement in the Public Service. Finally, they were asked to respond to a series of open-ended questions relating to changes which they would like to see in the values of the organization, value conflicts which they had personally experienced, and the values which had contributed to their career advancement or hindered it. Demographic data on the managers were also collected.

The Research Instrument

A review of the research literature on value tests and measures revealed that although several well-known

instruments designed to assess personal values exist, no widely used and suitable instrument relating to the measurement of organizational values in the public sector was available. In fact, limited research has been conducted on organizational values in the public sector, therefore it was decided to develop the Public Sector Organizational Value Survey (PSOVS) for use in this study. This instrument comprises: 1) an introduction of the study and survey to the subjects (Appendix B); 2) a demographic data-gathering questionnaire (Appendix C); 3) lists of 15 organizational values for categorization by Deputy Ministers and managers (Appendix D); 4) a Likert scale relating to factors including behaviours, skills, and training thought to be necessary for career advancement (Appendix E); and 5) a series of open-ended questions relating to value change, value conflict, and the effects of values on career success (Appendix F).

Development of an instrument specific to the public sector was necessary because language and concepts adopted in instruments intended for use in the private sector, which were considered for use in this study, such as O'Neill's Organizational Value Survey (1985), were incompatible with those commonly used and understood within the British Columbia Public Service. However, modification

of relevant portions of O'Neill's survey provided a base for the development of the Public Sector Organizational Value Survey used in this research.

Organizational values and Likert scale items selected for inclusion in the instrument were derived from:

- 1) priorities currently under discussion by senior officials of government;
- 2) recommendations made between 1988 and 1990 by the Program Advisory Committee of British Columbia's Centre for Executive and Management Development, of which the researcher was a member;
- 3) video-taped presentations made in 1988 and 1989 by senior female managers to assist the career development of aspiring, lower-level women managers; and
- 4) issues discussed by senior bureaucrats during strategic planning sessions attended by the researcher in 1988. It was confirmed by two senior Deputy Ministers that the values selected for inclusion in the instrument were appropriate.

It is difficult for Deputy Ministers and managers to rank values with total assurance that one is clearly superior to another from the organization's standpoint. This problem could threaten the integrity of a pure ranking process which assumes interval data. Therefore, a categorization technique was selected, enabling respondents to cluster values felt to be of equal importance in

groups, rather than forcing them to impose artificial levels of importance. In categorizing the organizational values, a sorting technique was used. This sorting technique has some advantage over use of a checklist to make category selections, as subjects can revise decisions and shift cards back and forth as consideration is given to each value (Cronbach, 1949). Respondents were asked to sort fifteen cards, each of which stated one of the values, into five categories relating to their priority.

Because the public service endorses all the listed values positively to some degree, it was thought important to discourage respondents from categorizing all the values at the highest levels, which would prevent identification of the least-priority values. Therefore, in assigning the value cards, respondents were requested to ensure that cards were assigned as follows: Category 1) top priority, 2 cards; Category 2) high priority, 3 cards; Category 3) medium priority, 5 cards; Category 4) lower priority, 3 cards; and Category 5) least priority, 2 cards.

Respondents were instructed to mark each card with the number of the category selected and seal the cards in the return envelope. Deputy Ministers sorted only one set of cards. Managers went through the process twice, once to categorize their current values and once to categorize the

values which they held at the beginning of their careers in management. Their two sets of cards were colour coded to prevent mixing of the two sets.

The cross-government pervasiveness of decisions made by Deputy Ministers' Council is such that it was appropriate to request respondents to focus on the values of the total organization, rather than upon their own department or ministry, in responding to the survey.

The remaining three parts of the instrument comprise: a Likert scale relating to factors including behaviours, skills, and training thought to be necessary for career advancement, which sought a response ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree" to each of its 12 items; a demographic data-gathering section which sought information relating to the subject's age, educational level, marital status, parental status, age of children, years in the public service, years in the current job, management level achieved, and functional area; and four open-ended questions relating to value change, value conflict, and the effects of values on career success, which required brief, descriptive responses from the subjects.

Validity and Reliability

The selected organizational values reflect stated priorities of the Public Service and appear to support content validity in terms of their range and representation of the content of interest. Two senior Deputy Ministers, one male and one female, acting as expert judges of organizational values prior to the categorization exercise, confirmed the appropriateness of the values selected, which also supports content validity.

The pilot study provided further content validity assessment and also test-retest reliability information. The few pilot study participants who commented on the content found it appropriate. Suggestions for change made by them related to clarifying demographic questions and improving return mechanisms, rather than to content changes.

Retirees were requested to complete the same survey on two occasions as part of the test-retest reliability procedures. The survey was revised in response to problems encountered and recommendations from the participating retirees.

Subjects

The subjects of the study were Public Service Managers in British Columbia. For the purposes of the study they were divided into six groups as follows: 1) female managers, levels 8-11; 2) female managers, levels 5-6; 3) female managers, levels 3-4; 4) male managers, levels 8-11; 5) male managers, levels 5-6; 6) male managers, levels 3-4. Level 7 managers were excluded from the study in order to distinguish clearly between senior and middle managers. Level 1 and 2 managers were excluded because of the involvement of a number of them in non-managerial work.

Subjects were selected at random from payroll lists, except in the case of female managers levels 8-11, where the total population of 29 women was sampled. Thirty subjects were selected from each of the remaining five groups. Of these 179 potential subjects, 18 senior, 21 middle, and 19 junior women agreed to participate, as did 16 senior, 19 middle, and 11 junior men, totalling 104 subjects. One of the 18 senior female subjects participated in all sections of the study except that pertaining to perceptions of the usefulness of certain behaviours, skills, and training in career advancement.

Pilot Study

The subjects selected for the pilot study of the instrument were public service managers who retired between 1987 and 1990. Retirees who were requested to take part in the piloting process were selected randomly from the same management levels and gender as the proposed subjects, in order to resemble them as closely as possible.

Because access to the list of government retirees is restricted to staff of the Superannuation Commission, the pilot data collection process was conducted by the Commission's Director of Benefits and Policy, under the supervision of the Commissioner. Responses were returned to the Commissioner in envelopes marked "Confidential Research Study", which were provided. Returns were forwarded, unopened, to the researcher.

Twelve subjects from each group of retired male managers were requested to participate, totalling 36 potential male subjects. Because there were no retired senior women managers, five female senior government managers now working in the private sector were requested to represent this group. The total populations of 5 retired female middle managers and 11 retired female junior managers were invited to participate. In all, this

constituted 21 potential female subjects.

Four senior, two middle, and four junior retired female managers responded to the survey, constituting 47.6% of the women surveyed. Of the male retirees surveyed, six senior, eight middle, and four junior managers responded, constituting 50% of the males surveyed. The total number of pilot subjects was 28.

Retirees were requested to complete the same PSOVS, modified in keeping with their retired status (Appendix G), on two occasions approximately three weeks apart, as part of the test-retest reliability procedures. Average test re-test correlations were as follows: 1) work-related values on retirement .74; 2) work-related values on becoming a manager .79; 3) Likert scale on behaviours, skills and training .60.

Pilot subjects were invited to comment on the clarity of the survey, to identify potential problems and to suggest possible improvements. Subjects reported that the value prioritization exercise was easy to understand and enjoyable to complete. Comments on the subject matter and contents of the questionnaire were supportive and favourable. Some minor problems had been encountered in responding to the demographic section, and the relevant questions were clarified in response to the suggestions

received. Because of the vagueness of some pilot responses to the open ended values questions, a request for examples to illustrate the points being made was included in the study proper.

A weakness in the value sorting procedure was uncovered in the pilot study. Pilot subjects were asked to ensure that at least one value was placed in each of the five categories: top priority, high priority, medium priority, lower priority, and least priority. However, the pilot study revealed that this still enabled respondents to place 11 responses in any one category, thus defeating the objective of clear differentiation between value priorities. The survey was revised in response to this finding and, in the study proper, respondents were requested to ensure that cards were assigned as follows: Category 1) top priority, 2 cards; Category 2) high priority, 3 cards; Category 3) medium priority, 5 cards; Category 4) lower priority, 3 cards; and Category 5) least priority, 2 cards.

Data Collection

Data were collected by mail using a similar process to the one used in the pilot study. In order to facilitate

collection of the data, a cover letter encouraging subjects to respond was drafted by the researcher and signed by a Deputy Minister (Appendix H). This letter accompanied the survey package when it was mailed to the subjects. Return envelopes were provided to encourage return of the survey materials.

In the introduction of the survey to the subjects, it was made clear that a random selection process had been used, that there was no need to identify themselves, and that confidentiality would be maintained. Subjects were informed of the intention to provide them, through their ministries, with a summary of the findings on completion of the research, and given information on how to obtain access to the complete dissertation.

Treatment of Data

Data were processed by computer and analyzed by means of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences. Demographic data were categorized by management level and gender, and comparisons between groups made to determine if the groups were statistically equivalent, using the Chi square statistic.

Significant differences between the values of the organization and the values of the managers, between the values of the various management groups, and between current and career-entry values of the six management groups were determined using analysis of variance (ANOVA). Current and career entry values of managers with less than 10 years service and managers with more were compared using t tests. ANOVA was also used to determine significant differences between managers in the degree to which certain factors including behaviours, skills and training activities were perceived to affect career advancement. The Student-Neuman-Keuls statistical test was used to detect the pairs that showed the differences (Davis & Gaito, 1984).

Pearson correlation coefficients were used to compare the composite organizational values and composite values of the management groups. A ranking technique was also used to illustrate the value priorities of the organization compared with the value priorities of its management groups.

Anecdotal data relating to the personal opinions of respondents on the effects which they feel the values held by them have had on their career development, on the value conflicts which they have experienced during their careers,

and on value changes which they would like to see within the Public Service, were examined to determine:

1) commonalities and differences in key values perceived to have assisted or hindered career advancement according to gender and management level; 2) commonalities and differences in value conflicts experienced according to gender and management level; 3) commonalities and differences in value change recommendations according to gender and management level. The values assessment section provided anecdotal material for discussion purposes rather than material to be statistically analyzed.

Definition of Terms

The definitions in sections A and C are, except where otherwise stated, derived from discourse on the nature and philosophy of administration (Hodgkinson, 1978).

A. Administration and Management

Administration/Administrator. The formulation and implementation of collective purposes which subsumes management. Administration is ends oriented and deals with the value-laden issues and the human components of

organizations. Within the classic definition, an administrator is an employee located high in the organizational status hierarchy who determines, in part or in whole, the organizational values.

Management/Manager. The specification of means and the implementation of policy to accomplish organizational goals. Management deals with the more routine, definitive, and programmatic functions which are susceptible to quantitative methods. Within the classic definition, a manager is an employee located in the middle or lower levels of supervision and responsibility.

Notwithstanding the definitions above, the terms "administration/administrator and "management/manager", are sometimes used and understood somewhat differently in the Public Service, where "vision, mission and leadership are not considered solely the responsibility of senior management" (Aucoin, 1989). This study adheres as far as possible to classic definitions but makes concessions, where necessary, to common usage in the British Columbia Public Service. As examples of the difference between this common usage and the definitions cited above, Deputy Ministers in the British Columbia Public Service are often referred to as the most senior managers in government rather than as administrators. In contrast, although the

"administrative officer" in the Public Service is referred to as an administrator, the status of the position is even less than that of a manager. In fact, the position occupies a relatively low-level classification, one step higher than the senior clerical classification level, and is a unionized position.

B. Union-Excluded Employees in the British Columbia Public Service

Membership in a public service bargaining unit such as the British Columbia Government Employees' Union, or in a licensed professional bargaining unit such as the Professional Employees' Association, or in a nurses' bargaining unit, is mandatory for all British Columbia Public Service employees with the exception of those excluded from the definition of employee (Public Service Labour Relations Act, 1974). The subjects of this study, listed below, are all excluded from membership in such an organization by agreement between the bargaining units and the employers and are generally referred to in the Public Service as "excluded managers". For the purposes of this study, excluded managers have been categorized as follows:

Chief Executive Officer in the Public Service. Deputy Minister. B.C. Public Service Management Level 12.

Senior manager. Assistant Deputy Minister or Executive Director. B.C. Public Service Management Levels 8 to 11.

Middle manager. B.C. Public Service Manager, Levels 5 or 6.

Junior manager. B.C. Public Service Manager, Levels 3 or 4.

C. Value Terminology

Value. A concept of the desirable or preferred state of affairs, which possesses motivating force.

Value system. An orientation of values with dynamic and static ordering.

Value conflict. A situation at the intra-personal, intra-hierarchical, or inter-hierarchical level in which there is contention between contradictory values.

Metavalue. A concept of the desirable so vested and entrenched that it seems beyond dispute or contention.

Needs, wants, and desires. Indicators of individual or group deficiency or shortfall with a consequent potential or propensity for remedial action. They are not

values in themselves, but are sources of value.

Motives. Conscious reasons or subconscious drives, or some combination of both, which are a source of value.

Attitudes. Surface phenomena: predispositions to act or respond to stimuli in relatively stable or persistent ways which provide the first public manifestations of value.

Organizational culture. The shared pattern of basic values, attitudes, and norms held by the organization's members (Jones, R. M. 1991).

CHAPTER 4

Findings and Analysis

The findings of the study are presented in four parts which demonstrate: 1) the extent to which the values of public service managers are shared with those of their organization and among themselves, the relationship between career advancement and value congruency, and the reported change in managers' values between the time of entry into careers in management and the time of the investigation; 2) the perceptions of managers as to the degree to which factors including behaviours, skills, and training affect career advancement; 3) the demographic characteristics of the sample population; 4) the responses of managers to questions relating to the effects on their careers of values held and of value conflicts experienced by them, and their recommendations on organizational value change.

Organizational Values

The priority of the fifteen organizational values was determined by ranking the mean scores of Deputy Ministers for each value (Table 1). The three top-priority values were strong leadership, integrity, and service quality. The four least-priority values were organizational stability, expertise, social wellbeing, and organizational efficiency.

Table 1

Ranked Mean Organizational Value Scores of Deputy Ministers (N = 20)

Rank	Priority	Value	Mean
1	Top	Strong leadership	1.50
2	Top	Integrity	2.05
3	Top	Service quality	2.35
4	High	Clear communication	2.65
5.5=	High	Fiscal responsibility	2.70
5.5=	High	High productivity	2.70
7	Medium	Consultation	2.85
8	Medium	Organizational flexibility	3.00
10=	Lower	Creativity	3.25
10=	Lower	Employees' welfare	3.25
10=	Lower	Equality	3.25
12.5=	Least	Organizational efficiency	3.40
12.5=	Least	Social well-being	3.40
14	Least	Expertise	3.65
15	Least	Organizational stability	4.15

Notes. The lower the mean score, the higher the priority.

Priority divisions were adjusted in recognition of tied ranks.

Findings on Research Questions Relating to
Current and Career Entry Values

Management Cohort's Current Values

Research question 1a.

Do senior, middle, and junior managers differ significantly from each other in terms of the work-related values they hold?

Senior, middle, and junior managers differ significantly in terms of the individual values they hold on two values: organizational stability, $p < .05$, and strong leadership, $p < .05$ (Table 2).

Table 2

Summary of Analysis of Variance of Organizational Stability Scores and Strong Leadership Scores of Senior, Middle, and Junior Managers (N = 104)

Source of variation	Sum of squares	df	M squares	F
Organizational stability				
Between groups	7.59	2	3.79	.023*
Within groups	97.91	101	.97	
Total	105.50	103		
Strong leadership				
Between groups	8.31	2	4.15	.030*
Within groups	116.45	101	1.15	
Total	124.76	103		

*p<.05

Student-Neuman-Keu's post-hoc procedures indicated that senior managers ranked organizational stability significantly lower than did junior managers, and that junior managers ranked strong leadership significantly lower than did senior and middle managers (Table 3).

Table 3

Student-Neuman-Keuls Post-Hoc Pair-Wise Comparisons of Organizational Stability and Strong Leadership Scores of Senior, Middle, and Junior Managers (N = 104)

Group	n	Mean
Organizational stability		
Senior managers	34	4.09 (*)
Middle managers	40	3.73
Junior managers	30	3.40 (*)
Strong leadership		
Senior managers	34	1.94 (*)
Middle managers	40	2.10 (*)
Junior managers	30	2.63 (*) (*)

Note. The lower the mean score, the higher the priority.

(*) Denotes pairs of groups significantly different, $p < .05$.

Research question 1b.

Do managers at each of these three levels differ significantly in terms of work-related values held, from the organization in which they are employed?

The work-related values held by senior, middle, and junior managers differ significantly from the values held by their organization in terms of three values: expertise, $p < .05$, organizational stability, $p < .05$, and strong leadership, $p < .01$ (Table 4).

Table 4

Summary of Analysis of Variance of Expertise,
Organizational Stability, and Strong Leadership Scores of
Deputy Ministers (Organizational Values), and Senior,
Middle, and Junior Managers (N = 124)

Source of variation	Sum of squares	df	M squares	F
Expertise				
Between groups	13.78	3	4.59	.02*
Within groups	166.16	120	1.38	
Total	179.94	123		
Organizational stability				
Between groups	10.27	3	3.42	.02*
Within groups	116.46	120	.97	
Total	126.73	123		
Strong leadership				
Between groups	16.58	3	5.52	.002**
Within groups	129.45	120	1.08	
Total	146.02	123		

*p<.05 **p<.01

Student-Neuman-Keuls post-hoc procedures indicated that middle managers ranked expertise higher than did the organization. Junior managers ranked organizational stability higher and ranked strong leadership lower than did the organization. There were no significant ranking differences between senior managers and their organization (Table 5).

Table 5

Student-Neuman-Keuls Post-Hoc Pair-Wise Comparisons of Expertise, Organizational Stability, and Strong Leadership Scores of Deputy Ministers (Organizational Values), and Senior, Middle, and Junior Managers (N = 124)

Group	n	Mean
Expertise		
D.M.s (Org values)	20	3.65 (*)
Senior managers	34	3.35
Middle managers	40	2.73 (*)
Junior managers	30	3.07
Organizational stability		
D.M.s (Org values)	20	4.15 (*)
Senior managers	34	4.09
Middle managers	40	3.73
Junior managers	30	3.40 (*)
Strong leadership		
D.M.s (Org values)	20	1.50 (*)
Senior managers	34	1.94
Middle managers	40	2.10
Junior managers	30	2.63 (*)

Note. The lower the mean score, the higher the priority.
 (*) Denotes pairs of groups significantly different, $p < .05$.

Female Managers' Current Values

Research question 2a.

Do female senior, middle, and junior managers differ significantly from each other in terms of the work-related values they hold?

ANOVA indicated that female senior, middle, and junior managers differ significantly in terms of the work-related values they hold on three values: expertise, $p < .05$, social well-being, $p < .05$, and strong leadership, $p < .05$ (Table 6).

Table 6

Summary of Analysis of Variance of Expertise, Social Well-being, and Strong Leadership Scores of Senior, Middle, and Junior Women Managers (N = 58)

Source of variation	Sum of squares	df	M squares	F
Expertise				
Between groups	8.74	2	4.37	.049*
Within groups	75.53	55	1.37	
Total	84.28	57		
Social well-being				
Between groups	6.43	2	3.21	.026*
Within groups	45.18	55	.82	
Total	51.60	57		
Strong leadership				
Between groups	5.35	2	2.68	.046*
Within groups	45.49	55	.83	
Total	50.84	57		

*p < .05

In terms of expertise, Student-Neuman-Keuls post-hoc procedures found that female middle managers ranked the value significantly higher than senior or junior female managers. They also indicated that female senior and middle managers ranked social well-being significantly lower than did female junior managers, and that female junior managers ranked strong leadership significantly lower than did female middle managers (Table 7).

Table 7

Student-Neuman-Keuls Post-Hoc Pair-Wise Comparisons of Social Well-Being and Strong Leadership Scores of Senior, Middle, and Junior Women Managers (N = 58).

Group	n	Mean
Expertise		
Senior women managers	18	3.56 (*)
Middle women managers	21	2.67 (*) (*)
Junior women managers	19	3.37 (*)
Social well-being		
Senior women managers	18	4.06 (*)
Middle women managers	21	4.10 (*)
Junior women managers	19	3.37 (*) (*)
Strong leadership		
Senior women managers	18	1.94
Middle women managers	21	1.76 (*)
Junior women managers	19	2.47 (*)

Note. The lower the mean score, the higher the priority.

(*) Denotes pairs of groups significantly different, $p < .05$.

Research question 2b.

Do women at each of these three management levels differ significantly, in terms of work-related values held, from the organization in which they are employed?

The work-related values held by senior, middle, and junior women managers differ significantly from the values held by their organization in terms of three values: expertise, $p < .05$, social well-being, $p < .05$, and strong leadership, $p < .01$ (Table 8).

Table 8

Summary of Analysis of Variance of Expertise, Social Well-Being, and Strong Leadership Scores of Deputy Ministers (Organizational Values), and Senior, Middle, and Junior Women Managers (N = 78)

Source of variation	Sum of squares	df	M squares	F
Expertise				
Between groups	12.14	3	4.05	.022*
Within groups	88.08	74	1.19	
Total	100.21	77		
Social well-being				
Between groups	9.37	3	3.12	.034*
Within groups	75.98	74	1.03	
Total	85.35	77		
Strong leadership				
Between groups	9.88	3	4.05	.008**
Within groups	58.49	74	1.19	
Total	68.37	77		

*p<.05 **p<.01

Student-Neuman-Keuls post-hoc procedures indicated that female middle managers ranked expertise significantly higher than did the organization. In terms of social well-being, post-hoc procedures did not distinguish between the groups, but for strong leadership there was a significant difference between women junior managers and the organization, with the junior managers ranking strong leadership lower (Table 9). There were no significant differences between the rankings of female senior managers and those of the organization.

Table 9
Student-Neuman-Keuls Post-Hoc Pair-Wise Comparisons of
Expertise and Strong Leadership Scores of Deputy Ministers
(Organizational Values), and Senior, Middle, and Junior
Women Managers (N = 78).

Group	n	Mean
Expertise		
D.M.s (Org values)	20	3.65 (*)
Senior women managers	18	3.56
Middle women managers	21	2.67 (*)
Junior women managers	19	3.37
Strong leadership		
D.M.s (Org values)	20	1.50 (*)
Senior women managers	18	1.94
Middle women managers	21	1.76
Junior women managers	19	2.47 (*)

Note. The lower the mean score, the higher the priority.

(*) Denotes pairs of groups significantly different, $p < .05$.

Male Managers' Current Values

Research question 3a.

Do male senior, middle, and junior managers differ significantly from each other in terms of the work-related values they hold?

No significant differences were found.

Research question 3b.

Do men at each of these three management levels differ significantly, in terms of work-related values held, from the organization in which they are employed?

For male senior, middle, and junior managers, significant differences were found in connection with two values: expertise, $p < .05$, and strong leadership, $p < .01$ (Table 10).

Table 10

Summary of Analysis of Variance of Expertise and Strong Leadership Scores of Deputy Ministers (Organizational Values), and Senior, Middle, and Junior Men Managers (N = 66)

Source of variation	Sum of squares	df	M squares	F
Expertise				
Between groups	11.27	3	3.76	.049*
Within groups	84.19	62	1.36	
Total	95.45	65		
Strong leadership				
Between groups	17.45	3	5.82	.005**
Within groups	77.58	62	1.25	
Total	95.03	65		

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Post-hoc procedures did not distinguish between the three male groups and the organization in terms of expertise, but for strong leadership there was a

significant difference between organizational values and the work-related values of both middle and junior male managers, both of which groups ranked strong leadership significantly lower than did the organization. There were no significant differences between male senior managers and their organization (Table 11).

Table 11

Student-Neuman-Keuls Post-Hoc Pair-Wise Comparisons of Strong Leadership Scores of Deputy Ministers (Organizational Values), and Senior, Middle, and Junior Men Managers (N = 66)

Group	n	Mean
Strong leadership		
D.M.s (Org values)	20	1.50 (*) (*)
Senior male managers	16	1.94
Middle male managers	19	2.47 (*)
Junior male managers	11	2.91 (*)

Note. The lower the mean score, the higher the priority.

(*) Denotes pairs of groups significantly different, $p < .05$.

Comparison and Ranking of Value Scores

The foregoing material indicates that significant differences between values held by the organization and those held by the six management groups were found only in relation to the value ranked highest and to the three least-priority values of Deputy Ministers. Table 12 compares the mean value scores of Deputy Ministers and of the six management groups, and illustrates the positioning of the significant differences.

Table 12

Ranked Mean Organizational Value Scores of Deputy
Ministers, and Mean Work-Related Value Scores of Managers
 (N = 124)

Rank	Value	Deputy			Men Managers			
		Mins	Sen	Mid	Sen	Mid	Jun	
1	Str lead	1.50	1.94	1.76	<u>2.47a</u>	1.94	<u>2.47a</u>	<u>2.91a</u>
2	Integrity	2.05	1.94	1.76	1.58	1.81	1.89	1.73
3	Serv qual	2.35	2.39	3.14	3.00	2.69	2.53	2.18
4	Clear comm	2.65	2.39	2.38	1.95	2.13	2.32	2.64
5.5=	Fiscal res	2.70	3.44	3.10	3.68	3.06	3.05	2.55
5.5=	High prod	2.70	2.83	3.00	3.05	2.88	3.32	2.91
7	Consultat	2.85	3.00	3.52	3.37	3.31	3.42	3.73
8	Org flex	3.00	2.89	2.76	2.95	3.13	3.21	3.73
10=	Creativity	3.25	2.89	3.33	2.95	2.88	2.95	3.45
10=	Empl welf	3.25	3.00	3.29	2.95	3.13	3.26	2.73
10=	Equality	3.25	3.06	3.33	3.47	3.56	3.68	3.45
12.5=	Org eff	3.40	3.56	2.81	3.11	3.50	3.11	3.00
12.5=	Soc well	3.40	<u>4.06b</u>	<u>4.10b</u>	3.37	3.69	3.16	3.45
14	Expertise	3.65	3.56	<u>2.67a</u>	3.37	3.13	2.79	<u>2.55b</u>
15	Org stab	4.15	4.00	3.57	<u>3.42c</u>	4.19	3.89	<u>3.36c</u>

Notes. The lower the mean score, the higher the priority.
 Continued/

- a A significant difference was found between the organization and the management group indicated.
- b A significant difference between the organization and one or more groups was confirmed by ANOVA, but the Student-Neuman-Keuls test did not identify the group. The most likely groups are indicated.
- c A significant difference was found between the organization and gender-combined junior managers.

The ranking of mean value scores by Deputy Ministers and the ranking of the same scores by the six management groups are compared in Table 13.

Table 13
Comparative Rankings of Cell Means of Value Scores of
Deputy Ministers and Managers (N = 124)

Value	Deputy	Women	Managers	Men Managers			
	Ministr	Sen	Mid	Jun	Sen	Mid	Jun
Str lead	1	1.5=	1.5=	3	2	3	7.5=
Integrity	2	1.5=	1.5=	1	1	1	1
Serv qual	3	3.5=	9	7	4	4	2
Clear comm	4	3.5=	3	2	3	2	5
Fiscal res	5.5=	11	8	15	7	7	3.5=
High prod	5.5=	5	7	8	5.5=	12	7.5=
Consultat	7	8.5=	13	11=	11	13	14.5=
Org flex	8	8	6.5=	5=	9=	10	14.5=
Creativity	10=	6.5=	11.5=	5=	5.5=	6	12=
Empl well	10=	8.5=	10	5=	9=	11	6
Equality	10=	10	11.5=	14	13	14	12=
Org eff	12.5=	12.5=	6	9	12	8	9
Soc well	12.5=	15	15	11=	14	9	12=
Expertise	14	12.5=	4	11=	9=	5	3.5=
Org stab	15	14	14	13	15	15	10

Composite Current Values

Research question 4.

Overall, do senior managers hold values closer to those of the organization than do middle and junior managers?

ANOVA indicated that there were no significant differences between the composite values of the organization and those of the three groups: Senior, Middle, and Junior Managers. Nevertheless, in comparing composite values, Pearson correlation coefficients were higher for senior managers than for middle managers, and higher for middle managers than for junior managers (Table 14).

Table 14

Pearson Correlation Coefficients Between Composite Organizational Values, and Composite Work-Related Values of Senior, Middle, and Junior Managers (N = 104)

Management level	n	r
Senior	34	.89
Middle	40	.74
Junior	30	.62

A similar order prevailed when correlations between composite organizational values and composite individual work-related values of managers were computed by management level and gender (Table 15).

Table 15

Pearson Correlation Coefficients Between Composite Organizational Values, and Composite Work-Related Values of Senior, Middle, and Junior Managers by Gender (N = 104)

Management group	n	r
Senior women	18	.872
Senior men	16	.869
Middle men	19	.702
Middle women	21	.685
Junior women	19	.602
Junior men	11	.463

When ranked value priorities of Deputy Ministers were compared with those of the six management groups, it could be seen that the value priorities of senior women managers were identical with those of Deputy Ministers in terms of top priorities. Male senior managers' rankings were the next closest to those of Deputy Ministers, followed by male middle managers. The values of senior male and female managers were closest to those of Deputy Ministers in terms of least priorities (Tables 16 and 17). Strong leadership, integrity, and service quality were the top priorities of Deputy Ministers and senior women, and least priority was given by Deputy Ministers to organizational stability, expertise, social well-being, and organizational efficiency. These were also the least value priorities of senior women, although they ordered three of these value priorities slightly differently than did Deputy Ministers.

Table 16

Top-Priority Values for Deputy Ministers, and Priorities
for These Values by Public Service Managers (N = 124)

Rank	Deputy Ministers	Senior Women	Middle Women	Junior Women	Senior Men	Middle Men	Junior Men
1	LEAD	LEAD*	LEAD*	INTG	INTG	INTG	INTG
2	INTG	INTG*	INTG*		LEAD		SERV
3	SERV	SERV*		LEAD		LEAD	
4					SERV	SERV	
5							
6							
7				SERV			LEAD*
8							
9			SERV				

* Indicates tied ranks, therefore some approximation.

LEAD Strong leadership

INTG Integrity

SERV Service quality

Table 17

Least-Priority Values for Deputy Ministers, and Priorities
for These Values by Public Service Managers (N = 124)

Rank	Deputy	Women Managers			Men Managers		
	Ministers	Senior	Middle	Junior	Senior	Middle	Junior
3							EXPT*
4			EXPT			EXPT	
5							
6			EFFI				
7							
8						EFFI	
9				EFFI	EXPT*	WELL	EFFI
10							STAB
11				WELL*			
12.5	EFFI*	EFFI		EXPT*	EFFI		WELL
12.5	WELL*	EXPT		STAB			
14	EXPT	STAB	STAB		WELL		
15	STAB	WELL	WELL		STAB	STAB	

* Indicates tied ranks, therefore some approximation.

EXPT Expertise

EFFI Organizational efficiency

WELL Social well-being

STAB Organizational stability

Managers' Career Entry Values

Research question 5.

Is there a significant difference for men and women between the work-related values held at the beginning of their careers and those held at the time of the investigation?

No significant differences were found for any of the six management groups. However, when career entry and current values for managers with more than ten years of service and for managers with less were compared, significant differences were found for the values equality and expertise (Table 18). Equality was ranked more highly at the time of the investigation than at the time of entry into management careers by both groups, $p < .05$, and expertise less highly, $p < .05$. In respect of both equality and expertise, the increase or decrease in valuation was greater for managers with over ten years of experience than it was for their less experienced colleagues. No significant differences were found when career entry and current values for managers with more than ten years of service and for managers with less were controlled for gender.

Table 18

Mean Scores for the Ranking of the Values Equality and Expertise as Held at the Time of the Investigation and at the Time of Career-Entry by Public Service Managers, According to Years of Service (N = 104)

Years of Service	# of Cases	Current Values	Career-entry Values	Diff	t Value
Equality					
Less than 10	37	3.2973	3.3784	-.0811	2.04*
More than 10	67	3.4925	4.0299	-.5374	
Expertise					
Less than 10	37	3.0000	2.6752	.3248	-2.24*
More than 10	67	3.0448	2.0448	1.0000	

*p < .05

Summary

Strong leadership, integrity, and service quality were found to be the top-priority values of Deputy Ministers, and organizational stability, expertise, and social well-being the three least-priority values. Significant

differences were found between managers, and also between the organization and managers, for four values, all of which were among the top- and least-priority values of Deputy Ministers. These were: strong leadership, organizational stability, expertise, and social well-being. The top-priority values of senior women were identical with those of the organization, and those of senior males were the next closest. Correlations between the composite values of managers and the organization were highest for senior managers and lowest for junior managers. Significant differences between career entry and current values were found between less experienced and more experienced managers for the values expertise and equality.

Findings on The Perceptions of Managers as to the Degree to Which Factors Including Behaviours, Skills, and Training Affect Career Advancement

Research question 6.

Do managers at senior, middle, and junior levels express significantly different opinions as to the behaviours, skills, and training which they perceive to be necessary in attaining career advancement in the Public Service?

Overall, managers agreed with the statement, "Experience in central agencies helps advance one's career". However, ANOVA found significant differences between senior, middle, and junior managers, with senior managers agreeing significantly more strongly with the statement than middle managers (Tables 19 and 20). When controlled for gender, no significant differences were found for this item.

Table 19

Summary of Analysis of Variance of Usefulness of Central Agency Experience Scores of Senior, Middle, and Junior Managers (N = 103)

Source of variation	Sum of squares	df	M squares	F
Usefulness of central agency experience				
Between groups	3.72	2	1.86	.042*
Within groups	56.96	100	.57	
Total	60.68	102		

*p < .05

Table 20

Student-Neuman-Keuls Post-Hoc Pair-Wise Comparisons of Usefulness of Central Agency Experience Scores of Senior, Middle, and Junior Managers (N = 103)

Group	n	Mean
Usefulness of central agency experience		
Senior managers	33	2.12 (*)
Middle managers	40	2.53 (*)
Junior managers	30	2.53

Note. The lower the mean score, the higher the agreement with the perception statement.

(*) Denotes pairs of groups significantly different, $p < .05$.

Overall, managers tended to disagree that "Women have more opportunity than men for advancement", but ANOVA found significant differences between the six management groups, $p < .01$. The Student-Neuman-Keuls test confirmed significant differences at the .05 level between junior men and three other management groups: senior men, senior women, and junior women, with junior men tending to agree with the statement (Tables 21 and 22).

Table 21
summary of Analysis of Variance of Women's Greater
 Opportunity for Career Advancement Scores of Public Service
 Managers (N = 103)

Source of variation	Sum of squares	df	M squares	F
Women's greater opportunity for career advancement				
Between groups	12.93	5	2.59	.008**
Within groups	74.99	97	.77	
Total	87.92	102		

**p < .01

Table 22

Student-Neuman-Keuls Post-Hoc Pair-Wise Comparisons of Women's Greater Opportunity for Career Advancement Scores of Public Service Managers (N = 103)

Group	n	Mean			
Women's greater opportunity for career advancement					
Senior women managers	17	3.94	(*)		
Middle women managers	21	3.76			
Junior women managers	19	4.21	(*)		
Senior male managers	16	3.63		(*)	
Middle male managers	19	3.63			
Junior male managers	11	2.91	(*)	(*)	(*)

Note. The higher the mean score, the higher the disagreement with the perception statement.

(*) Denotes pairs of groups significantly different, $p < .05$.

Managers also tended to disagree with the cross-check statement, "Men do not have more opportunity than women for advancement", and ANOVA found significant differences between the contrasting groups, $p < .001$. The Student-

Neuman-Keuls test found significant differences at the .05 level between male junior managers and all other management groups, with junior male managers tending to agree with the statement (Tables 23 and 24).

Table 23

Summary of Analysis of Variance of Men's Lesser Opportunity for Career Advancement Scores of Public Service Managers (N = 103)

Source of variation	Sum of squares	df	M squares	F
Men's lesser opportunity for career advancement				
Between groups	25.96	5	5.19	.0003**
Within groups	97.59	97	1.01	
Total	123.55	102		

***p<.001

Table 24

Student-Neuman-Keuls Post-Hoc Pair-Wise Comparisons of Men's Lesser Opportunity for Career Advancement Scores of Public Service Managers (N = 103)

Group	n	Mean					
Men's lesser opportunity for career advancement							
Senior women managers	17	3.88	(*)				
Middle women managers	21	3.81		(*)			
Junior women managers	19	4.05			(*)		
Senior male managers	16	3.44				(*)	
Middle male managers	19	3.21					(*)
Junior male managers	11	2.36	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)

Note. The higher the mean score, the higher the disagreement with the negative perception statement.

(*) Denotes pairs of groups significantly different, $p < .05$.

For the statement, "Having an advanced degree does not aid career advancement", although no significant differences were found between gender-combined management groups, for the three men's groups significant differences

were found, $p < .05$, with male junior managers disagreeing with the negative perception statement more strongly than male middle managers (Tables 25 and 26). No significant differences were found between the female management groups, but women's scores indicated that they agreed with their male colleagues on the usefulness of post-graduate degrees in career advancement.

Table 25

Summary of Analysis of Variance of Usefulness of Post-Graduate Degrees Scores of Senior, Middle, and Junior Men Managers (N = 46)

Source of variation	Sum of squares	df	M squares	F
Usefulness of advanced degrees				
Between groups	4.47	2	2.24	.037*
Within groups	26.85	43	.62	
Total	31.33	45		

* $p < .05$

Table 26
Student-Neuman-Keuls Post-Hoc Pair-Wise Comparisons of
Usefulness of Post-Graduate Degrees Scores of Senior,
Middle and Junior Men Managers (N = 46)

Group	n	Mean
Usefulness of advanced degrees		
Senior male managers	16	3.56
Middle male managers	19	3.53 (*)
Junior male managers	11	4.27 (*)

Note. The higher the mean score, the higher the disagreement with the negative perception statement.
 (*) Denotes pairs of groups significantly different, $p < .05$.

Although no other significant differences were found, Table 27 illustrates the general level of agreement/disagreement with the remaining statements relating to the skills, behaviours, and training thought to be necessary for career advancement (* = population mean).

Table 27

General Level of Agreement/Disagreement of Public Service
Managers on the Skills, Behaviours, and Training Necessary
for Career Advancement (N = 103)

GOOD COMMUNICATIONS SKILLS HELP ADVANCE ONE'S CAREER					
SA	*	A	?	D	SD
CAREER ADVANCEMENT DEPENDS ON WORKING VERY LONG HOURS					
SA		A	? *	D	SD
HAVING A MENTOR DOES NOT HELP ADVANCE ONE'S CAREER					
SA		A	?	* D	SD
CAREER ADVANCMT DEPENDS ON BEING AVAILABLE WHENEVER NEEDED					
SA		A	* ?	D	SD
GOOD INTERPERSONAL SKILLS AID CAREER ADVANCEMENT					
SA	*	A	?	D	SD
NETWORKING WITH COLLEAGUES HELPS ADVANCE ONE'S CAREER					
SA		A*	?	D	SD
EXPERIENCE IN LINE MINISTRIES AIDS CAREER ADVANCEMENT					
SA		A	* ?	D	SD
CAREER ADVANCEMENT DEPENDS ON PUTTING JOB BEFORE FAMILY					
SA		A	?*	D	SD

SA STRONGLY AGREE

A AGREE

? NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE

D DISAGREE

SD STRONGLY DISAGREE

Summary

Senior managers rated the value of central agency experience in career advancement significantly higher than did middle managers. Overall, managers tended to disagree that women have more opportunity than men for career advancement, but junior men differed significantly from senior women, junior women, and senior men on this point. Conversely, managers also tended to disagree with the suggestion that men do not have more opportunity than women for career advancement, but male junior managers disagreed significantly with all other management groups that this was the case. Male junior managers were significantly stronger than male middle managers in their belief in the usefulness of advanced degrees in career advancement.

Findings on Research Questions Relating to
Demographics, and Demographic Characteristics of the
Sample Population

Research question 7.

Is there a significant difference in management level achieved between managers who hold advanced degrees and those who do not?

There is a significant difference in management level achieved between managers who hold post-graduate degrees and those who do not, $p < .001$. For both genders the highest proportion of post-graduate degrees was held by senior managers, with 72% of senior women and 44% of senior men holding such degrees. The percentages were progressively smaller for middle managers and junior managers and, at these levels, a greater proportion of male than female managers held post-graduate degrees (Table 28).

Table 28

Level of Education of Public Service Managers, and
Management Level Achieved (N = 104)

Management level	n	Advanced degree	No advanced degree
Senior women	18	72.2%	27.8%
Middle women	21	28.6%	71.4%
Junior women	19	5.3%	94.7%
Senior men	16	43.8%	56.3%
Middle men	19	36.8%	63.2%
Junior men	11	9.1%	90.9%
Chi Square	Value	df	F
Pearson	22.88296	5	.00036

Research question 8.

Is there a significant difference in management level achieved between married and non-married managers?

Seventy percent of managers were married. Across the whole management cohort, no significant differences were found between groups in terms of marital status although the percentage of women married, at all three management levels, was less than that of their male counterparts, and less than the average for the complete cohort. In contrast, the percentage of married male managers at all three levels exceeded the overall average. However, at the middle-management level, there was a significant difference between male and female managers, $p < .05$, with 33% of female managers unmarried, but only 5% of male managers unmarried (Tables 29 and 30).

Table 29

Marital Status of Public Service Managers, and Management Level Achieved (N = 104)

Management level	n	Married	Non-married
Senior women	18	55.6%	44.4%
Middle women	21	66.7%	33.3%
Junior women	19	52.6%	47.4%
Senior men	16	75.0%	25.0%
Middle men	19	94.7%	5.3%
Junior men	11	72.7%	27.3%

Table 30

Marital Status of Public Service Middle Managers (N = 40)

Management level	Married	Non-married	
Middle women	66.7%	33.3%	
Middle men	94.7%	5.3%	

Chi Square	Value	df	F
Pearson	4.91228	1	.02667

Research question 9.

Is there a relationship between management level achieved and whether or not managers have children?

Almost one third of managers (32%) were childless. Significant differences were found, $p < .01$, between groups, with a lower proportion of women at all management levels having children than their male counterparts (Table 31). Senior and junior women were childless more than twice as often as their male counterparts, and middle women were childless more than five times as often as middle men. No significant differences were found between management level achieved and the age of managers' children.

Table 31

Parental Status of Public Service Managers, and Management Level Achieved (N = 104)

Management level	n	Children	No children
Senior women	18	66.7%	33.3%
Middle women	21	42.9%	57.1%
Junior women	19	52.6%	47.4%
Senior men	16	87.5%	12.5%
Middle men	19	89.5%	10.5%
Junior men	11	81.8%	18.2%
Chi Square	Value	df	F
Pearson	16.03385	5	.00675

Age of the subjects

Approximately 70% of the sample population were over 40, and a significant difference in management level achieved was found when controlled for age, $p < .01$ (Table 32). For both genders, the highest percentage of managers over forty lies in the senior management groups. For men, the percentage of managers over forty diminishes from 94% to 89% to 64% as one moves down the management hierarchy. This pattern is not repeated among women where, although senior women constitute the highest proportion of female managers over 40 (83%), a higher percentage of junior women (53%) is over 40 than of middle women (43%). Compared with women, a higher percentage of men is over 40 at all three management levels, with the percentage of male middle managers over 40 being more than twice that of female middle managers.

Table 32

Age of Public Service Managers, and Management Level Achieved (N = 104)

Management level	n	Under 40	Over 40
Senior women	18	16.7%	83.3%
Middle women	21	57.1%	42.9%
Junior women	19	47.4%	52.6%
Senior men	16	6.3%	93.8%
Middle men	19	10.5%	89.5%
Junior men	11	12.9%	63.6%
Chi Square	Value	df	F
Pearson	19.63172	5	.00147

Years of service, years in current job, and functional area of the subjects.

Across the whole management cohort, no significant differences were found between management level achieved and years of service, years in the current job, or

functional area in which managers are employed. However, significant differences were found between male and female senior managers with respect to years of service, $p < .01$, and years in their current jobs. $p < .01$ (Tables 33 and 34). At this management level, approximately 56% of women compared to about 13% of men had less than ten years of service, and nearly 78% of women compared to 25% of men had more than 2 years tenure in their current jobs.

Table 33

Years of Service of Male and Female Senior Public Service Managers (N = 34)

Management group	n	Years of Service	
		Under 10	Over 10
Senior women	18	55.6%	44.4%
Senior men	16	12.5%	87.5%
Chi Square	Value	df	F
Pearson	6.87584	1	.00874

Table 34

Years in Current Job, of Male and Female Senior Public
Service Managers (N = 34)

Management group	n	Years in Current Job	
		Under 2	Over 2
Senior women	18	77.8%	22.2%
Senior men	16	25.0%	75.0%
Chi Square	Value	df	F
Pearson	9.47067	1	.00209

Summary

A significant difference in management level achieved was found between those who hold advanced degrees and those who do not, and the highest proportion of advanced degree holders were senior women managers. A significantly larger percentage of female middle managers were unmarried than of their male counterparts, and a larger proportion of female than male managers were childless. There was a significant difference in management level achieved when controlled for age. For both genders, the highest proportion of managers

over 40 held senior positions. Male senior managers had significantly more years of service, and of tenure in their current jobs, than female senior managers.

Findings on the Opinions of Managers on the Effects on
Their Careers of Values Held and of
Value Conflicts Experienced by Them, and
Their Views on Value Change Within Their Organization

Values Which Contributed to Managers' Career Success

Research question 1Ca

What value has contributed most to your career success, and how has it contributed?

The factors which were mentioned by members of all six management groups as having assisted them in their careers were: integrity, honesty, and communication and interpersonal skills. Hard work, commitment, and professionalism were mentioned by members of all groups except the junior male managers. Knowledge and expertise were reported to have helped members of all three female management groups and to have helped one male middle manager. Gaining the respect of colleagues was cited by

members of all three women's groups, and leadership by middle managers of both genders.

The career-enhancing effects listed included: recognition by superiors; increased responsibility and opportunities; greater ability to win job competitions and to break down barriers to advancement; access to new jobs and assignments; preparation for more senior positions.

Managers listed many other factors which, in their views, positively affected their career advancement, and made statements which explained how their careers were affected by these factors. Appendix I contains managers' responses to Research Questions 10a, 10b, 11, and 12.

Values Which Impeded Managers' Career Success

Research question 10b.

What value held by you has held you back most in your career and how has it held you back?

Some managers in all six groups stated that no values had held them back in their careers. Balancing work and home responsibilities was reported to have impeded career advancement for members of all groups. In all except the male junior-management group, managers' honesty and

integrity were reported to have affected career advancement negatively. Senior and middle male and female managers mentioned problems attached to networking as having held them back in their careers. Senior and middle women mentioned inequality as having affected their careers negatively.

Career-impeding effects cited included: prevented application for certain positions; prevented devoting the expected long hours to the job; prevented making the apparently necessary collegial contacts; reduced tact, and diplomacy; reduced ability to compromise; reduced employer trust; reduced productivity; reduced self-confidence.

Value Conflicts Experienced by Managers

Research question 11.

What value conflicts have you experienced during your career, and how did they affect your career?

Value conflicts relating to work, family, and long hours were experienced by managers in all six groups. Women mentioned this conflict more than twice as often as men. Integrity versus diplomacy was mentioned by members of all groups except male junior managers. The conflict

between valuing people versus other priorities was mentioned by all groups except senior women.

Some of the reported effects on careers of value conflicts were negative as they resulted in: the failure to pursue opportunities; lateral moves which delayed advancement; quitting the job, involuntary career plateauing; the decision to stay at lower management levels; distancing from senior officials; dismissal; and unwillingness to relocate for promotion. Some managers reported potentially positive career consequences of value conflicts, in that their integrity was perceived and respected. Others reported that value conflicts affected their families more than their careers.

Managers' Organizational Value-Change Recommendations

Research question 12.

If you could change the values of your organization, what changes would you make, and why would you make them?

Members of all six management groups recommended that people be valued more than is currently the case, and members of all groups except junior men recommended that

productivity be valued more. Members of all six groups recommended that promotions be based on competence and fairness, and biases eliminated. Support for individuals as they try to balance work, family, and personal interests was recommended by senior and junior female managers and by senior and middle male managers. Members of all the female management groups recommended the strengthening of leadership. Members of all the male management groups and of the senior women's group recommended more emphasis on management and on strategies for working successfully in a political climate.

Managers' rationales for instituting the value change recommendations centred on the positive effects for personnel, the organization, and the public, of doing so. Positive effects for employees listed included: the strengthening of family life; improved employee satisfaction; better health; increased motivation; improved morale; the elimination of biases, inequality, and discrimination. Positive effects for the organization listed included: improved organizational health, stability, productivity, teamwork, flexibility, and creativity; reduced conflict; better retention of good employees; and higher calibre staff. Improved service to the public, and revitalization of the Public Service were also suggested

outcomes of the recommended value changes.

Summary

Managers reported that integrity and honesty were factors which had both helped and hindered their career advancement. Communications and interpersonal skills were viewed as being helpful, as were hard work, commitment, professionalism, knowledge, and expertise. Gaining respect was cited by women at all levels, and leadership by middle managers of both genders. The positive effects of these factors on careers included increased employer recognition, expanded responsibilities, and improved success in winning job competitions and breaking down barriers to advancement.

The negative effects of honesty and integrity included the reduction of employee ability to compromise which was reported to affect tact, diplomacy, and employer trust. Senior and middle women reported that inequality had held them back in their careers, and they were joined by male senior and middle managers in reporting that failure or inability to network and make contact with influential officials had impeded their career progress.

The need to balance work and family responsibilities was both a barrier to career development, especially for women, and a general source of conflict, and was one of the

issues most frequently cited as demanding organizational value change. All groups except senior women mentioned the conflict between valuing people and other priorities. The results of value conflicts included the failure to pursue opportunities, unwillingness to relocate for promotion, and even quitting the job. However, there were some positive effects on careers of value conflicts in terms of recognition of employee integrity, and consequent respect for the individual.

One of the most frequently suggested organizational value changes was promoting on the basis of fairness. Members of all six management groups recommended that people be valued more. Conversely, members of all groups except the male junior-management group recommended that productivity be valued more. Women at all levels of management recommended that leadership be strengthened. Rationales for changing values in the organization centred on positive effects on the individual employee, the organization, and the general public.

CHAPTER 5

Discussion, Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations

This study was a preliminary investigation of the relationship between the values of the organization, the work-related values of managers, and the career advancement of female managers within the British Columbia Public Service. The implicit hypotheses of the study were:

- 1) that managers share more value similarities than differences and there are more similarities than differences between their values and those of the organization;
- 2) that career success will correlate positively with value congruency between top-level officials and aspirants;
- 3) that value congruency will diminish as one moves down the ranks of the organizational hierarchy;
- 4) that gender differences will be less relevant to career success than congruency with organizational values;
- 5) that value change over time will be relevant to managers' levels of achievement;
- 6) that gender differences will be less relevant than level of achievement to perceptions of the degree to which factors such as behaviours, skills, and training

- influence career advancement;
- 7) that the educational levels of managers will be relevant to their levels of achievement and will be comparatively higher for women than for men; and
 - 8) that the incidence of marriage and incidence of parenthood will be relevant to level of achievement, and the incidence of both will be comparatively lower for women than for men.

Responses to the specific research questions appear to support the implicit hypotheses 1, 2, 3, 4, and 6, partially to support the implicit hypotheses 7 and 8, and not to support the implicit hypothesis 5.

Organizational and Work-Related Value Differences

Although the issue of shared values within private sector organizations has received considerable attention in recent years, examination of the sharing of values within public sector organizations has been less energetically pursued. Examination of the interrelationship between values and career advancement in the public sector, with special reference to women managers, has also been neglected.

This study provided the first articulation of the values of the British Columbia Public service as seen from the perspective of its chief executive officers and the findings furnish an information base for consideration by researchers investigating socialization processes and value transition mechanisms which the literature stresses are lacking in organizations, but are needed (Lang, 1986; Marchilonis, 1983; Warick, 1987).

The research determined that the top-priority organizational values were, in descending order of preference: strong leadership, integrity, and service quality. The least-priority values, in ascending order of preference, were: organizational stability, expertise, social well-being, and organizational efficiency. There is an apparent link between these values and Hodgkinson's (1978, 1983) value paradigm in which he defines values as concepts of the desirable which influence choice, and postulates a hierarchical view of commitment to values: type III commitment, which involves simple preference for one alternative over another; type II rational and cognitive commitment; and type I commitment to principle. Values at ascending levels of the hierarchy subsume those at subordinate levels.

The values given top and least priority by the

organization were all important to the organization in terms of achieving its objectives and, for the most part, belonged to type IIa (consequence). Service quality also represents type IIb (consensus), in that it is generally agreed that good service ought to be provided by public service organizations, but this is subordinated by type IIa commitment to rationality in terms of the consequences for the organization of failing to provide good service. Type I values of principle, and type III values of preference are less important at this point. However, later in the discussion which follows, type I and type III values become more important. Simple preference and basic principle are both elements which appear to play a part in the career decisions made by managers, and examples of various steps in the paradigm can repeatedly be seen as the work-related values which influence their careers are examined and discussed. Value conflicts, according to Hodgkinson's model are most irreconcilable at the type I level and, where conflicts at this level occur, effects on careers appear to be serious.

The study also revealed that public service managers, like their private sector colleagues, share values with their organization and with each other to a great extent, thus adding a new dimension to the findings of previous

research in the private sector (O'Neill, 1985). It was only in relation to four of the fifteen values, comprising the top priority value and the three least-priority values, that significant differences were found.

Examination of the findings in relation to these four specific values indicates that dilemmas revolving around the tension between government managers' work-related values and Public Service organizational values are likely to influence the career development of managers and that the dilemmas affect men as well as women.

Strong leadership

The consistently lower ranking of strong leadership, the organization's top-priority value, by junior managers, both in relation to the organization and in relation to other management groups, suggests that the role of leadership in the achievement of organizational goals may be less well understood by junior managers of both genders than by their senior colleagues, despite their relatively equivalent years of service. The same might apply to male middle managers, who gave lower priority to strong leadership than did the organization, and could contribute to explanations of why certain managers remain in junior and middle management positions throughout their careers. Demonstrated capability in the provision of the fundamental

elements of organizational leadership such as providing vision and direction, and supporting, motivating, and inspiring confidence in staff, clearly plays a role in the attainment of top positions, and reduced awareness of this may, in this case, have held back even those who aspire to senior management positions.

Another explanation for the lower ranking of strong leadership by these managers may be their realization of their own lack of leadership qualities and possible reconciliation to the fact that few of them will be promoted to top management positions. Where this is the case, the mutual prime value of these managers, integrity, may give them an alternative source of career satisfaction. This possibility parallels Kanter's (1977) view that, where there are few career development prospects, women find alternative sources of gratification, and suggests that her theory may be applicable in different but related situations for men as well as women.

Examination of value rankings revealed that understanding of the role of strong leadership in the achievement of organizational goals and, ultimately, in career advancement may, in the long term, be a less serious problem for junior women and middle men than for junior men, since junior women and middle men both ranked this

value third, whereas junior men ranked it seventh. But, in view of the similarity between the organizational ranking of strong leadership and that of senior male and senior and middle female managers, it seems likely that this shared value has contributed to the advancement of these groups to date and that future top government executives will emerge from their ranks.

Organizational stability

The lowest-priority value for the organization and for senior managers, organizational stability, was ranked significantly higher by gender-combined junior managers. Some explanations of the connection between this value difference and level of achievement are also provided by the contrasting nature of the work of managers as opposed to administrators. Working at the operational level, junior managers tend to be concerned with getting the job done without disruption and delay. One of the consequences of a stable environment is that it enables them to meet their organizational goals more easily which, theoretically, should lead to approval and contribute to subsequent career advancement. However, at higher administrative levels, alternative values may be more important. At the strategic level, senior managers' roles and levels of responsibility are quite different from those

of junior managers. Senior managers play a different part in the achievement of organizational goals than their junior colleagues and are, therefore, less concerned about stability than about making changes which give them the flexibility to adopt fresh and more-effective approaches to achieving organizational objectives. Thus, dominant administrative metavalues relating to efficiency and effectiveness take precedence over organizational stability. Managers who perform well in a fluctuating environment may have been promoted, leaving in junior positions those whose need for organizational stability is greatest. In view of the constancy of change within government, managers' career advancement may well be impeded if they value stability more highly than flexibility, innovation, and creativity, and this appears to be the case for the junior managers in this study.

Organizational stability may also be valued more highly by junior managers because of the interplay between certain professional and personal considerations which could affect their career advancement. For example, junior employees' greater concern for organizational stability may relate partly to their professional goals and partly to their financial responsibilities. The early stages of career development tend to coincide with the establishment

of homes and families, and job security is a priority during these years. A greater percentage of junior male than junior female managers are married, and a greater percentage have children, which may contribute to men's stronger views on the importance of organizational stability, but women's responsibilities, particularly in cases where they are heads of lone-parent families, could be equally compelling factors in relation to their ranking of organizational stability.

At the same time, concerns relating to professional development and program continuity, and concerns relating to the achievement of personal goals, which more easily occur during periods of relative organizational calm, may be most important for some junior managers. It is in the early stages of career development that ambitious employees traditionally develop the skills required for future career advancement and a reputation for timely completion of high-quality projects. Frustration of training and developmental ambitions may be a result of constant reorganization and instability, and reputations may be damaged. Thus, extended periods of organizational stability may be perceived as a necessity by those who aspire to top positions. However, since the majority of junior managers of both genders are over 40, and almost

half of the junior men and two-thirds of the junior women have more than 10 years of experience, developmental factors seem to provide less convincing explanations of their higher ranking of expertise than professional considerations. This suggests that many of them may be satisfied to remain in junior positions. In either case, the higher ranking of organizational stability by junior managers is understandable but may have serious implications for those who aspire to top management positions.

Examination of value rankings revealed that in relation to organizational stability, junior women are much closer to the organization than are junior men, since junior women ranked this value among their three lowest values, but junior men ranked this value tenth of fifteen. Nevertheless, it does appear that, at the junior stage of career development, male and female junior managers share perspectives on organizational stability which are inimical to career advancement while traditional views of precedence of the needs of the organization over the needs of employees remain in place. Those whose desire for stability is resolute may have rejected the idea of seeking promotion after considering the value implications of moving upwards within an organization whose top executives

place a low priority on organizational stability and within which the ambiguities and uncertainties of change prevail.

Expertise

Expertise, the second-lowest value priority for the organization, was found to be valued significantly more highly by the middle management cohort. When separated by gender, junior male managers and female middle managers valued expertise significantly more highly than did the organization. Middle women also valued expertise significantly more highly than their senior and junior women colleagues. Since senior managers operate at a strategic (administrative) level where conceptual skills are most valuable in achieving their particular objectives, whereas middle and junior managers are more involved at the tactical and operational (managerial) levels where expertise is more useful in achieving their differing objectives, dissonance in respect to this value is to be expected. In particular, the role of middle managers in the hiring of junior managers and in overseeing the progress of their work, may also have a bearing on their appreciation of expertise. In their case, possession or appreciation of expertise may have contributed to their attainment of middle management positions, but could impede further advancement. Viewed from another perspective,

unwavering allegiance to this, or for that matter any other value, might in the long run become an impediment to further career development by preventing managers from moving away from values which are appropriate for the tactician towards values which pertain to strategic administration. In the case of male junior managers, the higher priority given to expertise by them might also enable them to do well at their current level but influence their remaining at this level. Compared with female middle managers, they hold slightly stronger views on the importance of this value, which suggests that organizational stability helps them to meet their purposes.

Advancement to top positions may depend more on the development of general management skills than upon expertise, and the higher organizational rating of such values as leadership, integrity, service quality, and clear communication appears to indicate that this is the case. Although a higher regard for expertise may be appropriate in the junior- and middle-management domains, especially for those who are satisfied with the challenges of work at the operational and tactical levels and intend to stay there, it may be appropriate for middle managers who aspire to reach the top echelons of management, where perceptions are broader and the minutiae of organizational detail less

important, to review their positions on expertise and on the breadth of their view.

Female middle managers, between whom and the organization there appear to be fairly extreme differences in relation to this particular value, have likely been particularly vulnerable to organizational review of issues relating to the values they hold and those they lack, in promotional decision-making. This may have contributed to the underrepresentation of women in senior positions in public sector management.

Social well-being

The third lowest organizational value, social well-being, was placed in the lower half of their value rankings by all six groups of managers but was valued significantly less by female senior and middle managers than by the organization and by their junior female colleagues. This suggests that, within the context of a public sector environment, junior female managers are not different from their male colleagues with respect to the relatively low level of priority which they give to understanding and meeting the needs of the community, but that female senior and middle managers hold more extreme views than the other management groups on this value. The absence of differences between the junior female managers, male junior

and middle managers, and the organization suggests that the response of female senior and middle managers may arise from their unique perspective on the issue influenced by a combination of intuition, and strategic and tactical skills, which relate both to their gender and management levels.

This was the only value in relation to which the difference between the organization and its managers was completely gender-specific and the only one in which managers' views were directionally more extreme than those of the organization. The seniority and gender of the differing managers suggest that identification with organizational values may be extremely influential in career advancement, particularly for women. The experience of these women in the achievement of organizational objectives and in successfully developing their own careers in a male-dominated environment may have convinced them that, in their particular world, paying less rather than more attention to traditional feminine interests and preferences is more productive, especially as these are likely to be over-ridden by rational decision-making, in promotional terms.

The significantly lower ranking of social well-being by female senior and middle managers and the fact

that the ranking of their junior female colleagues was as low as that of male managers, appears to challenge the opinions of writers and researchers who claim that women are more oriented towards caring than are men (Bussey & Maughan, 1982). However, it may also indicate that in relation to this value, organizational impress has brought about an adjustment in value orientation, possibly accompanied by a degree of adoption of an androgynous approach to management. This adds a value dimension to the claim by other researchers (Colwill, 1982; Hardesty & Jacobs, 1986) that ambitious women are often forced to change their nurturing inclinations and conform to masculine roles and expectations of how a manager should be in order to be successful in male-dominated organizations and suggests that in this respect, the demands of public sector organizations may be little different from those of their private sector counterparts. Organizational roles may, however, be gender-free. In any case, this research provides some evidence that successful women's value orientation conforms to the organizational template.

It was only in connection with three least-priority values and one top priority value that managers differed from the organization and among themselves. Although these differences relate to more than a quarter of the values

under discussion, differences are not substantial in that they occurred only in respect to nine of ninety (10%) of the group responses. Nevertheless, failure to promote managers holding somewhat different values from the organization would be understandable in view of the implications of certain value differences for the organization, in terms of capacity to meet its objectives. Even so, the effect on career advancement of the differences discussed in this section would be approximately the same for men as for women.

Congruency with Organizational Values

In determining the influence of values upon career advancement, it is as important to examine the similarities between the organization's values and the work-related values of employees as the differences. In this study, far more similarities than differences were revealed and the study determined that career success, in terms of achieving senior management positions, correlated positively with value congruency between the organization and its senior managers. This replicates, in a public

sector organization, findings based on research in private corporations that values play an important role in determining how far managers can rise in an organization (Deal & Kennedy, 1982).

Congruency between the values of the organization and those of combined-gender management groups was found to diminish in descending order down the organizational hierarchy from senior to junior management levels. When separated by gender, correlations descended as follows: senior women, senior men, middle men, middle women, junior women, and junior men. Thus, at the senior and junior management levels, women's values were found to be slightly closer to those of their organization than those of their male counterparts, but the reverse was true for female middle managers.

An extraordinary degree of similarity occurred between the value rankings of senior managers and the organization with reference to top-priority rankings. It is noteworthy that senior women's top-priority rankings were identical to those of the organization. Those of senior males differed slightly. The ranked least-priority values of both male and female senior managers were closer to those of the organization than those of any of the lower-level groups.

Only at one point in the study, in relation to senior

women's even-lower ranking of one of the organization's least priority values, social well-being, were any significant differences between the values of the organization and those of senior managers found.

The study indicates that in the British Columbia Public Service there is a relationship between the sharing of values with the organization and career advancement, and that the attainment of senior management positions is more influenced by the distance between the values of the organization and those of managers than by gender. These findings clarify some of the apparent confusion in the research literature over gender differences in relationship to shared values, at least in relation to one public sector organization, the British Columbia Public Service. The research augments that of Schmidt and Posner, who investigated the perceived compatibility between managers' values and those of their organizations, by investigating the reality of such compatibility. The perceptions of Schmidt and Posner's female subjects that the values of women managers are closer to those of their organization than those of their male colleagues at equivalent levels are contradicted in part by the findings of this study, which is based on empirical study rather than on opinion.

The research adds precision to earlier predictions of greater opportunities for women to advance in their careers in the 1990s (Chambers & Cullen (1989), particularly if the era of competition for "the best" employees, as was predicted by Collard (1989), occurs. Strong leadership, integrity, service quality, and other organizational values which the study confirmed that female managers and the British Columbia Public Service espouse, are likely to be of comparable interest to private-sector employers. Organizational leaders who perceive the benefits in employing individuals whose values are similar to those of their organizations will be selecting and promoting staff from a pool of managers in which Chambers and Cullen estimated there will be approximately as many women as men. It appears reasonable to predict that, in a tight and highly competitive labour market, women managers whose values are as close to those of the organization as those of male managers will be able to make gains in securing senior and top management positions to match their gains in obtaining junior and middle management positions which have occurred over the past few years. Similar progress would lead to a situation in which one third of top and senior managers would be female.

With respect to the six management groups, the study

found no significant differences between the values held at the time of the investigation and those claimed to have been held at the time of entry into careers in management, thus change in values over time had not influenced management level achieved for managers of either gender. Additionally, the finding of only two significant value differences between managers with more than ten years of service and those with less, supports the argument that even though the Public Service does, to a small degree, mold the values of its employees, the changes are insufficient to affect career advancement.

The two values in respect of which change did occur over time were equality and expertise. Equality was valued more over time, regardless of gender, and expertise less. In relation to equality, social conditioning seems as likely to have influenced the value change as organizational socialization. The change could be attributed to one of many influences, or to a combination of several factors external or internal to the organization such as: experience of the dysfunctional effects of inequality within the organization; agreement with change in social expectations; increased appreciation of fairness, brought about by maturity or life experience; increased awareness of the potential improvement in the life of many

segments of society as equality between groups increases; and improved understanding of the competence of both genders. The lessening of the importance of expertise as experience increases may be a result of observation from a variety of managerial viewpoints of the contribution of other factors to the achievement of corporate objectives. It may also arise from opportunities to develop a broader view of the work of the organization over time, from increased exposure to the work of senior managers, and from a subsequent awareness of strategic management activities in which expertise is less important than the ability to conceptualize.

The findings of earlier researchers (Hodgkinson, 1970; Scott & Hart, 1979) that as individuals gain experience within the organization the more their values will come to resemble those of the organization, were confirmed only to a slight degree in this study, and in respect of only two of fifteen values. No gender differences were observed. However, a great deal of value sharing between managers and their organization at all levels in the British Columbia Public Service was observed. This gives rise to a new theory that in the contemporary organization, which can afford to be more selective than was the case in the 1970s, more-sophisticated hiring practices are, perhaps

unconsciously, replacing the organizational socialization process in ensuring that employees share the values of the organization. Such appears to be the case within the British Columbia Public Service, where all component parts of the managerial workforce share the values of the organization to a great extent although managers' values tended not to alter over time, which suggests that the values of managers were not so much shaped by the organization as in place before they were hired. This implies that managers bring an appropriate set of values with them when they enter public service management and that those who reach top positions by climbing the ranks have the value potential to do so at an early stage in their careers.

Presumably, if the predicted shortages of workers in the managerial and administrative categories occur (Collard, 1989), and employers are unable to be as selective, reversion to greater organizational influence in molding the values of employees might naturally occur, but it seems unlikely. Such molding takes time, and hiring on the basis of values held appears to be more efficient. Basic information provided through this study might assist future researchers to investigate a conscious approach to screening internal candidates for promotion and outside job

applicants, on the basis of values held. However, since women have not been as successful as men in reaching middle, senior, and top management positions, despite their inherent value potential, other factors than the values discussed to this point appear to have played a major role in impeding their progress.

The subjects' reliance on memory in evaluating their change in values over time may have distorted their responses to some degree. Observation of their change in values in an experimental situation might have produced different results, and heightened the reliability and generalizability of the finding on this particular question.

The Perceived Effects on Careers of Behaviours, Skills, and Training

The perceptions of managers as to the behaviours, skills, and training which affect career advancement were similar except in a few specific cases. Senior managers agreed even more strongly than middle or junior managers that central agency experience is helpful in career advancement. The sophisticated expertise and specialized

knowledge developed in central agencies seem to be highly regarded by senior managers, which suggests that broad organizational perspective, including an understanding of the functions, roles, and power of central agencies, is a necessary attribute of the senior manager. Based on consensus as to the usefulness of central agency experience, and the perceived consequences in terms of career advancement of gaining this experience, it is to be expected that those who aspire to become top managers will take the rational step of including central agency experience in planning their overall developmental program.

Although a previous section of the study revealed that there were no differences between the various management groups with respect to the organization's tenth-ranked value, equality, all groups except junior males perceived that men have more opportunity than women for career advancement. Agreement with this perception was strongest for junior women. The significant disagreement with this view by junior male managers suggests that they are more concerned than their senior- and middle-level male colleagues about their own career prospects. Mean scores relating to men's opportunity and also to the cross-check item which suggested that women have more opportunity than men for career advancement, indicate that women are not

perceived by any group except junior males to have an advantage. Rather, it is acknowledged that they are at a disadvantage. The strikingly differing viewpoint of male junior managers may reflect their awareness of the intensification of competition for more senior positions as women join the ranks of those seeking career advancement, and their concerns surrounding possible dysfunctional effects on their own careers of this increased competition.

Managers' perceptions relating to the difference in opportunity level for men and women, and the agreement of three female and two male management groups that women have less opportunity for career advancement and men more, complicates interpretation of the comparatively low ranking of the value equality by the organization and all six management groups, and the absence of significant differences between them relating to this value. The provision of equal career development opportunities for men and women, which was the definition of equality ranked by managers in this study, seems to be a fair, reasonable, and just expectation within the contemporary workforce, involving type IIa values which recognize the potential benefits to the organization of developing and utilizing the most capable managers from the total available pool, and involving type I values of principle in that it is not

only good, but also right, to do so. Possibly the values which are important to public servants in achieving their management objectives are different from those which are important to them in achieving their goals as individuals, but such dissonance appears unlikely in view of the strong affinity for the value integrity, with its elements of consistency and reliability, demonstrated by members of all management groups. An overarching element of acceptance of the career-advancement status quo for women, which ignores questions of equality, and depends more on a metavalue pertaining to the desirability of men holding top positions may exist, or there may be an element of complacency among senior and middle managers in connection with their personal levels of achievement, which is not shared by their junior male colleagues who perceive obstacles, possibly including the provision of career development opportunities to women, which might impede their own movement into the higher management ranks.

Whatever the explanations, the perception of disadvantage for women, coupled with relatively low regard for the underlying value which could make a difference to the situation, may contribute to explanations of the slow progress made by women in reaching the top in the British Columbia Public Service. The dissonance suggests the

possibility that unexamined, pervasive, traditional metavalues relating to the roles of men and women take precedence even over issues of fairness which relate to creating a level playing field for competition between the managerial players, and suggests that substantial change will require very strong leadership, based on type I values of principle. Type II values may also come into play when demographic shifts change the gender balance within the ranks of public service managers, or place the services of managers so much in demand that gender becomes irrelevant. The dissonance between the perception of disadvantage for women and the relatively low regard for equality provides an instance of the potential bias in organizational life which Morgan (1986) claimed favours men in rising to positions of power and prestige. Future investigation of whether such a situation exists in the British Columbia Public Service seems appropriate.

Possible explanations for junior women's ranking of equality fourteenth of fifteen values on the value scale used in this study, while simultaneously disagreeing more strongly than any other group with the idea that men do not have more opportunity than women for career advancement, are many. They include the possibility that they have a gender-free view of management which blinds them to reality

and bolsters their expectation of personal managerial success; that they have more confidence than their male counterparts in the effectiveness of the executive development programs which have been introduced, and in their ability to gain access to this training; that they are satisfied with their level of achievement; or even that equality is not very important to them because they are overwhelmed by the odds against them and have given up trying. A further explanation involves an artifact of the methodology and instrumentation, in that Likert Scales tap a more accessible affect in a "closed horizon" context, while ranking involves more cognitive detachment through a structured "open horizon".

The first explanation for junior women's low ranking of equality, while at the same time believing strongly that they are at a career disadvantage, parallels earlier researchers' discussions of the potential ill-effects on women's career advancement of their gender-blindness (Brenner, Tomkiewitz & Schein, 1988), and therefore merits further research in a public service setting. The prediction of these researchers was that specific career-advancement mechanisms would be required to help women move up the management ranks to executive levels in view of the unrealistic optimism of women entering management careers.

The agreement of male middle and senior managers with their female colleagues at all levels that women have less opportunity than men for career advancement, and vice-versa, supports the views of Hagen and Kahn (1975) that women are often denied experiences likely to help them advance in their careers. It also appears to indicate that Hussain's (1981) finding, that although women public service managers in New York perceived that they faced discrimination male managers did not perceive this to be so, is not the case in all jurisdictions. In the British Columbia Public Service, discrimination against women in terms of career advancement opportunities is perceived at least by male middle and senior managers. Possibly this reflects their broader view of what attitudes prevail in the organization, compared with their junior male colleagues. This more sympathetic masculine perspective may indicate that in the British Columbia Public Service, men's attitudes towards women are undergoing a more positive change than is perceived by Peitchinis (1989) and Rothwell (1986), but it remains to be seen whether this will assist women managers in the Public Service to move ahead more rapidly in their careers. It appears unlikely that type II values of consensus that women ought to be given equal opportunities will succeed in assisting them to

attain senior positions, and seems that until the stronger consequential values relating to the effect on the organization of fully utilizing only a portion of the workforce are operationalized, or perhaps even until the type I justice issues override rational considerations, women will continue to struggle to advance in their careers. In a recent study, women in the Canadian Public Service identified the reduction of stereotyping and discrimination as key items for improving their rate of career advancement (Government of Canada, 1990), and the findings of this study indicate that similar action may be required within the British Columbia Public Service. The tentative value analysis provided in this study may provide a basis for investigation of how this might be done.

The career advancement advantage to be gained by holding advanced degrees was perceived by all groups and, on this issue, junior men's perceptions were significantly more positive than those of male middle managers. The relatively recent sociological phenomenon of the inflation of academic qualifications may have influenced this perception. No significant differences in perceptions were found in relation to good communication and interpersonal skills, having a mentor, networking, and experience in line ministries, and managers of both genders, at all levels,

generally agreed that they are necessary for career advancement. This consensus indicates that female managers are as aware as their male counterparts of the behaviours, skills, and training that are likely to help them advance in their careers.

Management groups tended to agree that being available whenever needed is essential, but were less sure that working very long hours and putting their jobs before their families is necessary. Observations on these perceptions, and on the specific experiences and views of individual managers of the organizational realities which relate to them, are made in the values assessment section which appears later in this discussion.

Demographic Characteristics

Further insights relating to the values held by public service managers in British Columbia and the relationship of these values to career advancement were gleaned from examination of the demographic characteristics of the sample population.

Educational levels were investigated in this study and although the career advancement advantage to be gained by holding advanced degrees was perceived by all groups,

with junior men's perceptions significantly more positive than those of male middle managers, a significant difference in management level between those who actually hold advanced degrees and those who do not was found. The educational levels diminish as one moves down the organizational hierarchy, and senior women hold a higher percentage of advanced degrees than their male counterparts, and the highest percentage among the six groups.

The finding that in the British Columbia Public Service the most successful women in terms of salary and position were the best educated, duplicates private sector findings in a study of the salaries and status of female corporate managers and executives (Gilson, 1987). However, the perceptions of even the senior corporate women as to the importance of level of education in career advancement were sharply different from those of the female public sector managers in British Columbia. Gilson's corporate women did not perceive the importance of academic achievements, whereas the female public sector managers in this study did. Her view that women tend not to understand the realities of the corporate world is not borne out in terms of the perceptions of women in the current study, as this example and others mentioned in the discussion

illustrate.

In contrast to the higher academic achievements of female senior managers compared with their male counterparts, female middle and junior managers hold a lower percentage of advanced degrees than male managers at the same levels. The discrepancy between these women's perceptions of the positive consequences of holding post-graduate degrees compared with their level of attainment of such degrees, might suggest that female middle and junior managers are less interested in career advancement in general than their male counterparts, or that some have decided not to go further in their careers, at least at this time. However, the questions of domestic responsibility, child-care, and emotional support complicate the decisions made by women in terms of improving their qualifications. As will be discussed in detail in later observations, a smaller proportion of female than male managers at the lower management levels are married, and have children, which might suggest that they have more opportunity to undertake post-graduate education. However, it is likely that a greater proportion of the unmarried women than of their male counterparts are heads of lone-parent families (Fenn, 1990), and thus bear a greater burden for child care.

Additionally, they may lack the emotional support from home which supports academic effort and can contribute to academic success. Even for married women, presumably receiving emotional support, the burden of child care is likely to be greater than for their husbands, thus reducing their opportunities to undertake post-graduate education. The findings of this study, in relation to the lower educational levels of female middle and junior managers compared to their male counterparts, may be a further indication that earlier researchers were correct in suggesting that women, because of their heightened family values, are less able than men to devote the necessary hours to compete effectively and achieve career advancement (Hochschild, 1989; Shelton & Firestone, 1988), and suggest that one of the aspects of competition may be the ability to acquire high-level qualifications.

The idea that female junior and middle managers may be more passive than their male counterparts also merits consideration. The male managers seem to be taking action based on their perceptions of the positive consequences of gaining higher academic qualifications to a greater degree than their female counterparts and are, therefore, preparing themselves better than junior and middle women for future career advancement. Different value-systems may

apply for men than for women in making the decision to proceed with further training, perhaps relating to the consequences for the family of increasing income through promotion, relating to gratifying personal needs as opposed to family needs, or to differing perceptions of what is in the best interests of the family. Among male managers at these levels, type IIB values of consensus that the family is important and ought to be well cared for appear to be overridden by type IIA values with a slightly different focus on how to care for the family. But in any case, female middle and junior managers appear to be lagging behind their male counterparts in academic terms, and may need to improve their qualifications if they are to follow in the footsteps of their senior colleagues.

Education is valued highly among senior managers. Senior men have the highest percentage of post-graduate degrees among the male management groups, and senior women have been even more successful than their male counterparts in preparing themselves well academically. The attainment of senior positions by both groups reinforces the usefulness, in career advancement terms, of holding such degrees. From the perspective of economic theory, the higher participation of holders of post-graduate degrees in senior management illustrates the effectiveness of their

higher investment in education, thus supporting the predictive capability of the work of human capital theorists (Ehrenberg & Smith, 1982), specifically in relation to a public sector organization. Future participation rates in senior management of women who held junior- and middle- management positions at the time of the investigation could be jeopardized by their apparently lower investment in post-graduate education, compared with their male counterparts.

Senior women's quantitatively superior post-graduate qualifications suggest that, within the Public Service, the notion that women require higher qualifications than men for the same job may apply, at least at their level. However, in view of the significantly greater years of service of senior male managers it appears more likely that, for women, academic qualifications may be acceptable alternatives to long experience under some circumstances. If this is the case, it appears possible that as women gain greater experience in management and reach senior levels in greater numbers, they will be able to rely more on their experience and less on academic qualifications to help them achieve their ambitions. Longitudinal studies to assess the adjustment in balance between the two factors might be the focus of further research into management women's

career development.

The marital status of managers was also investigated in the study and the marital profiles of male and female managers were found to be sharply contrasting, with a greater percentage of male than female managers married at all levels, although statistically significant differences occurred only between middle managers, with 95% of male managers at that level being married compared with 67% of female middle managers. It was at the middle-management level that the highest proportion of married managers, both male and female, occurred. The percentages of single women and of divorced/separated women are more than twice those of their male counterparts.

Initially, the connection between these profiles and the careers of female public service managers in British Columbia appeared tenuous. However, comparison with Statistics Canada's (1986) census data for the Province seems to strengthen the connection. The marital status profiles of male and female public service managers, when compared with those of the general public, reveal that although in the general public the percentages of married males and females are approximately equal, in the British Columbia Public Service the percentage of married women managers is substantially lower than the percentage of

married male managers, and than the provincial average (Table 35). Similarly, among the general public the percentages of divorced/separated males and females are approximately equal, whereas among public service managers the percentage of divorced/separated women is substantially higher than that of male managers, and of the provincial average. Among the general population, a smaller proportion of women than men are single. The reverse is true in the public service, and the percentage of single female managers is substantially higher than of their male counterparts.

Table 35

Comparative Marital Status of the General Public and the
Public Service in British Columbia

	General Public			Public Service		
	Combined	Women	Men	Combined	Women	Men
Married	68%	66%	69%	69%	58%	83%
Single	17%	14%	22%	12%	16%	6%
Div/Sep	8%	9%	7%	19%	26%	11%
Widowed	7%	11%	2%	0%	0%	0%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Note. Only members of the general public aged 20 and over were included in this comparison. Percentages for the general public were based on Statistics Canada (1986) census data.

These contrasting percentage rates suggest that women managers in the British Columbia Public service are less likely to marry than their male counterparts, more likely to divorce, and less likely to remarry after a divorce. The greater incidence of divorced and single status for women managers, whatever its cause, may deprive them of the

emotional support which is said to contribute so positively to men's ability to advance in their careers (Gilson, 1987), and overall they appear to be paying a higher price for their careers than male managers. The price appears to be particularly severe for female senior managers, almost half of whom were unmarried or divorced at the time of the investigation. A similar proportion of female junior managers were also unmarried but this can, perhaps, more readily be explained by the age differential between the two groups. However, since about two thirds of female junior managers have more than ten years of service, their marital status suggests that management responsibilities may have taken their toll on marriages, or that the women are taking a rational approach to an emotional issue and deciding that adding to their home responsibilities by marrying or re-marrying is not realistic in view of their ambitions or responsibilities at work. In this case it may well be that Type II values of consequence are subsuming type III values of preference, and that related decisions may help women advance in their careers.

The price also appears to be higher for women managers in terms of establishing families. A lower proportion of women than men, at all levels, are parents, with middle women childless five times as often as their male

counterparts, and senior and junior women childless twice as often. The female middle-management group, which contains the largest proportion of women under 40, some of whom who may be positioning themselves to move into senior management, appear to be making the greatest "sacrifices" in terms of children. Compared with the other two female management groups, a greater proportion are childless, yet a higher percentage are married and of child-bearing age. This suggests that even if this youngest yet most experienced group of women managers might prefer to have both family and career, their type III preference is subsumed by a type IIa realization that adding to their home responsibilities by having children may be disadvantageous in career terms while current organizational values relating to employees' welfare prevail, particularly if they must also shoulder the major part of the responsibility for the children. Alternatively, one might simply conclude that at this time they value their careers more than motherhood, and that value-based rational decision-making has helped them to reach their current management levels.

Demographic figures relating to years of service and years in the current job were examined, and they provide insights which suggest that the careers of female public

service managers are mobile. Within the senior ranks of public service managers, although males were found to have significantly more years of service than women, women were found to have significantly shorter tenure in their current jobs. This last difference appears to confirm that women's career advancement prospects are improving in that female managers are finding opportunities to move into and within the Public Service at senior levels.

Two thirds of female middle managers have over 10 years of service, compared with 73% of male middle managers. However, 42% of women at this level, compared with 21% of men, had taken on a new job in the previous two years, suggesting that women are beginning to obtain a broader variety of career experiences, coupled with their years of service.

Among junior managers, the fact that 63% of junior women, compared with 45% of their male counterparts, have over 10 years of experience suggests that, in the past, career movement for them has been relatively slow. A more promising sign for junior women's future career advancement is that 73% of them, compared with 54% of junior males, had moved into new positions within the previous two years. Thus, although some management careers may be plateaued, as suggested by the service records, women managers now appear

to be taking advantage of opportunities to move into new positions and to broaden their experience and exposure to the organization. These steps may enhance their career advancement.

The study revealed that women at all management levels have been provided with secondment opportunities and opportunities to substitute for more senior managers on a temporary basis. This appears to be a sign of the commitment of government's most senior administrators to type IIb values of consensus in respect of agreement that women's careers ought to be accelerated, to type IIa values of consequence relating to benefits to the organization if this occurs, and even to type I values that it is right to assist women to progress in their careers.

Despite insistence in the literature that experience in line management positions affects career advancement prospects positively, and that women tend to be excluded from such positions (Highman, 1985; Schein, 1973), no significant differences were found between the functional areas in which male and female managers worked within the B.C. Public Service.

Values, Value Conflicts, and Value Change

The extent to which values were shared by managers in this study was well illustrated in their answers to the open-ended questions relating to values, which allowed them to raise any value-related issues they chose. Responses were examined in relation to the six management groups, and the amount of repetition of ideas from one group to the other was remarkable. For example, type I values of principle operated across the whole management cohort. The honesty and integrity involved in doing things because they are right, was claimed by members of all six management groups to have aided their career advancement, and also claimed by members of all groups except junior male managers to have impeded career advancement. Integrity had brought respect to some managers but had affected some careers negatively. Fear of compromising integrity had subsumed type IIa values and prevented some managers from taking action which the literature claims is essential for ascension to top positions including: drawing closer to those who matter in the organization such as powerful executives; gaining access to powerful organizational networks; and adding to their own visibility, information and power (Campbell, 1988; Marchilonis, 1983; Moore, 1988).

This was true for men as well as women, at both middle and senior management levels.

Another remarkable feature of the responses was the apparent shift by male and female managers towards the stereotypical values of the opposite gender. For example, values stereotypical of men and reputed to lead to career success including drive, desire to excel, hard work, and persistence (Gray, 1983) were frequently reported by women in this study. This shift was fairly consistent in relation to many values and was noticeable in connection with the dominant value issue discussed by managers, the conflict between the demands of work and the demands of home and family.

Responses of managers at all six levels indicated that the clash between organizational and family values had impeded their careers, and had led to value conflicts. With the exception of female middle managers and male junior managers, all groups stated that they would change organizational values relating to this issue if they had the opportunity to do so. The same kinds of work and family conflicts uncovered by earlier researchers (Hochschild, 1989; Parasuraman, Greenhaus, Rabinowitch & Mossholder, 1989) and the possibly dysfunctional effects on the organization and on careers, particularly those of

women, were reported by the subjects of this study. However, in this study, males seemed more concerned about organizational demands than might have been expected, based on the literature (Cheeseman, 1985; Hochschild, 1989; Greenhaus & Beutel, 1985). Refusal to relocate for promotion, unwillingness to disrupt the family by moving, refusal to put work ahead of family all the time, and the need to spend time with the family were a few of the items mentioned by male managers as career impediments.

In terms of the difference of opinion between researchers (Cheeseman, 1985; Greenhaus & Beutel, 1985) relating to comparative work and family conflicts for men and women, this study does not support the finding that men do not admit to family obligations. In this research, men freely discussed the issue, and their comments suggested an acceptance that their traditional role as provider has expanded to include other types of responsibilities and greater involvement with the family, and an acceptance that expansion of this role affects their careers. An embryonic theory relating to men's place in the context of the family might begin to evolve based on the findings of the present research. Such a theory could parallel that relating to the place of women (Gilligan, 1982), and might include developmental stages in which men

progress from non-involvement in non-traditional family responsibilities, through awakening awareness in which contemplation of the implications of becoming more involved takes place, to equal involvement. Additionally, the data produced in this study could stimulate research into the evolution of women's place in the context of the workforce, to complement research in connection with women's place in the context of the family.

Despite the study's implication of change in the roles and values of men in relation to the family, female managers mentioned the conflict between work and family more than twice as often as male managers, and the study does support the conclusions (Crouter, 1984; McBroom, 1986) that women experience more difficulty than men relating to family effects on work, and that the price paid by women for their careers is greater than for men. Nevertheless, in the present study, concerns expressed from all sides relating to this issue indicate that although the traditional organizational ethos has promoted the myth of separate worlds of workplace and home (Voydanoff, 1980), acceptance of this notion is weakening in the British Columbia Public Service. The managers in this study at all levels seem preoccupied by the interdependence of work and family and opposition to the myth of two separate worlds

has become a focus for the attention of managers at all levels and of both genders. If men's values are changing and fathers are actually taking on more physical and emotional responsibility for families rather than merely discussing the possibility, as seems to be suggested by this study, positive effects on the career advancement of women may result.

Public service managers in British Columbia appear to be struggling to create a balanced life which takes into account the needs of the family and of the workplace, and these findings tend to indicate that "new generation values" are beginning to evolve among these managers, similar to those discussed by Maccoby (1989). Should attrition occur in men or women because of failure to achieve the desired balanced life, the benefits of skills and experience developed at government expense may pass to the private sector, which could constitute a great loss to the organization. The possibility of attrition by women managers who had experienced conflict with the values of the male organizational ethos (Berg & Hunter, 1990) and attrition of women who yearned for a different lifestyle (Donohue, 1981) were echoed in the study, but in this study men's values were also challenged by the expectations of the male organizational ethos, although not equally.

In the perception section of the present research, managers perceived that career advancement depends on being available whenever needed, but they were less sure about the necessity to work very long hours and put work before family (see Table 27, page 180). Anecdotal value responses in this section of the study suggest that men's values in this respect have drawn closer to those traditionally held by women. Momentum appears to be building in the direction of rejection of some of the silent expectations of the workplace in relation to sacrificing the family. When viewed from the perspective of other researchers who suggested that the failure to recognize changing managerial value systems is a major cause of intra-organizational value conflict, and that the interface between the treatment of employees as people and as resources is a flashpoint for personnel problems (Breen 1983; Briscoe, 1980), the responses suggest that this particular value conflict may cause the organization to lose at the very least the commitment of promising managers in whom it has an investment. If the organization reviews its expectations in the light of demographic forecasts, competitive factors, and changes in societal and managerial views, this will likely affect most positively the careers of those who have been most burdened by the conflict

between work and family responsibilities and whose career advancement to this point has been most impeded by their family values, viz. the women.

Next to work and family responsibilities, the issue of valuing people more seemed to be most important to the subjects in terms of their anecdotal responses. Members of all six management groups recommended that the organization should value employees, including themselves, more than is currently the case. Managers' desire for individual recognition supports the change in worker values discussed by other researchers (Baird & Messoulam, 1984; Stanton, 1983) and may reflect the undermining effects of current workplace stress (Pierre, 1986; Morrison, 1987).

The recommendation by male as well as female managers that the organization should value people more, is further indication of the shift towards values traditionally held by the opposite gender, and provides some support for the view that women are reshaping the workplace by introducing more humanistic values (Lenz & Myerhoff, 1985). However, it should be remembered that employees' welfare was quite a low priority for the organization, and that there were no significant differences between managers and the organization in this respect. Cullen (1990) was less sanguine in terms of the success of women in introducing

more human values to the workplace, and this study tends to confirm her view of the workplace as an environment in which the characteristics of how to advance, how to do things, and how the organization should be structured are based on a male model. However, the study's findings suggest that these expectations affect managers of both genders negatively because of the change in contemporary values. The conflicting value ranking and value recommendation in relation to dealing with personnel in a more caring fashion observed in this study, suggest that managers' anecdotal responses may have been affected by the degree to which the consequences of the value held by the organization affect them at a personal level. Today's generation of managers is the first to have had to cope with dual careers and the sharing of family responsibilities. Although employees' welfare is currently comparatively low on the list of organizational priorities, these new challenges may cause managers to make changes in the light of their own experience, at least within their own divisions, and make broader changes as they move up the organizational hierarchy into more powerful positions. At the divisional level some values are relatively easy to deal with, and one might expect affected managers to lead the organization in respect of these by taking unilateral

action. One manager in this study reported that he was already making value-based changes in his portion of the organization. The cumulative effects of such changes should remove some of the current obstacles to women's career advancement which also affect men, although to a lesser degree.

Among the managers in this study, claims that men in mid-life may be discovering the importance of such feminine traits as intimacy, close relationships and caring for others (Gilligan, 1982) are supported. However, Gilligan's claim that women reject as undesirable feminine attributes traits such as autonomous thinking and responsible action, which are valued by organizations and traditionally reserved for men, are not supported. Hard work, commitment, professionalism, productivity, and knowledge were valued by members of all the women's management groups in this study. Members of the three female management groups recommended that the organization's prime value, leadership, should be strengthened. Women reported their desire to be respected for their managerial abilities. They were as interested as men in producing top-quality work but, like men, wanted more time for family and friends. These findings appear to weaken some of the stereotypes which have contributed to women's failure to

advance in their careers in organizations where male-dominated values apply. In the long term, the realization that the work-related values of female managers are very similar to those of their male counterparts and that their views of the organization and their organizational ideals are also similar, should lead to improved career advancement for women, particularly if the organization recognizes that the value systems of men and women are changing and wishes to avoid the potentially dysfunctional consequences both for the organization and for society of failure to respond to this change. Although few differences are revealed between the values of the organization and those of individuals in the empirical section of this research, considerable value conflict is revealed in the anecdotal section. The latter may be indicative of further impending change in work-related value systems of managers and suggests that longitudinal studies of the relationship between organizational and individual values might be useful in academic and administrative terms.

Shared values in this study, and comments by managers on their work-related values, indicate that women managers are as likely as men to make value judgements based on an ethic of "fairness, equality, and justice". This is

supported by the recommendation by members of all six management groups that promotion should be based on fairness, without bias. Special treatment for women was not proposed by the subjects, although discrimination against them was mentioned in anecdotal comments made by both genders. Elimination of bias, in Woody's (1990) view enables human resource personnel to attract the best managers, through assurance that a professional meritocracy exists where entry, mobility, and leadership opportunities are open and where performance dominates over politics or gender preference. It seems from the research that managers in the British Columbia Public Service would, on the whole, endorse this view. However, investigation of the values of the organization and of managers in this study suggests that certain impediments to the free flow of human resources exist and that these tend to impede the career advancement of women.

Summary of the Study

The general purpose of the study was to contribute to a clearer understanding of the relationship between the values of the organization, the work-related personal values of managers in the organization, and the career

advancement of female administrators and managers within the British Columbia Public Service. The study was divided into four components which established: 1) the extent to which the values of public service managers are shared with those of their organization and among themselves, the relationship between career advancement and value congruency, and the change in managers' values between the time of entry into careers in management and the time of the investigation; 2) managers' perceptions as to the degree to which factors including behaviours, skills, and training affect career advancement; 3) the demographic characteristics of the sample population; 4) managers' perceptions as to the effects on their careers of values held and of value conflicts experienced by them, and their opinions on desirable organizational value change.

Methodology

Organizational value priorities were determined through the categorization by Deputy Ministers of fifteen organizational values selected after review of the literature and consultation with expert witnesses. Managers then categorized the values twice to reflect their current and career-entry values. The ANOVA statistic was

used to compare the current values of managers with those of the organization in terms of individual values. The strength of the relationship between the composite values of the organization and those of the managers was assessed using Pearson correlation coefficients. A ranking technique was also used to illustrate the comparative value priorities of the organization and those of its managers. Current values were then compared with career-entry values to determine change over time, using ANOVA, and this statistic was also used to compare managers' perceptions of the usefulness of certain factors including behaviours, skills, and training in career advancement. The Chi square statistic was used to compare the demographic characteristics of the subjects. Finally, anecdotal responses on the influence of values and value conflicts on career advancement, and opinions on desirable value change were treated non-statistically.

Results: Value Comparisons

Strong leadership, integrity and service quality were determined to be the top-priority values for the organization. The least-priority values were organizational stability, expertise and social well-being.

Significant differences between organizational values and managers' work-related personal values were found with respect to strong leadership, organizational stability, expertise, and social well-being. The top priority values of senior women were identical with those of the organization and the values of male senior managers were the next closest to those of the organization. Correlations between the composite values of the organization and those of managers were highest for senior managers and lowest for junior. Significant differences between career entry and current values were found between less experienced and more experienced managers for the values expertise and equality.

Results: Perceptions of Behaviours, Skills and Training

Senior managers rated the value of central agency experience in career advancement significantly higher than did middle managers. Managers tended to disagree that women have more opportunity than men for career advancement, but on this point junior men differed significantly from senior women, junior women, and senior men. Conversely, managers also tended to disagree with the suggestion that men do not have more opportunity than women

for career advancement, but male junior managers disagreed significantly with all other management groups that this was the case. Male junior managers were significantly stronger than male middle managers in their belief in the usefulness of advanced degrees in career advancement.

Results: Demographics

A significant difference in management level achieved was found between those who hold advanced degrees and those who do not, and the highest proportion of advanced degree holders were senior women managers. A significantly larger percentage of female middle managers were unmarried than of their male counterparts. A larger proportion of female than male managers had no children. There was a significant difference in management level achieved when controlled for age. For both genders, the highest proportion of managers over 40 held senior positions. Male senior managers had significantly more years of service, and significantly more years of experience in their current jobs, than female senior managers.

Results: Anecdotal Responses

Some managers reported that integrity and honesty were factors which had helped their career advancement. Others reported the opposite. Communications and interpersonal skills were viewed as having affected careers positively, as were hard work, commitment, professionalism, knowledge, and expertise. Gaining respect was cited as helpful by women at all levels, and leadership by middle managers of both genders. The positive effects of these factors on careers included increased employer recognition, expanded responsibilities, and improved success in winning job competitions and breaking down barriers to advancement.

The negative effects of honesty and integrity included the reduction of employee ability to compromise which was reported to affect tact, diplomacy, team-playing capability, and employer trust. Senior and middle women reported that inequality had held them back in their careers, and they were joined by male senior and middle managers in reporting that failure or inability to network and make contact with influential officials had impeded their career progress.

The competition between work and home responsibilities was both a barrier to career development, especially for

women, and a general source of conflict. This was one of the value changes most frequently recommended by managers of both genders. All groups except senior women mentioned the conflict between valuing people and other priorities. The results of value conflicts included the failure to pursue opportunities, unwillingness to relocate for promotion, and resigning. However, value conflicts affected some careers positively in terms of the recognition of employee integrity and consequent respect for the individual.

One of the most frequently suggested organizational value changes was promoting on the basis of fairness, and members of all six management groups felt that people should be valued more. Conversely, members of all groups except the male junior-management group recommended that productivity be valued more. Women at all levels of management recommended that leadership be strengthened. Rationales for changing values in the organization centred on positive effects on the individual employee, the organization, and the general public.

Conclusions

This was a preliminary and tentative examination of shared values within a public service organization and, as such adds to the body of knowledge on the effects of values within organizations, with special reference to the public sector and to gender differences. In addition to adding to the knowledge base available to other researchers, it provides information which may assist non-academics who have an interest in the issue from a different perspective. At the senior government level, it is clearly appropriate to examine the value bases underlying the functioning of the Public Service from time to time. The research findings, although complex and susceptible to various interpretations, have the potential to assist Deputy Ministers in assessing the prevailing organizational values and their appropriateness for current functions and objectives including the staffing of their ministries and maintenance of the desired standards of competence, productivity, and equality within the ministries.

Officials directly responsible for hiring, and government training organizations, can also benefit from additional information about the values of their clients at various levels and of the organization which they serve.

The findings may also assist managers to understand more about the effects of values on their work lives.

Implications of the research may assist managers to make the value-based decisions on which their career advancement, economic well-being, future prospects and quality of life may depend.

Conclusions drawn from this study revolve around the central findings that there are few individual value differences between the values of The British Columbia Public Service and its managers regardless of level or gender, and none between the composite values of the various management groups and the organization, although correlations between the values of the two bodies diminish as one descends the organizational hierarchy.

These findings confirm that values do have an influence on the achievement of senior management positions, and that women at all management levels have the value potential to reach top positions, equivalent to that of their male counterparts. Since the research indicated that, on the whole, managers' values do not change over their years of experience with the organization, one concludes that hiring practices are effective in identifying employees who share the organization's values, but that this may be an unconscious process. However this

may be, women's level of attainment of top management positions is much lower than that of their male colleagues, therefore, one is led to conclude that other value-based factors are at least as influential on career advancement as the organizational and work-related values examined in the first part of in this study. It is here suggested that these include level of education, family responsibilities, and perceived organizational bias against women.

When subsequent sections of the study relating to perceptions, demographics, and anecdotal assessment of the effects of values on careers are overlaid on the value comparisons, one is left with a strong impression that some career impediments are related to values which affect women's ability to deal with the competing demands of their personal and professional lives. For example, the comparative perceptions of managers lead one to conclude that women are as aware as their male counterparts of steps which they might take in order to advance their careers and that one of the differences between those who achieve top positions and those who do not is that the former act on their beliefs. Thus, although in general all management groups perceived post-graduate education to be an aid to career advancement, senior women have at some point in their lives acted on this perception and have attained

superior qualifications than have their female colleagues, even though a higher percentage of them have children of comparable age to those of their colleagues. One concludes that competing values have tended to prevent ambitious female middle and junior managers from acting on their belief in this respect, and that although some of these may be beyond the scope of this study, some may relate to family values or domestic responsibilities, particularly in the case of female middle managers, more of whom are married. One is left with the impression, based on demographic findings and anecdotal comments, that the value conflicts relating to the competition between work and family responsibilities are more severe for women, and have held them back far more than is the case for their male colleagues. However, it is apparent from the research that family values are important influences on the career advancement of both genders.

A further possibility is that women simply have fewer opportunities for career advancement than their male colleagues. This is acknowledged by all management groups except junior men. Female government managers would have been affected negatively by such restrictions if they exist. Traditionally, training and developmental opportunities were more frequently offered to male

managers, based on the expectation that investing in female employees' development paid lower dividends for the organization because women were likely to leave their jobs, sometimes permanently, to raise their children. For the same reasons, women were not considered as potential candidates for promotion. One could conclude that this view represents organizational metavalues which still pertain to good administration in the 1990s, but that viewed from the perspective of demographic changes, competition for first class staff, women's attachment to the workforce, and social expectations, a new approach to achieving organizational objectives is required. In terms of contemporary values, the historical approach appears to this researcher to be morally wrong from the perspective of justice, to be irrational in terms of the current economic responsibilities of women, and to contradict society's expectation that organizations should contribute to the public good in a variety of ways.

The data arising from this study are puzzlingly conflicting in that discrimination in favour of women is perceived by male junior managers and against them by all other management groups, of both genders. An explanation of this is offered through the prima facie observation that male junior managers are experiencing greater competition

in the job market because of the increased involvement of ambitious women in management, but further investigation of this phenomenon and of other areas where the responses of male junior managers were strikingly different from those of other management groups is suggested.

It is also perplexing that the value of equality received a relatively low ranking by the organization and by members of all management groups, regardless of gender. However, to some extent values which led to earlier discrimination tend to persist and the managers' and organization's placement of equality in the ranks of lower-priority values leads one to conclude that this is one of the values which continues to hold back women's career advancement even though demographic information indicates that changes in traditional patterns are occurring, and other research indicates that men are beginning to share family responsibilities.

Managers' perceptual responses indicate agreement that there are several factors which have the potential to influence career development positively, but one is led to conclude that women may not be able to avail themselves of these opportunities unless there is a value-based change on the part of the organization in terms of supporting women as they strive to advance in their careers. Equalizing

access to developmental experiences and training, and modifying silent organizational expectations relating to hours worked by managers and the expected level of availability at weekends and after conventional office hours, appears to be a rational starting point. The need for organizations to consider the family if they are to achieve organizational goals has been noted in the literature, and it is claimed that the costs of programs that allow women to be maximally productive during the child-bearing and raising years, including high-quality child-care and job sharing, which other authors claim is feasible at every level of the organization except the pinnacle, are outweighed by the advantages of greater productivity and reduced turnover (Rodgers, 1989; Schwartz, 1989). Whether or not one agrees with these contentions from other research, the beginnings of such programs are evident in the British Columbia Public Service, but they are not yet accessible to all employees. The value statements of the women managers in the Public Service indicate a high level of commitment, and the values women espouse indicate that they share the exacting professional standards of their male counterparts. If they were provided with such supports, one concludes that they could

more readily move into the elusive top administrative positions in government.

Recommendations

Research Question 13 was formulated so that recommendations could be made for improving policies and procedures concerning the career advancement of women managers in the British Columbia Public Service. In view of the findings of the study, the following recommendations are proposed:

- 1) It is recommended that the values of the organization and those of its managers be reviewed with a view to developing a rational approach to the career advancement of women managers based on these values. Component parts might include the development of information materials which:
 - a) inform managers at all levels of the nature of the organizational values and of how and why they relate to the career advancement of both genders and to the provision of opportunities to women managers in the British Columbia Public Service;

- b) confirm the strength of the expectations of Deputy Ministers in terms of ensuring that women managers are provided with opportunities which will assist them to progress in their careers.
- 2) It is recommended that consideration be given by the organization to:
- a) the appropriateness of current organizational values, particularly those affecting equality of opportunity for both genders, in view of the change in social expectations relating to the role of the organization as a contributor to social well-being, in addition to its traditional role as contributor to the economic prosperity of society; and
 - b) the development of stronger and more flexible programs than currently exist, to assist those managers of both genders, at all levels, who wish to improve the balance between their work and family responsibilities.

Implications for Further Research

The findings of this study might provide:

- 1) an information base for use by researchers investigating socialization processes and value transmittal mechanisms in organizations;
- 2) assistance to future researchers investigating conscious approaches to screening internal and external candidates for management positions on the basis of values held;
- 3) a basis for the investigation of approaches to eradicating bias within organizations;
- 4) the basis for longitudinal studies of the change in balance between the influence of qualifications and experience of women as they advance in their careers;
- 5) a theoretical base for research into the evolution of women's place in the workforce;

6) a basis for further study of male junior and female middle managers and their attitudes, perceptions, and values relative to those of the other management groups;

7) a basis for philosophical analysis and empirical study of female value conflict emerging from contending values of home, family, and career.

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Appendix A.
B.C. Public Service Management Exclusions
By Salary Level, By Gender - 1986 to 1991

Salary/ Mgt Level	1986				1987			
	Female #	%	Male #	%	Female #	%	Male #	%
1	105	34.8	197	65.2	125	38.3	201	61.7
2	73	33.8	143	66.2	78	34.2	150	65.8
3	86	15.0	489	85.0	119	23.0	399	77.0
4	64	17.9	293	82.1	67	14.5	395	85.5
5	43	12.3	307	87.7	40	11.6	306	88.4
6	31	10.5	263	89.5	34	10.8	280	89.2
7	14	9.0	141	91.0	12	7.5	147	92.5
8	6	5.4	105	94.6	8	7.5	98	92.5
9	0	0.0	38	100.0	0	0.0	45	100.0
10	1	6.3	15	93.8	1	4.0	24	96.0
11	0	0.0	11	100.0	0	0.0	11	100.0
12	2	7.4	25	92.6	2	10.5	17	89.5
Totals	425	17.3	2027	82.7	486	19.0	2073	81.0

Continued

B.C. Public Service Management Exclusions
By Salary Level, By Gender - 1986 to 1991

Salary/ Mgt Level	1988				1989			
	Female		Male		Female		Male	
#	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
1	141	41.5	199	58.5	160	58.4	114	41.6
2	100	40.7	146	59.3	108	41.4	155	58.9
3	142	25.2	421	74.8	158	29.8	372	70.2
4	88	17.4	471	82.6	117	19.0	500	81.0
5	48	12.2	347	87.8	84	18.1	379	81.9
6	35	11.8	262	88.2	46	16.1	239	83.9
7	19	10.9	156	89.1	21	12.7	145	87.3
8	9	8.0	103	92.0	10	8.9	102	91.1
9	3	6.0	47	94.0	6	12.8	41	87.2
10	0	0.0	24	100.0	1	3.3	29	96.1
11	0	0.0	11	100.0	1	8.3	11	91.7
12	1	4.5	21	95.5	1	4.0	24	96.0
Totals	586	21.4	2154	78.6	716	25.2	2124	74.8

Continued

B.C. Public Service Management Exclusions
By Salary Level, By Gender - 1986 to 1991

Salary/ Mgt Level	1990				1991			
	Female		Male		Female		Male	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
1	167	64.7	91	35.3	173	66.5	87	33.5
2	147	47.3	164	52.7	155	45.6	185	54.4
3	165	30.8	371	69.2	193	34.1	373	65.9
4	149	22.3	528	77.7	159	22.9	535	77.1
5	100	18.8	446	81.7	118	20.5	458	79.5
6	59	18.4	262	81.6	65	18.6	284	81.4
7	29	15.0	164	85.0	26	13.4	168	86.6
8	13	11.7	98	88.3	13	11.4	101	88.6
9	7	13.5	45	86.5	5	11.6	38	88.4
10	1	3.4	28	96.6	4	11.1	32	88.9
11	1	7.7	12	92.3	2	14.3	12	85.7
12	1	3.7	26	96.3	2	6.9	27	93.1
Totals	860	27.5	2267	72.5	933	28.6	2331	71.4

Notes. 1. Data for 1991 are based on January 5, 1991 information from Government Personnel Services Division. Between publication of this information and collection of

data for this study, new managerial appointments were made, which brought about the discrepancy between Government Personnel Services Division data and population sizes cited in the study.

2. Data for 1989 and 1990 are based on mid-April Office of the Controller General payroll information for each year.

3. Data for 1987 and 1988 are based on mid-February Office of the Controller General payroll information for each year.

4. Data for 1986 are based on June 28, 1986 Office of the Controller General payroll information (this was the earliest date information was available after conversion to the Management Job Evaluation Plan).

5. Management Exclusions are defined as those employees rated under the Management Job Evaluation Plan.

Appendix B.

Public Service Organizational Value scale: Introduction of
the Study to the Subjects

Many management theorists believe that organizations have values which affect activities within the organization. One area of activity which may be influenced by the values held by the organization, employers and employees is individual career advancement. Little research has been conducted in this area.

This survey is part of a research study to investigate the effects of values on career advancement in management within the British Columbia Public Service. The study is being undertaken in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at the University of Victoria by a member of the B.C. Public Service. You are invited to take part in the study by completing the attached questionnaire.

Your name was selected at random from the list of excluded managers employed in the Public Service. There is no need to identify yourself in this survey. Data are to be used for research purposes only and surveys will be seen only by the researcher. An abstract of the findings will be made available to ministries for circulation to managers and the complete dissertation will be available for review in the library at the University of Victoria.

The time and effort which you put into completing the survey are very much appreciated. Thank you for participating.

Appendix C.Public Service Organizational Value Scale: DemographicData-Gathering Questionnaire

May we please have the following information to assist in analysis of the data?

YOUR SEX: ___ FEMALE ___ MALE

YOUR AGE: ___ UNDER 20 ___ 40-49
 ___ 20-29 ___ 50-59
 ___ 30-39 ___ OVER 60

YOUR EDUCATION: ___ LESS THAN HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATE
 ___ HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATE
 ___ COLLEGE DIPLOMA
 ___ UNIVERSITY GRADUATE
 ___ ADVANCED DEGREE

YOUR MARITAL STATUS: ___ SINGLE
 ___ MARRIED
 ___ SEPARATED/DIVORCED
 ___ WIDOWED

NUMBER OF CHILDREN: ___ AGES ___ ___ ___ ___

YEARS IN THE PUBLIC SERVICE: ___ 0-2 ___ 3-5
 ___ 6-10 ___ 11-20
 ___ OVER 20

YEARS IN CURRENT JOB: ___ 0-2 ___ 3-5
 ___ 6-10 ___ 11-20
 ___ OVER 20

POSITION AND LEVEL: ___ A.D.M. (MANAGEMENT LEVEL ___)
 ___ EX. DIR. (MANAGEMENT LEVEL ___)
 ___ DIRECTOR (MANAGEMENT LEVEL ___)
 ___ MANAGER (MANAGEMENT LEVEL ___)

FUNCTIONAL AREA: ___ FINANCE
 ___ PERSONNEL
 ___ COMMUNICATIONS
 ___ LINE MANAGEMENT
 ___ STAFF SUPPORT
 ___ OTHER _____

Appendix D.

Public Service Organizational Value Scale: Categorization
of Organizational/Personal Work-Related Values

a) Categorization of organizational values by Deputy
Ministers

Attached is a set of 15 cards, each stating an organizational value of some relevance to the British Columbia Public Service. You are asked to sort the cards into 5 categories as follows:

CATEGORY 1 = TOP PRIORITY, 2 CARDS

CATEGORY 2 = HIGH PRIORITY, 3 CARDS

CATEGORY 3 = MEDIUM PRIORITY, 5 CARDS

CATEGORY 4 = LOWER PRIORITY, 3 CARDS

CATEGORY 5 = LEAST PRIORITY, 2 CARDS

Please review the cards carefully and then sort them into five piles in accordance with the importance which you place on them in terms of enabling government to achieve its organizational goals. Please check that the correct number of cards appears in each category.

When you have finished, please mark each card with the number of the category which you have selected for this particular value, and return to the researcher in the envelope provided.

Thank you for taking part in this research.

Organizational Values

CARD		CATEGORY
#1	Clear communication (use of the highest standards of interpersonal communication skills, oral and written)	—
#2	Consultation (pursuit of the consultative approach with the general public and with government and private-sector agencies in order to understand public expectations)	—
#3	Creativity (use of imagination and innovation in program development and delivery)	—
#4	Employees' welfare (nurturing and caring for employees)	—
#5	Equality (the provision of equal career development opportunities for men and women)	—
#6	Expertise (special skill, knowledge, training, and experience in the area of responsibility)	—
#7	Fiscal responsibility (maximum program delivery for the least cost)	—
#8	High productivity (high level standards and performance)	—
#9	Integrity (consistent, sincere, honest, reliable and professional behaviour)	—
#10	Organizational efficiency (maximum utilization and minimum waste of resources)	—
#11	Organizational flexibility (responsiveness to changing economic, social and political realities)	—
#12	Organizational stability (staff development and strategic planning for long term program delivery)	—
#13	Service quality (a high standard of service delivery)	—

- | | | |
|-----|---|---|
| #14 | Social well-being (a responsibility to understand community needs and respond sensitively in serving the community) | — |
| #15 | Strong leadership (inspiring confidence in others, motivating staff and providing vision and direction) | — |

Note. The fifteen value cards presented to Deputy Ministers and managers were identical at all times.

b) Public Service Organizational Value Scale:
Categorization of current values by managers

Attached is a set of 15 green cards, each stating an organizational value of some relevance to the Public Service. You are asked to sort the cards into 5 categories as follows:

CATEGORY 1 = TOP PRIORITY, 2 CARDS
CATEGORY 2 = HIGH PRIORITY, 3 CARDS
CATEGORY 3 = MEDIUM PRIORITY, 5 CARDS
CATEGORY 4 = LOWER PRIORITY, 3 CARDS
CATEGORY 5 = LEAST PRIORITY, 2 CARDS

Please review the cards carefully and then sort them into five piles in accordance with the importance which you personally place on them. Please check that the correct number of cards appears in each category.

When you have finished, please mark each card with the number of the category which you have selected for this particular value, and replace in the return envelope.

Thank you for completing this task.

c) Public Service Organizational Value Scale:

Categorization of career entry values by managers

Attached is a set of 15 orange cards, stating the same organizational value as before. You are asked to sort the cards into the following 5 categories:

CATEGORY 1 = TOP PRIORITY, 2 CARDS

CATEGORY 2 = HIGH PRIORITY, 3 CARDS

CATEGORY 3 = MEDIUM PRIORITY, 5 CARDS

CATEGORY 4 = LOWER PRIORITY, 3 CARDS

CATEGORY 5 = LEAST PRIORITY, 2 CARDS

Please review the cards carefully and then sort them into five piles in accordance with the importance which you placed on them when you first became a manager. Please check that the correct number of cards appears in each category.

When you have finished, please mark each card with the number of the category which you have selected for this particular value, and replace in the return envelope.

Thank you for completing this task.

Appendix G.

Public Service Organizational Value Scale, Modified for Use
by Pilot Subjects.

Introduction of the study to the subjects

Many management theorists believe that organizations have values which affect activities within the organization. One area of activity which may be influenced by the values held by the organization and its employees is individual career advancement. Little research has been conducted in this area.

This survey is part of a research study to investigate the effects of values on career advancement in management within the British Columbia Public Service. The study is being undertaken in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at the University of Victoria by a member of the B.C. Public Service. The survey is being pilot tested using former Public Service managers as subjects. You are invited to take part in the pilot study by completing the attached questionnaire.

Your name was selected at random from the list of excluded managers formerly employed in the Public Service, and you will be requested to complete the same survey on two separate occasions, today and in approximately three weeks time, as a test of its reliability. There is no need to identify yourself in this survey, but you are asked to provide the same pseudonym on both occasions for purposes of test-retest comparison.

Data are to be used for research purposes only and surveys will be seen only by the researcher. At the end of the survey, a blank sheet of paper is attached on which you may enter suggestions which might help the researcher to clarify and improve it.

A summary of the findings will be mailed to all who agreed to participate in the pilot study, when the research is completed, and the complete dissertation will be available for review in the library at the University of Victoria.

The time and effort which you put into completing the survey are very much appreciated. Thank you for participating.

Demographic data-gathering questionnaire

May we please have the following information to assist in analysis of the data?

PSEUDONYM : _____

YOUR SEX: _____ FEMALE _____ MALE

YOUR AGE: _____ UNDER 20 _____ 40-49
 _____ 20-29 _____ 50-59
 _____ 30-39 _____ OVER 60

YOUR EDUCATION: _____ LESS THAN HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATE
 _____ HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATE
 _____ COLLEGE DIPLOMA
 _____ UNIVERSITY GRADUATE
 _____ ADVANCED DEGREE

YOUR MARITAL STATUS: _____ SINGLE
 _____ MARRIED
 _____ SEPARATED/DIVORCED
 _____ WIDOWED

NUMBER OF CHILDREN: _____ AGES _____

YEARS IN THE PUBLIC SERVICE: _____ 0-2 _____ 3-5
 _____ 6-10 _____ 11-20
 _____ OVER 20

YEARS IN FINAL JOB: _____ 0-2 _____ 3-5
 _____ 6-10 _____ 11-20
 _____ OVER 20

POSITION AND LEVEL _____ A.D.M. (MANAGEMENT LEVEL _____)
 IN FINAL JOB: _____ EX. DIR. (MANAGEMENT LEVEL _____)
 _____ DIRECTOR (MANAGEMENT LEVEL _____)
 _____ MANAGER (MANAGEMENT LEVEL _____)

FUNCTIONAL AREA _____ FINANCE
 IN FINAL JOB: _____ PERSONNEL
 _____ COMMUNICATIONS
 _____ LINE MANAGEMENT
 _____ STAFF SUPPORT
 _____ OTHER _____

Categorization of personal work-related values

a) Categorization of "current" values by retired managers

Attached is a set of 15 green cards, each stating an organizational value of some relevance to the Public Service. You are asked to sort the cards into 5 categories as follows:

- CATEGORY 1 = TOP PRIORITY
- CATEGORY 2 = HIGH PRIORITY
- CATEGORY 3 = MEDIUM PRIORITY
- CATEGORY 4 = LOWER PRIORITY
- CATEGORY 5 = LEAST PRIORITY

Please review the cards carefully and then sort them into five piles in accordance with the importance which you personally place on them. At least one item should appear in each category.

When you have finished, please mark each card with the number of the category which you have selected for this particular value, and replace in the return envelope.

Thank you for completing this task.

Organizational Values

CARD		CATEGORY
#1	Clear communication (use of the highest standards of interpersonal communication skills, oral and written)	—
#2	Consultation (pursuit of the consultative approach with the general public and with government and private-sector agencies in order to understand public expectations)	—
#3	Creativity (use of imagination and innovation in program development and delivery)	—
#4	Employees' welfare (nurturing and caring for employees)	—
#5	Equality (the provision of equal career development opportunities for men and women)	—
#6	Expertise (special skill, knowledge, training, and experience in the area of responsibility)	—
#7	Fiscal responsibility (maximum program delivery for the least cost)	—
#8	High productivity (high level standards and performance)	—
#9	Integrity (consistent, sincere, honest, reliable and professional behaviour)	—
#10	Organizational efficiency (maximum utilization and minimum waste of resources)	—
#11	Organizational flexibility (responsiveness to changing economic, social and political realities)	—
#12	Organizational stability (staff development and strategic planning for long term program delivery)	—

- | | | |
|-----|---|---|
| #13 | Service quality (a high standard of service delivery) | — |
| #14 | Social well-being (a responsibility to understand community needs and respond sensitively in serving the community) | — |
| #15 | Strong leadership (inspiring confidence in others, motivating staff and providing vision and direction) | — |

Note. The fifteen value cards are identical for both current value prioritization and for career-entry value prioritization.

b) Categorization of career entry values by retired managers

Attached is a set of 15 orange cards, stating the same organizational value as before. You are asked to sort the cards into the following 5 categories:

- CATEGORY 1 = TOP PRIORITY
- CATEGORY 2 = HIGH PRIORITY
- CATEGORY 3 = MEDIUM PRIORITY
- CATEGORY 4 = LOWER PRIORITY
- CATEGORY 5 = LEAST PRIORITY

Please review the cards carefully and then sort them into five piles in accordance with the importance which you placed on them when you first became a manager. At least one item should appear in each category.

When you have finished, please mark each card with the number of the category which you have selected for this particular value, and replace in the return envelope.

Thank you for completing this task.

Values assessment questionnaire

Please respond briefly to the questions below which seek your personal opinion on value change, on value conflict and on the effects which the values held by you had on your career development.

1. What value held by you contributed most to your career success?

2. What value held by you held you back most in your career?

3. What value conflicts did you experience during your career?

4. If you could have changed the values of your organization, what changes would you have made?

Additional Comments

Please enter below any suggestions which might help the researcher to clarify and improve the survey. Thank you.

Appendix H

Letter from Deputy Minister to Potential Participants

Ministry of Women's
Programs and Government
Services and Minister

Minist Responsible for Families
Programs and Government
Services and Minister
Responsible for Families



Province of
British Columbia

MEMORANDUM

TO:
Randomly Selected Government
Managers

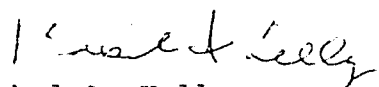
DATE:
May 7, 1991

RE: Research Study: "Administration and Values: The
Career Advancement of Women Managers in the
British Columbia Public Service"

I would be most appreciative of your participation in assisting Christine Bullen, former Assistant Deputy Minister, Women's Programs, in the attached research project.

Basically, the process should take only about twenty minutes and the project is expected to be of great value to Women's Programs.

Thank you for your cooperation.


Isabel A. Kelly
Deputy Minister

Attachment

Appendix IResponses of Managers to Questions Relating to the Effects on Their Careers of Values Held and of Value Conflicts Experienced by Them, and Their Recommendations on Value Change Within Their OrganizationResearch question 10a.

What value has contributed most to your career success, and how has it contributed?

Senior Women Managers

- * Integrity. I can be trusted. Confidentiality. Honesty. I don't compromise principles.
- * Integrity. Honesty.
- * Integrity. Analytical skills. People trust and respect me.
- * Integrity. I communicate my values and am true to them.
- * My humour, productivity and communication skills helped.
- * Dedication to hard work and high standards. Quality work. I meet deadlines.
- * I have a strong work ethic. I get the job done. I was given challenges. I am serious about my responsibilities as a Public Servant.
- * I produce good work which was recognized by superiors.

- * High productivity and quality work helped. I showed men I am equally capable.
- * My Commitment to doing the best job possible. Delivering quality work.
- * Professionalism and good work led to career growth.
- * Respected for my knowledge.
- * Fairness helped me.
- * I am willing to try new things.
- * Creative problem-solving. Finding new approaches/solutions.
- * Flexibility. Willingness to broaden experience through lateral transfers. More responsibility.
- * My ability to seek innovative and creative solutions. I was given challenges.

Middle Women Managers

- * Integrity. Commitment. Fairness. Reliability.
- * Integrity. High quality work. Leadership. Initiative. I was rewarded for these values.
- * Integrity and interpersonal skills. I established personal credibility.
- * Integrity.
- * Fiscal responsibility. Integrity.

- * Belief that integrity and performance should be recognized
- * Communication - it is imperative to understanding problems and providing a range of solutions. Employers need problem-solvers.
- * Fiscal responsibility. Communication. Leadership.
- * Good interpersonal and communication skills. Sincerity.
- * Open, honest communication. I won the respect of my employers.
- * Hard work helped me gain knowledge and expertise and to complete projects to a high standard.
- * Strong work ethic. Willingness to do whatever was required to get the job done was critical to my to success.
- * Professionalism. My desire to develop expertise led to advancement.
- * Expertise. Knowledge, training and experience helped me to win job competitions.
- * Expertise. I got my degree. Before that I could not break down barriers to advancement.
- * Expertise. Career women have to be leaders in their field of expertise. Men's mistakes are forgiven; women's are more noticeable, but so are our successes, which

makes us good role-models. You have to be twice as good to be considered equal.

- * Reliability. Team play is more important than other attributes.
- * Positive attitude to change. Risk-taking.
- * Responsive to change. Innovation. Enthusiasm. Self-motivated.

Junior Women Managers

- * Integrity. My reputation as trustworthy, fair, and consistent led to opportunities for secondments and lateral transfers which allowed me to gain experience.
- * Integrity, consistency, honesty, reliability and professionalism all helped me advance.
- * Integrity. My reputation for fairness, consistency, and honesty has stood me in good stead with colleagues at all levels.
- * Integrity, high productivity, reliability, and credibility.
- * Honesty and integrity.
- * My honesty and reputation for making the right decision regardless of the effect on my career.

- * Honesty. Supervisors know I give honest answers. My commitment to do the best job in the time available. My superiors count on me to get the job done.
- * Clear communication, interpersonal skills, and integrity.
- * Hard work. Innovation. I put in the hours to develop new approaches to problems. Getting the favourable notice of those in power leads them to encourage career advancement.
- * My pride in a job well done. Remembering who are my clients and what is my ministry role.
- * Allegiance to employer and taxpayer. Responsibility to contribute, even beyond the expectations of my job-description.
- * Belief in service quality led to personal commitment.
- * My knowledge of the job.
- * Skills, common-sense and ability to get along with people.
- * Respect and successful experience led to promotion.
- * My belief that people come first. Treating them well and sincerely trying to assist them. Trust and credibility among colleagues.
- * Customer-service orientation, creativity, consultation.
- * My persistence and good performance. Also, I applied for jobs which others said I couldn't get.

Senior Men Managers

- * Integrity, trustworthiness and honesty. Being straightforward within and without the organization (e.g. [like] Ted Hughes).
- * Personal integrity and interpersonal skills. I try to integrate my values with those of my superior and of the organization.
- * Honesty and integrity. Develop the perception that promises will be delivered.
- * Honesty.
- * My direct, open communication has created a reputation for being honest, and a "straight-shooter" of integrity.
- * Communication skills. These are essential for being effective in my arena of policy development planning.
- * Clear, concise communication and thinking.
- * Open communication based on my desire to contribute to positive functioning of the organization.
- * Willingness to work well with others and cooperate to achieve common goals.
- * My commitment to public service, willingness to work, to find solutions and keep superiors out of trouble.
- * Commitment. I sought jobs where I could make a contribution consistent with my values.
- * Commitment to professional competence.

- * Professional qualifications and experience qualified me for increasingly senior positions.
- * Self-confidence. I have as many answers as anyone else.
- * My willingness to provide advice independent of opinions held by more senior officials.

Middle Men Managers

- * Integrity. I was seen as able to deal with difficult situations competently.
- * Hard work, integrity. Willingness to do jobs others cannot or will not do.
- * Integrity and hard work. Communication skills.
- * Honesty and integrity.
- * Integrity
- * Integrity
- * My professionalism, integrity and management/professional skills.
- * Leadership, responsibility, knowledge, integrity.
- * Hard work. Quality work.
- * Putting in a steady day's work. Management can rely on the expected outcome.
- * My professional work ethic to do the job right and as quickly as possible.

- * Commitment has enabled me to follow through with tasks and provided a basis for subsequent advancement.
- * Good judgement.
- * High standards. Fairness. No game playing. Good interpersonal and analytical skills. I treat all staff equally and respect colleagues.
- * Being dependable and trustworthy to get the job done has opened many doors to new jobs and assignments.
- * Flexibility. I managed change with a sense of optimism.
- * Consensus building and team-building.
- * Public consultation, appreciation of public interest. My conflict resolution skills.
- * Creativity in finding original and practical solutions, which gave credibility to my management skills.

Junior Men Managers

- * Integrity. I can be trusted with difficult situations, which is highly valued in our environment.
- * Sincerity, honesty, and directness led to promotion.
- * Interpersonal skills and integrity. Reputation is a good/bad thing. It can help one's career.
- * Clear communication. My good oral and written skills, which are found less commonly than other useful skills, tended to set me apart from my otherwise equally competent peers.

- * Willingness to serve and perform any task allowed me to learn all areas of the organization. Later, when needed, I was ready to manage the organization.
- * Taking responsibility, anticipating future needs and acting on them earned me trust and greater responsibilities.
- * Mobility. Willingness to relocate to advance, even to a northern community, led to major advancement for me.
- * Value of sacrificing family which allowed me to meet deadlines, despite a heavy workload.

Research question 10b.

What value held by you has held you back most in your career and how has it held you back?

Senior Women Managers

- * Personal relationships and quality of life. I would not relocate and disrupt my household for a promotion.
- * Balance between home and work, physical and mental stimulation, starting new projects and bringing established goals to fruition. Without balance I lose perspective, yet by maintaining balance I cannot commit extraordinary time to my career.

- * Balance, although Government does seem to accept that one must do other things besides work.
- * Integrity. Have not pursued opportunities which would have required me to relax my principles.
- * My requirement that my boss have high integrity and "walk the talk". As a result, I have passed over several opportunities that I might have pursued.
- * My honesty. I appear abrasive and undiplomatic.
- * I underestimated my skills and abilities and let opportunities go by. Honesty.
- * Reticence to talk of my capabilities. Self-doubt. Always questioning whether I am really as good as others think.
- * Lack of time for networking which keeps one out of the "in- crowd" from which promotions are made.
- * Equality. I passed an interview screening test. The two male applicants failed. They cancelled the interview and the posting.
- * My perfectionism. Wanting to hold others to my standards.
- * Belief in the worth of the individual. Time for this made it difficult for me to balance my work and deliver hard outputs as required by more senior management.
- * Concern for employee welfare. Inability to be tough.

- * I value a job that I like and find interesting. I could advance more quickly if I took any job.
- * I prefer backroom support roles to high profile roles.
- * None.

Middle Women Managers

- * Unwillingness to work long hours.
- * Integrity. Senior managers want to be fed what they want to hear. Their fear of how I might play my cards has affected career decisions.
- * Integrity. I am unable or unwilling to play the power game involving hidden agendas, intrigues, jockeying for power, and subterfuge effectively, despite its effect on advancement.
- * Frankness.
- * I think it is not always right to agree. Expressing my opinion too forcefully has undermined my position. Sometimes it is better to "go along" when you think the course of action wrong.
- * Independent thinking and strong leadership. I was seen as non-cooperative.
- * Lack of respect for organizational culture limited my access to old boys/girls network that could have helped me.

- * Minding my own business isolates me from information.
- * Inequality on the part of others. Being a woman is a detriment to one's career. I have often trained men brought in from outside at a higher level than me even though I have all the skills to perform the job.
- * None, but I feel there is prejudice against women as leaders.
- * Value of employers for my late-earned degree rather than for my earlier secretarial experience. Sexual discrimination.
- * Dedication. Supervisors felt my promotion would leave a gap.
- * Focus on technical expertise has limited my administrative/management development.
- * Organizational stability. Concentrate on reorganizing rather than advancing.
- * Valuing performance over personal relations. I need to recognize others may have different motivations and values.

Junior Women Managers

- * Commitment to family prevents me putting in the long hours at work needed to get the job done.

- * High productivity. As my children are young and demanding of my energy, I cannot take on more responsibility and be equally productive, so I have not sought further advancement.
- * Having children is detrimental to my career as I cannot work 12 to 14 hour days. Maternity leave stops me from applying for new positions. I am considered less serious about my career.
- * Dedication to family and friends. It is a silent expectation of the workplace that managers work on weekends.
- * Ambivalence re what I want which results from the difficulty in balancing family and work.
- * Integrity. I do not play games or cater to senior staff to promote my career.
- * Personal integrity which prevents me from becoming too close to my Director by becoming her "personal servant", adopting her beliefs, or compromising my principles to get ahead.
- * Integrity. I find it difficult to support certain actions and this has hurt my career.
- * My honesty was not appreciated by my supervisor, thus the superior/subordinate relationship was compromised.
- * Honesty. Modesty. "I do not blow my own horn enough".

- * Lack of self-confidence. I gave my ideas to men who then got the credit.
- * Sensitive response to serving the community can reduce fiscal responsibility and productivity.
- * Organizational instability leads to lack of staff development. I have often been turned down for courses.
- * Lack of self-confidence. Belief that I needed more experience and technical expertise to advance. I now realize that many good managers are generalists.
- * I value people and want to work with them. It seems the higher you get in an organization, the less contact you have with people and the more with paper".
- * My education is slowing the process. I have no degree yet.
- * None

Senior Men Managers

- * I put family ahead of job and refused to relocate for promotion.
- * Family responsibilities.
- * Family. I am not prepared to put work first all the time.
- * Honesty and integrity. I am unwilling to compromise them and was therefore denied a major opportunity early in my career.
- * Speaking out. I was branded as not playing the game.

- * Stating the obvious but uncomfortable in the interests of the well-being of organization and staff.
- * Independence. I do not network with colleagues and superiors for fear of compromising my position.
- * Creativity. I value it less than practical problem solving.
- * Lack of aggressiveness and killer instinct have held me back. I enjoy being a nice guy too much.
- * Social well-being. Resulted in disagreement over who are my principal clients, the public or the politicians.
- * Expecting as much from others as I am willing to give myself.
- * None. I do not advance self-serving employees.

Middle Men Managers

- * Family held me back. I could have moved more but this is too disruptive and expensive.
- * Family. I was unwilling to move.
- * Putting home and family first. Lack of association with colleagues and superiors kept me out of the spotlight.
- * Integrity.
- * Refusal to compromise my values has been a source of conflict with the organization.

- * Telling the truth about shortcomings, waste of resources, and the screwed-up way the civil service is run by its managers.
- * Calling a spade a spade, therefore I was not seen as a team-player.
- * Communication skills - poor articulation. I could not present the positive image, decision-making skills and expertise.
- * Poor written and oral communication.
- * Organizational flexibility. I wouldn't accept change without asking why. This often made me appear uncooperative.
- * Being meticulous.
- * Too much emphasis on management rather than science/technology has led to plateauing after a fast start.
- * Lack of degree.
- * Need to improve my leadership skills.
- * None experienced

Junior Men Managers

- * Time with family. I can balance career and family now, but career advancement would mean taking on more responsibility and working longer hours.

- * I do not believe that work should dominate family. I will accept slower advancement if that is the cost of enjoying my non-working time.
- * Service quality was a little barrier. It conflicts with the organization's need for quantity of output.
- * Consultation. Slowed down the work process at the time and held me back. But consultation is the nature of my current job.
- * Dollar value which caused personal problems, so I have 2 jobs.
- * None

Research question 11.

What value conflicts have you experienced during your career, and how did they affect your career?

Senior Women Managers

- * Family/career conflicts, especially the need to keep my personal life away from the office.
- * Family versus work trade-offs. Has affected family, not career.
- * Family and parenting goals versus career goals.
Commitment to healthy balance and forgiving attitude to self have helped.

- * Work versus family. I didn't pursue opportunities.
- * Work versus family.
- * Need to retain integrity but also be diplomatic. I did it.
- * I had to tell a senior manager that there were no data to support his theory. This might have held me back, but he left and I was later promoted.
- * Doing my best for the organization versus doing what the boss dictates. I moved laterally and started my career over. I lost 3 years.
- * Following the boss when he was acting inappropriately. I set the record right, but he worked around me after that.
- * The requirement to implement policy directions that I disagreed with, but it did not affect my career.
- * My belief in consensus building versus organizationally imposed policy shifts. My response is to assist the organization and staff to adjust and this has helped my career.
- * Expediency versus appropriate time process when changing directions.
- * Attempted dominance by older man.
- * Retaining my commitment after being screwed around due to organizational changes. Self confidence versus no opportunities.

- * I dislike public profile but advancement leads to high profile roles.
- * Many and they have held me back.
- * None

Middle Women Managers

- * Long work hours versus outside interests.
- * Career hours versus family.
- * Work versus family
- * My integrity versus unprofessional organizational objectives.
- * A constant struggle. I work in human services and am seen as moralistic and unrealistic.
- * Personal integrity versus organizational lack of integrity.
- * I have quit jobs rather than "play the game".
- * Service quality versus fiscal responsibility at a time of scarce resources. I was expected to do things contrary to the rules of good financial management. I was seen as inflexible and without a service ethic. In fact, keeping people out of trouble is the best service I can provide.
- * Concern for employee welfare is interpreted as weakness.
- * Organization's lack of value of women as employees held me back.

- * Fiscal restraint seemed more important than service quality.
- * Service quality and creativity versus organizational efficiency and stability made it hard to use my strong leadership capabilities.
- * Networking. I was seen as manipulative and avoiding the chain of command.
- * My need to network versus being excluded by the men. This has held me back, but I do have greater subordinate and senior respect.
- * Quality versus quantity (time pressures).
- * Conflict between functions caused by branches and divisions having different values.
- * None experienced.

Junior Women Managers

- * Career and family balance. These delayed my advancement because I cannot travel or work long hours.
- * Career and family conflicts.
- * Sacrificing career to family and husband's needs. My immobility.
- * Children versus long hours.
- * Belief in doing right has slowed down my career.

- * Being expected to be less than honest, distract with double-speak, and manipulate staff into thinking they are participating rather than taking orders.
- * Personal beliefs versus those of the ministry or my boss.
- * My value for treating people well and fairly sometimes conflicted with the organization's pursuit of productivity gains.
- * Employee welfare versus organizational efficiency which led to disagreement and dismissal.
- * I disagree with hierarchical management systems, therefore I have not applied for promotion. I am too outspoken about the abuse that I see in the system.
- * Quality service and community sensitivity in conflict with the political will. I transferred and likely lost an opportunity.
- * Bias against the government versus public interest.
- * Male/female inequality and fewer opportunities as a result.
- * Equality.
- * Speed versus accuracy. Time is not saved as work has to be repeated over and over.
- * Public consultation. My organization is not well known for it.

- * Public interest versus political objectives. As I am turned off by the political process, my career is plateaued. Any advancement would draw me too close for comfort.

Senior Men Managers

- * Job versus family. Family lost.
- * Balance of personal, family, and professional demands.
- * Integrity in the face of unreasonable expectations.
- * Integrity versus expediency.
- * Having to provide unpopular advice, contrary to accepted views. This has distanced me from senior officials.
- * My logic and reason versus others' decisions not to hear/accept facts.
- * Occasionally I am seen as unwilling to compromise and help.
- * Loyalty to staff versus making necessary changes which negatively affect them.
- * Pressure to hire a woman when a male applicant was slightly better.
- * Wanting to succeed versus wanting to be liked has held me back.
- * Value for process and consensus versus goal orientation. I have been labelled contentious as a result.

- * Value for client versus the politicians.
- * Political concessions of government
- * Shortage of time for quality work. it has not affected my career.
- * Being aggressive/assertive when I would rather establish a cooperative working relationship.

Middle Men Managers

- * Family demands versus job demands have reduced my performance and led to loss of responsibility.
- * Work versus family
- * Integrity in the face of pressure to lower my professional standards. I refused. There were no negative long-term consequences, in fact I earned respect.
- * My personal and professional judgement were at odds with policy changes. This held me back, but my integrity was perceived.
- * I always spoke the truth in the interests of doing the best job.
- * My honesty means I am discounted as a team player. In plain language, if you are not a suckhole, you don't go anywhere.

- * My concern for individuals versus the need for a dispassionate attitude.
- * Seeing incompetent people get ahead discourages me in my career.
- * Consultation affected productivity and organizational flexibility.
- * My frugality versus Government waste of money on things no-one wants.
- * My go-slow response to the privatization effort, which seemed to negate years of honest effort, affected my salary for a time.
- * Consultation, creativity, and social well-being versus productivity and fiscal responsibility. Results orientation conflicts with public involvement expectations.
- * Creativity versus organizational efficiency.
- * Spontaneity versus strategic management. Organizational change versus financial/technical outcomes. I adapted to a new environment.

Junior Men Managers

- * I was not prepared to make long-range commitment of time and effort outside the job. I transferred.

- * My respect for people was not echoed in the organization. I left and took a lower job.
- * Quality versus quantity.
- * A compromising situation re discipline of employee. there were no repercussions.
- * Expertise versus education. I could not meet the interview screening criteria, despite my years in management.
- * Sexual harassment by women conflicted with my belief in equality. This helped my career as I took steps to move up and out of this office. Had I reported them, my career would have suffered.

Research question 12

If you could change the values of your organization, what changes would you make, and why would you make them?

Senior Women Managers

- * Introduce a true valuing of people, their differences and potential. This would elevate the morale and performance of an already outstanding Public Service and create a consistent focus for economic and policy decisions.

- * Change the belief that people are expandable. We can no longer afford the philosophy that employees are easily replaced.
- * Replace valuing process with valuing results.
- * Ask people are the assumptions being made about their career plans correct. Eliminate biases.
- * Harmonize work and family so all parents can find a better balance. Create a work environment more responsive and encouraging to women.
- * Set a healthy work/family life balance as a value. Stop rewarding sacrifices which create workaholics.
- * Greater respect for family life. No seminars scheduled for Saturdays.
- * Humanize the workplace. Accept that people have a family life. Long days and working weekends do not help the family.
- * Strengthen leadership and communication.
- * Develop better strategies for working in a highly-charged political climate. Enhance ability for careful research and planning.
- * I would ensure that the expressed values were practised.
- * The organization should place a greater value on openness.

- * Make organization more innovative, receptive and willing to pursue new ideas with sincerity and commitment, not just taking up and abandoning fads.
- * Strengthen teamwork and decision-making based on open discussion.
- * Put the public interest ahead of the organization and of career paths.

Middle Women Managers

- * Treat people more fairly and focus on positive personnel developments. More balance needed between personnel and financial issues.
- * Balance task and people more. Performance-planning and appraisal are needed for improved motivation.
- * Value people more and productivity less. Placing a high value on human resources will improve productivity anyway.
- * Emphasize accountability and reward results achievers, not games players who fall short on tangibles.
- * Stabilize organization for planning, delivery and no chaos.
- * Base recognition and promotion on competence, not on other factors, to promote an efficient and effective organization.

- * Value competency and value for money. Evaluate managers more honestly in terms of effectiveness and efficiency.
- * Eliminate sexual discrimination against women.
- * Improve leadership. This would revitalize the organization.
- * Promote those with strong leadership capabilities, not just your best technicians.
- * Place more value on service quality. FTE restraints are damaging it.
- * Consult, plan, and communicate for better use of resources.
- * Examine why we do things, to ensure positive change.
- * Share organizational values and reduce competition between different parts of the organization.
- * Align organizational and employee values to reduce conflict.

Junior Women Managers

- * Transform Government into a caring organization.
- * Improve ethical approach to management and respect for staff.
- * Recognize employees for their achievements. Empower staff to prevent poor work, burnout, and loss.

- * Increase people-orientation. Train junior staff and encourage participation. Provide a more humane environment.
- * Enfranchise staff to retain investment in people and increase organizational success. Increase meaningful public involvement so they can better understand what we do and increase their trust in the Public Service. Would also reduce the destructive potential of the media.
- * Emphasize finding the best person for the job, not just a minority or a buddy.
- * Balance utilization of available talent and resources rather than over-utilizing a few staff.
- * Value creativity, productivity, and integrity more.
- * Change the focus to balance work and family commitments. This would reduce employee guilt feelings and lead to greater contentment and productivity.
- * Support individuals as they try to balance work, family, and personal interests, to increase loyalty and productivity.
- * Recognize family responsibilities and the importance to the organization of employing well-rounded individuals. A forty hour work week should be OK at any level.

- * Lessen the demand for long hours of work as an indication of commitment to the organization and an indicator of advancement.
- * Improve leadership, vision, integrity, and concern for employees' welfare.
- * Stronger leadership with vision and direction would help employees relate to why we do things and where we are headed.
- * Government should value inspired, rather than reactive, leadership.
- * Operationalize the stated values.
- * More openness and communication.

Senior Men Managers

- * Show more concern for employees. Satisfied employees give better results.
- * More concern for employees. This leads to high productivity, flexibility, and creativity.
- * Recognize that staff are our most important resource.
- * Emphasize human resource planning and raise the calibre of staff.
- * Improve customer orientation to give staff a sense of pride and accomplishment.

- * Results and quality should count more than long hours and appearing to be busy.
- * We could be more time- and cost-conscious.
- * Improve organizational efficiency.
- * Improve equality of opportunities for all, including visible minorities who suffer as much discrimination as do women.
- * Protect the environment, not the government.
- * Work together rather than protect personal or territorial interests.

Middle Men Managers

- * More responsible treatment and remuneration of staff at all levels. Introduce decent incentive programs to move and advance without becoming bankrupt.
- * Pay more attention to employee morale and development.
- * Greater tolerance of employees' individual differences in style, creativity, and pace, would reduce the loss of good employees with expertise and experience.
- * Make work a pleasant experience.
- * Decrease bureaucracy and increase individual accountability in terms of fiscal responsibility.
- * Improve products and services.

- * Improve the advancement selection process and make it fair. The old boys' network perpetuates inequalities.
- * Be more considerate of family values.
- * Trust managers to make good decisions and stop worrying about political issues.
- * Improve communication without overcommunicating.
- * Increase professionalism, integrity, and participation.
I am changing the values in my area now.
- * More open government, community involvement and organizational stability.
- * Improve communication skills and organizational stability.
- * Increase creativity, initiative and risk-taking to improve performance and service to the public.
- * Become even more proactive to change.

Junior Men Managers

- * Value people as our most important resource.
- * Place higher value on employee welfare. Political decisions increase environmental stress for employees, e.g. restraint.
- * Promote on merit and give enhanced opportunities for promotion and relocation to those who have served in remote areas.

- * Select staff for their professional ability.
- * People should take responsibility for getting things done, rather than leaving anything which they do not perceive as their fair share up to other people.
- * Stop sanitizing information so that it makes senior executives look good. Value truth and honesty more.