

DISSERTATION APPROVED BY

January 8, 2015
Date

Julia Cronin Gilmore Ph.D
Julia Cronin-Gilmore, Ph.D., Chair

Matthew Seevers
Matthew Seevers, Ph.D.

Richard C. McDowell
Richard McDowell, Ph.D.

Isabelle Cherney
Isabelle Cherney, Ph.D., Program Chair

Gail M. Jensen
Gail M. Jensen, Ph.D., Dean

THE IMPACT OF SOCIAL CAPITAL ON WOMEN'S CAREER REPOSITIONING IN
BUSINESS

By
DIANA MAGUIRE

A DISSERTATION

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Abstract

Women seeking to make career changes around their larger life contexts have faced numerous challenges for decades. The influence of social capital on women's careers has been a concern of researchers, particularly within the contexts of women's underrepresentation in businesses' higher organizational ranks and societal expectations for women. This research builds on previous career studies and improves the understanding of women's career repositioning with consideration of their social capital measures and behaviors, career satisfaction measures, and family life stage. The research question is: To what degree does social capital impact women's ability to reposition their careers in business? This quantitative study was developed on three constructs: 1) social capital, 2) objective and subjective measures of career success, and 3) family life stage. Control variables implemented in the study included personal brand value, education, employer size, field of work, organizational level, and age. A quantitative study was conducted via an online survey of over two hundred women working within nearly fifty companies in a southwestern New York and northwestern Pennsylvania region. Quantitative analyses included frequency distributions, analysis of variance and covariance, crosstabs, and linear regression. The findings suggest that social capital diversity and connections to those in higher organizational ranks impacted women's ability to make desired career changes. No relationship was found between women's family life stage and their social capital measures, social capital behaviors, or their ability to make desired career changes. Future implications suggest investigating the activities women use to develop and maintain their career-related social capital networks with specific consideration of women with children under age six.

Keywords: career change; career repositioning; family life stage; social capital; women in business; women's careers

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Background of the Problem

This study critically analyzes the impact of social capital on women's career repositioning in business. Women tend to reposition their careers, or adjust their work situations, to fit their larger life contexts, holding both family and career as central to their lives (O'Neil, Hopkins, & Bilimoria, 2008). Life changes and societal norms have forced women to face critical choices in managing career and family to a much greater extent than men (Goldin, 2004). Longitudinal studies indicate that men and women change jobs nearly eleven times over the courses of their careers (United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2010a). However, the thirty to forty age range has been critical to women's career repositioning, as during that stage, women with children enjoyed less career success, while men with children enjoyed more career ascension (Mason & Ekman, 2007).

Researchers have cited in numerous studies that women still face obstacles to career advancement, longevity, and satisfaction in business (Catalyst, 2014; Eagly & Carli, 2007; The White House Project, 2009; WFD Consulting, 2004). Moe and Shandy's (2009) research found that women in business facing life changes requiring career repositioning, defined as adjustments to career direction or structure, appeared to face organizational obstacles that impacted their career trajectories. Researchers of social capital, defined as value gained through the interaction of individuals and groups, have found a strong association between the diversity of social networks and organizational and career success (Burt, 1992; Higgins, 2001; Ibarra, 1992; Lin, 2000), as well as a deficit in women's rewards from social capital (Burt, 1998; Ibarra, 1993). Coupling these

constructs suggests that significant questions remain in regard to the influence of social capital on women's abilities to reposition their careers. While the popular press has reported success stories of exceptional female business leaders, researchers have not investigated a broad spectrum of middle-management positions or investigated how the impacts of social capital, intertwined with perceptions of success and family life stage, affect women's successful career repositioning in business fields.

Researchers of women's careers have identified a wide range and variety of nonlinear patterns (Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987; O'Neil et al., 2008) that have not matched well to the typical hierarchical organizational structure of business in the United States. Competitive, market-oriented organizations focused the individual on objective criteria of success, including hierarchical promotions and increased salaries (Heslin, 2005). Women tend to embed their careers into larger life contexts, allowing both family and career to serve primary roles in their lives (O'Neil et al., 2008). The past several generations of female college graduates defined their goals as having both careers and families (Goldin, 2004). As women attempt to adjust their careers to fit the needs of their changing life contexts, potential mismatch exists between businesses' organizational designs and females' successful career repositioning throughout their careers.

Additionally, mismatch has been identified between the hierarchical organization's merit system and women's perception of success (O'Neil et al., 2008). Researchers have found that while corporations reward linear, continuous career paths for employees, women often are not able to embrace the typical linear approach because of family and other personal concerns. Women's realities have shaped success around both professional and personal measures (O'Neil et al., 2008). Dissatisfied with the notion

that women must choose between career and family, working mothers have sought new options, such as flexible work and career options (Jackson & Scharman, 2002). Moe and Shandy (2009) argued that women's lives, when women combine children and work, develop as more of a career spiral than a career ladder.

Scholars have also shown that social capital has been a critical factor in career success (O'Neil et al., 2008). Research on the effects of social capital on changing careers implied that the greater the diversity of an individual's social capital network, the greater the likelihood that the person would change careers (Higgins, 2001). In addition to increased advice and information on career advancement opportunities, social capital networks also broadened the range of career possibilities that an individual considered. Additionally, the positive psychological support offered by the social network increased the individual's confidence, a necessary trait in the job search process (Higgins, 2001). However, a fundamental challenge for women pursuing career repositioning was that women have suffered a disadvantage in building social capital (Burt, 1998; Lin, 2000).

While scholars agree that organizational and social obstacles hinder women's career repositioning, existing literature has addressed women's careers with a broad spectrum, leaving considerable ambiguity in regard to how the obstacles and opportunities affect the career repositioning of women in specific fields. Researchers have justified the implications of social capital on career outcomes. Studies have also established that their perceptions of success and their larger life influences impact women's career decisions. However, researchers have not established the relationship between a woman's family life stage and her development and maintenance of social capital. In turn, researchers have not investigated the potential influence of social capital

on career repositioning for women as their larger life context evolves. Additionally, since much remains unknown about the influence of these factors specifically on women's career repositioning in business, investigation is required into how these factors impact women striving to manage their career paths in business.

Statement of the Problem

Researchers have indicated that women's careers tend to follow more boundaryless trajectories than their male counterparts (Moe & Shandy, 2009; Goldin, 2004). In other words, women's careers are nonlinear in progression, changing course as the larger contexts of their lives change. However, the majority of studies have investigated careers in an overarching manner without regard to variances for women in specific disciplines. Additionally, studies of women in business have focused on the few women who have broken out of the norm and made it to the top of Fortune 500 companies. Limitations to the existing research have left unclear the degree to which organizational obstacles for women in business have had a negative impact on women's abilities to craft their own careers paths as their life contexts changed. The existing studies have also fallen short of identifying potential opportunities for women in midlevel business careers to guide and direct their careers as their needs change.

While women have increased as a percentage of the American workforce by over fifteen percent in the past four decades (United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2010b), women's share of the male-dominated business field has increased only minimally and at lower organizational levels (Catalyst, 2014). In 2012, female college graduates outnumbered male graduates by fourteen percent (United States Department of Education, 2012). Over the past several decades, women's percentage of the labor force

has more than tripled, from eleven percent to thirty-six percent (United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2010b). In the business sector, the percentage of women in managerial and professional positions has grown over the same time period. However, since 1990, the percentage of women in professional business positions has remained stagnant at roughly forty-five to fifty-one percent (Catalyst, 2014; The White House Report, 2009). Further, for women in business, the progression into higher organizational levels has been minimal, with less than fifteen percent of all executive positions held by women (Catalyst, 2014).

As women tend to shift their careers according to larger life contexts (O'Neil et al., 2008), motherhood has been a dominant factor in the life changes (Mason & Ekman, 2007). From 1994 to 2002, the percentage of stay-at-home mothers increased thirteen percent and from 1998 to 2002 the percentage of mothers not in the workforce grew from forty-one to forty-six percent (United States Census Bureau, 2003). Federal employment data also indicated that mothers of children aged six to seventeen were more likely to be in the labor force than mothers of children under the age of six (United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2010). Additionally, the median number of years that women worked for an employer was less than that for men (United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2010). These statistics suggested that career breaks have coincided with motherhood, but questions remain unanswered in terms of opportunities for these women to reposition their careers over time as their larger life contexts evolve.

Additionally, the labor reports have not measured whether women chose to opt out of employment because their larger life contexts did not align with organizational cultures. Women have indicated a shift in perceptions of ideal working conditions,

particularly as women's life contexts included motherhood. Only twenty-one percent of working mothers suggested that full-time work was ideal, down from thirty-two percent in 1997 (Taylor, Funk, & Clark, 2007). Studies have indicated that women have not been working under their ideal circumstances. Taylor et al. (2007) indicated that nearly two-thirds of working mothers preferred part-time work, and only about one-third preferred full-time hours, yet nearly three-quarters of working mothers work full-time, and only about one-fourth work part-time. In addition to working hours, women have indicated a preference for other flexible working conditions as well (Moe & Shandy, 2009).

Understanding that women have directed their career trajectories according to larger life contexts, questions remain regarding how women have best positioned themselves to manage careers in business that fit their needs. The percentage of women as degree-earners and as members of the labor force has increased, but their careers in business have not advanced to the same level as men's. Studies have suggested that motherhood remains a strong determinant for women's career breaks and shifts into second-tier positions. Women have also tended to focus the composition of their social networks toward more family and community-based contacts than men have (Lin, 2000). All the while researchers suggest that women seeking reentry to the workforce capitalize on their network contacts (Gutner, 2008). Left unanswered for women is how they can best reposition their careers, as their life contexts evolve, to optimize their social capital, overcome organizational obstacles, and reposition their careers to meet their needs.

Purpose of the Study

This study will investigate the impact of social capital on women's successful planned career repositioning in business. The study will provide critical analysis into the

organizational and cultural opportunities and obstacles that influence women's abilities to reposition their careers according to perceived measures of success. Previous research has suggested that social capital contributes significantly to career success (Burt, 1992). Studies have also found that women have been less successful in creating successful social capital networks (Burt, 1998). Closely tied to social capital, personal brand value (the packing and presentation of a person's value) has also been found to impact career success (Galunic & Anderson, 2000; Keller, 2013) and thus will be examined as a control variable in the research. This study will examine the impact of social capital on women's career repositioning in business. Specifically, the study will investigate the degree to which social capital impacts women's planned career changes in various levels of business and for-profit industries with consideration of new opportunities of the digital world.

Further, this study will investigate how the social capital issues within women's perceptions of success and family life stage impact their planned career repositioning. Measures of career success can include objective measures, such as salary and rank, and subjective measures, such as work deemed rewarding and challenging (Schilling, 2012). This study will investigate the degree to which women's social capital in business environments impacts their use of objective or subjective measures and ultimately women's perceptions of the success of their career repositioning.

Lastly, this study will investigate the degree to which social capital influences women's ability to reposition their careers to accommodate their changes in larger life contexts. Family and career are more tightly embedded for women than for men (O'Neil et al., 2008), resulting in women making career changes based on larger life contexts

(Goldin, 2004; Forret, Sullivan, & Maniero, 2010; Hackett, 1997; Moe & Shandy). This study will investigate whether the opportunities available in businesses are adequately matched to the desired career changes for women. The study will also investigate whether women are appropriately aligning their network contacts to improve their ability to reposition their careers. The study will provide relevant implications for women managing career change and will also identify important issues for organizations seeking to retain female talent.

Research Question

Women's career trajectories have been impacted by social capital, perceptions of success, and larger life contexts. Therefore, in order to measure the social capital factors impacting women's career repositioning within business and from business into other fields, the research question and hypothesis are structured around these constructs. The following research question, constructs, and hypothesis guide this quantitative study: To what degree does social capital impact women's ability to reposition their careers in business?

Construct 1: Social Capital

Social capital has played a key role in in career success, as it provides the advantages of information, skill sets, and power (Cross, Thomas, & Light, 2009). However, social capital is not universally accessible to all, particularly women (Burt, 1998).

Social Capital Outcomes and Satisfaction with Career Repositioning

H1a: The diversity of ties in a woman's work-related social capital network is positively related to her satisfaction with career repositioning.

H1b: The number of ties in a woman's work-related social capital network is positively related to her satisfaction with career repositioning.

H1c: The number of ties to persons in higher organizational ranks (e.g., sponsors, mentors) in a woman's work-related social capital network is positively related to her satisfaction with career repositioning.

Social Capital Behavior and Satisfaction with Career Repositioning

H2: Utilizing online connectivity for developing social capital is positively related to a women's satisfaction with career repositioning.

Construct 2: Objective and Subjective Measures of Career Success

Objective measures have included elements such as salary and rank, while subjective measures have included elements such as work that is deemed challenging or intrinsically rewarding (Schilling, 2012). Both objective and subjective measures of career success have tended to be influenced by individuals' comparisons with those in their social network (Heslin, 2005). In addition to understanding the difference between objective and subjective measures of career success, also unanswered has been the degree to which the criteria women use to measure perceived success impacted their planned career repositioning.

Satisfaction with career outcomes related to repositioning will be measured on four constructs: 1) women's perceived satisfaction with their salary; 2) women's perceived satisfaction with the availability of new work opportunities; 3) women's satisfaction with their work structure, including their work schedule, flexibility, and location; and 4) women's satisfaction with support from their supervisors and coworkers.

Construct 3: Family Life Stage

Family life stage has been a highly influential force on women's careers with strong social implications from the organization and society at large (O'Neil et al., 2008). As larger life contexts change, women face critical career choices in their career repositioning (Mason & Ekman, 2007; Moe & Shandy, 2009).

Family Life Stage and Social Capital Outcomes

H3a: Women who commit more hours to family tend to have less diversity of ties in their work-related network.

H3b: Women who devote more hours to family tend to have a smaller number of total ties in their work-related network.

H3c: Women who commit more hours to family tend to have a smaller number of ties in their work-related network to persons in higher organizational ranks (e.g., sponsors, mentors).

Family Life Stage, Social Capital Behavior, and Social Capital Outcomes

H4: The effect of time devoted to family on social capital outcomes depends on the level of a woman's online connectivity, such that higher levels of online connectivity counteract the negative effects of time devoted to family on (a) diversity of ties, (b) total number of ties, and (c) number of ties to persons in higher organizational ranks (e.g., sponsors, mentors).

Family Life Stage and Satisfaction with Career Repositioning

H5: Women who commit fewer hours to family tend to be more satisfied with career repositioning.

Method Overview

This study utilizes a quantitative method of data collection via an online survey. A number of for-profit organizations have been selected for soliciting employee responses to the survey. Manufacturers, financial institutions, and service firms will be included in the sampling of midsize to large for-profit organizations in order to obtain responses from multiple organizational types. Additionally the member lists of two regional chambers of commerce will be included in order to obtain responses from women working for small businesses. To solicit responses from women whose primary work has shifted to marginally related fields, this study includes higher education institutions, a K12 public school district, and local nonprofits as part of the sampling. Participants will be invited to respond to the survey by an email message directing them to the survey site. Questions on the survey address each of the constructs of social capital, perceptions of career success, and family life stage, as well as control variables including age, education, and employer size, as they impacted women's career repositioning.

Definitions of Terms

Boundaryless Careers focus on the individual's path without constraint to a single organization or linear progression (Sullivan & Arthur, 2006).

Business is defined as a for-profit enterprise (Williams, Sawyer, Berston, 2013).

Career Change, in this study, consists of a change of employer, industry, or primary work function (Harris-Tuck et al., 2004).

Career Repositioning is considered as a woman's rebranding herself from a professional standpoint such that she could move into a new work role (McQuerrey, 2014).

Career Success contains both subjective and objective measures. Subjective measures include work that is deemed challenging, fascinating, or intrinsically rewarding while objective measures include salary and rank (Schilling, 2012).

Career Trajectories are the paths or progressions of careers (Harris-Tuck, Price, & Robertson, 2004).

Family Life Stage, in this study, includes categorization of a woman's marital status, age of any dependent children, and presence of aging or ailing family members (Lauer & Lauer, 2011).

Human Capital is a measure of an individual's knowledge, competencies, and attributes gained through education and experience that provide value to organizations (Becker, 1993).

Personal Brand includes self-packaging of a person's attributes and abilities to project value (Peters, 1997, Keller, 2013).

Social Capital is the value gained through the interaction of individuals and groups. Measures of social capital include both the breadth, or diversity, and the depth, or levels within organization and social class, of social networks (Burt, 1992).

Assumptions

1. The study assumes that women across all disciplines attempt to achieve success in their careers and lives. The assumption is that lackluster performance did not contribute to a lack of career opportunities or progression.
2. The study assumes that participants are honest in answering survey questions.
3. The study assumes that participants do not try to answer in a manner that they believe the researcher wants them to answer any question.

4. Since the survey instrument will be online, the study assumes that participants have access to the Internet and are comfortable with computers and web browsers.

Delimitations and Limitations

A delimitation of this study is that the analysis will be confined to women working in small cities in two northeastern states. The competitive nature of the job market in this geographic area may vary from other regions, states, or urban areas. Additionally, the socio-economic climate of the United States may change over time, limiting the applicability of this study's findings in another time period.

A limitation to this cross-sectional design is that women who voluntarily agree to participate in the survey may have strong feelings or beliefs about women's career issues. Their self-selection bias could influence the observations in the survey. Additionally, although participants are selected from a number of organizational types, they may not be representative of all organizations, potentially limiting the generalizability of the findings.

Significance of the Study

The importance of this study is to develop an understanding of the impact of social capital for women to successfully reposition careers in business. To date, most available research has viewed women's careers in an overarching manner without specific consideration of disciplines. Many studies have identified obstacles for women, but the research fell short of indicating whether these obstacles are universal or differ across industries. Previous research has also fallen short in regard to investigating the ties between women's family life stages and their development or maintenance of social network contacts. This study will survey women working within business, as well as

those who have migrated their primary work function to a business-related field, to assess the obstacles and opportunities that they have encountered in managing their career repositioning as their larger life contexts evolved.

The findings of this study have numerous benefits. The findings may increase the awareness of organizational obstacles for women as they progress through life cycles. As women's life contexts evolve, their career needs may change. The information provided in this study will help increase women's preparedness for career obstacles within business, rather than offering more generic advice for working women. Planning a career change within corporate finance, for example, would likely be different from planning a career change within primary education. This study highlights how women successfully transition their careers in business.

This study also provides insights for businesses that wish to retain female talent. As previous studies have found that corporations with the highest percentage of female executive leaders and board members financially outperformed those with fewer women in leadership (Catalyst, 2004), many businesses struggle to create organizational structures that accommodate women's changing circumstances. A number of publications have offered success stories of exceptional women whose grit and determination helped them beat the odds in climbing the corporate ladder. This study provides greater breadth of analysis than the case study approaches, highlighting the exceptionally successful female business leader, by focusing on the multitude of challenges facing women working at many different levels in business as their lives and careers progress. The study identifies how career trajectories are impacted by social constructs within organizational constraint and larger life contexts. Organizations

seeking to retain and advance women would benefit from the knowledge gained through this study.

This research also serves to educate young women entering the field of business on the elements that may impact their career paths. Comprehending the obstacles, as well as the successful trajectories, of women at various stages of family and career progression can better prepare young women for the realities of careers within changing life circumstances. Very few women's lives remain unchanged over their working years. Marriages, divorces, deaths, illnesses, children, and other realities of life impact the circumstances of working women. Rather than further arguments for whether or not women can have it all, this research evaluates how women chart paths that fit their own contexts. This study refocuses the issues toward raising women's awareness of how their career decisions can be planned and choreographed to best fit their emerging needs.

Summary

Women's career trajectories follow a variety of patterns and paths. While previous studies have indicated that women's careers differ from men's, most research has fallen short of identifying women's obstacles and opportunities in specific disciplines. Previous studies have also failed to acknowledge the influence of family life stage on women's social capital. Understanding the realities for women to reposition their careers according to their needs requires a deeper investigation into the interconnections of women's social capital, perceptions of success, and family life stage. Social capital, intertwined with perceptions of success and family life stage, has impacted women's careers. The purpose of this study is to critically analyze the influence of social capital factors on women's career repositioning in business.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

A review of literature on the topic of women's changing careers has indicated that social capital and family life stage have impacted the perception of women's organizational value, as well as women's selection of subjective or objective career success measures (Schilling, 2012). Additionally, women's career trajectories have greater complexity than males' career paths, as women's lives are more influenced by parenthood and social norms (O'Neil et al., 2008). In order to improve the understanding of social capital and family life stage as related to women's satisfaction with career repositioning, a literature investigation was conducted on the career trajectory influences of social capital, perceived career success, and family life stage. In addition to identifying research approaches to each topic, the reviewed literature highlighted several weaknesses in the existing studies of the constructs.

Social Capital

In today's knowledge economy, organizational leaders are challenged to manage workers' talents, skills, and ideas (Dess, Lumpkin, Eisner, & McNamara, 2014). A central element of competitive advantage lies in the tying together of knowledgeable, talented individuals through social connections, or social capital (Dess et al., 2014). Social capital can play a key role in career success, as it provides the advantages of information, skill sets, and power (Cross, Thomas, & Light, 2009). However, the following literature pointed out that social capital is not universally accessible to all, particularly women.

Diversity of Social Capital

Burt's (1992) structural hole theory of social capital introduced the concept that brokerage across holes in organizational groups created visions and opportunities that would otherwise have gone unseen. As group members have typically shared information, opinions, and behaviors more freely within homogenous groups, the internal focus created structural holes in the information flow between different groups. Managers who brokered across groups enjoyed increased returns in terms of positive performance appraisals, promotions, and compensation (Burt, 2004). From his research of a large American electronics manufacturer, Burt (1992) defined four levels of brokerage. The lowest level of brokerage simply involved raising the awareness of existence between differing groups. Second, brokers used their communication skills to bridge a communication gap between groups. The third level of brokerage was defined by a manager's ability to draw analogies between the two groups so that value could be seen in the other. Lastly, managers with the highest level of brokerage synthesized behaviors and beliefs from each group to create new value (Burt, 2004).

Since men have dominated business hierarchies, Burt's (1992) findings offer particularly noteworthy insights for women. Burt (1992) suggested that managers who used their brokerage connections to bridge previously segregated groups enjoyed higher rates of promotion and salary increases. Additionally, managers whose positions brought them into contact with external connections were found to propose better ideas for innovative organizational opportunities, while those in closed groups had their ideas dismissed (Burt, 2004). Further, Burt's (2004) research indicated that managers were more willing to act on their good ideas when they held social connections outside of their

closest colleagues. According to Burt's (1992) research, social capital has been measured by an individual's connections in terms of his or her number of connections, how long connections have been established, and how frequently contact is made. Burt's (1992) findings suggested that social capital was highly influenced by network constraint, which consists of density, closeness of the network partners, and hierarchy, central contact mechanisms for information sharing. Managers at higher organizational levels tended to exhibit less network constraint and greater brokerage ability, as their numbers and diversity of contacts across an organization increased (Burt, 2004).

Within the same study of a large electronics firm, Burt (1997) also identified contextual factors that impacted a manager's social capital. As a manager acted as a broker to distant social groups, especially through weak and distant ties, he or she created career advantages for others (Burt, 1997). A key to leveraging a brokerage position was a higher rank within the organization, where the manager with few peers enjoyed the ability to act entrepreneurially within his decision-making (Burt, 1997). In lower-level positions where a manager had many competitive peers, constraints on job definition limited the manager's social capital brokering (Burt, 1997). Since high-ranking women in business have fewer peers, the application of Burt's (1997) theories on social capital brokerage could provide interesting research perspectives.

Similarly applicable to women and social capital, Burt (1997) found that managers who operated on the fringes of an organization, such as remote sales, newly hired, female, and non-white managers, received more visibility if making an error. Their fear of negative visibility raised their efforts to connect organizational gaps, which, in turn, raised the value of their social capital. Additionally, employees at the lowest

levels of the organization benefited through the accumulation of social capital, as a means of breaking out of the limits of their current positions (Burt, 1997). These findings implied that additional research of social capital within industries where women hold the majority of lower level positions could provide useful insights.

Similar to the findings of inequity in social capital described previously, race and gender have also been found to moderate the returns from perceived employee value. A study of Fortune 500 financial services firms indicated that increases in human capital increased promotion rates, but race was a diminishing factor (James, 2000). With equivalent levels of human capital, blacks were found to have a slower promotion rates (James, 2000). Gender pay gaps cannot solely be attributed to employee value, as social norms have contributed to individuals' accumulation of personal value (Olson, 2012). Valuation models for gender equity have typically accounted for an individual's personal value, as measured by human capital in experience, education, and occupation (Olson, 2012). A fundamental flaw with these models has been the interactivity of gender, occupation, and education, and experience as independent variables (Olson, 2012). Since social norms of gender roles impacted an individual's choices in occupation, and organizational discrimination impacted an individual's availability of experiences, accumulation of social capital has become intrinsically connected to gender inequities (Olson, 2012).

Keller (2013) suggested that perceptions of individuals' social worth have often been difficult to reposition. Individuals have developed their social identity through secondary associations with other individuals or organizations (Keller, 2013). Ibarra (2004a) identified similar opportunities for women to utilize social constructs in

repositioning their perceived professional selves. Ibarra (2004b) found that the most successful reinventions included experimentation with new professional activities, interactions with new networks of people, and continual reevaluation of emerging possibilities. Ibarra (2005) argued that identity changed with social interaction and that individuals were challenged to disassociate with their old selves as professional roles changed.

In their attempt to develop an integrated model of career change, Rhodes and Doering (1983) found that individuals' decisions to change careers were socially constructed. Defining career change as any modification other than a natural progression or advancement in work, Rhodes and Doering (1983) included both voluntary and involuntary career alterations. Individuals' voluntary career changes were closely tied to job dissatisfaction, driven by lack of person-organization or person-environment fit, two socially constructed concepts (Rhodes & Doering, 1983).

Higgins (2001) offered insights for women related to the effects of social capital on changing careers, implying that the greater the diversity of an individual's social capital network, the greater the likelihood that the person would change careers. Higgins (2001) found that a diverse social network not only provided advice and information on career advancement opportunities, but also broadened the range of career possibilities that an individual considered. A woman's range of access for career advice would influence the directions she chose. Further, the likelihood of career change increased as the number of different career alternatives presented to an individual through his or her social network increased (Higgins, 2001). Additionally, the positive psychological support offered by the social network increased the individual's confidence, a necessary

trait in the job search process (Higgins, 2001). While Higgins' (2001) study was limited to a somewhat small sample of elite business school graduates, the findings suggested that further research should be conducted on the choice of social contacts' impact on both the choice of careers and the ability to achieve a desired career.

Size of Social Capital

Although research has indicated many positive aspects of social capital, a number of less favorable conditions have arisen from social networks as well. Lin (2000) argued that the quantity and quality of resources in a social network, the strength of the network, and the individuals' position of origin within the network impacted career outcomes in terms of inequality. In his research, Lin (2000) found that men tended to belong to larger social networks that centered on economic institutions and provided information related to job opportunities, while women belonged to smaller networks that focused more on community and domestic issues. Still's (2006) research showed similar results, attributing women's family-based social networks to their culturally prescribed greater investment in childcare. Lin (2000) discovered several other factors distinguishing men's and women's social networks as well. Women failed to integrate into men's networks, knew fewer contacts in other occupations, and gained only homogenous male contacts through family ties (Lin, 2000). On the other hand, men associated with contacts in higher positions and had fewer network contacts who were neighbors, friends, or family (Lin, 2000).

Lin (2000) suggested that the greatest differentials between men and women were in regard to the return deficit of social capital for women, as a result of differing opportunities and investments. In other words, even when men and women had equal

social capital, the returns were greater for men (Lin, 2000). Lin's (2000) assessment rested on three precepts. First, women were unable to connect to the right social ties. Second, contacts in authoritarian positions were unwilling to help women. Third, employers respond differently to women (Lin, 2000). The implication for successful women was that they created beneficial opportunities through their social networks with men, but this practice was far from routine (Lin, 2000).

Burt (1998) also evaluated gender as it impacted social capital in his study of the electronics manufacturer, concentrating on the concept that within social networks, outsiders to the group must borrow social capital in order to gain legitimacy. The two groups Burt (1998) identified as lacking legitimacy within the large firm in his study were women and young men. Eventually over time, the young men became group insiders; however the women did not gain legitimacy (Burt, 1998). While men gained social capital by leveraging large, diverse networks, the opposite remained true of women (Burt, 1998). Further, women who attempted to create their own social capital fared worse than women with less social capital (Burt, 1998). A key finding indicated that women who borrowed social capital from sponsor with an entrepreneurial network rich with brokerage over structural holes enjoyed the most productive career strategy (Burt, 1998). Since Burt's (1998) findings suggested that women had an organizational legitimacy issue that affected their ability to further their careers through social capital, parallel research on women's career repositioning could provide useful knowledge.

Eby, Butts, and Lockwood (2003) drew parallel findings in their study of predictors of success in boundaryless careers for alumni of a university in the southeastern United States. Two factors found to contribute significantly to boundaryless

career success were the marketability of the individual within and outside the organization and the career networks of the individual (Eby, Butts, & Lockwood, 2003). Their study reinforced the social aspects of individuals' success and determined that gender differences existed in regard to the social contributions toward marketability and success (Eby, Butts, & Lockwood, 2003). The researchers suggested that further examination of the gender differences in social elements should be examined.

Upward Reach of Social Capital

Similarly, Ibarra (1992) identified that homophily of network ties constrained women's access to valuable support within organizations. The overlapping of instrumental and expressive relationships amongst men tended to create organizational power elite in exclusion of women (Ibarra, 1993). The lack of available similar women stifled women's abilities to develop in-group network contacts (Ibarra, 1993). Ibarra (1993) found that informal network contacts most strongly impacted organizational network structures. Women were dually challenged by the homophily in men's network contacts, as men tended to connect with similar men and those men, in turn, also connected with a tight range of demographically similar men (Ibarra, 1993). Additionally, Ibarra, Kilduff, and Tsai (2005) noted that tight organizational hierarchy has contributed to the challenges for women in developing social capital, as the bureaucracy limited the range and heightened the density of network contacts.

Furthering the argument of inequality in women's perceived employee value, were Ibarra's (1999) findings that women lacked available resources to develop an adaptive strategy for career change. As career repositioning required fundamental changes in self-definition, often influenced by social context, those who adapted to a new

role most successfully had access to an observable role model (Ibarra, 1999). Since corporations have fewer women in top organizational ranks (Catalyst, 2014), women have been at a disadvantage in developing a new professional self-image.

While employee development has appeared to offer many career advantages, studies of career success have indicated that advances in formal education have improved the organizational rewards given to women, but to a lesser extent than men (Reimers-Hild et al., 2007). The perceived value of women within corporations has been affected by organizational structure in terms of both availability of power through network contacts and social diversity of the employee base (Kanter, 1993). Additionally, individuals' self-identity and behaviors have been shaped by their group membership within organizations (Ibarra, 2004).

Connectivity of Social Capital

Further evidence of the difference in men and women's social networking ties was evidenced by the use of social networking within the digital society. Since 2003, business professionals have had the opportunity to develop social capital within the digital society by means of social networking sites such as LinkedIn and Facebook. Positioned especially for business professionals, LinkedIn offers its more than 160 million members value by connecting to other professionals (Schein, 2014). The primary goals of most users have been to seek employment or other business opportunities (Schein, 2014). Unfortunately, user statistics have suggested that women have not taken advantage of the professional networking opportunities in the digital age. Pew researchers determined that women comprised only thirty-seven percent of the users on LinkedIn (Hampton, Goulet, Rainie, & Purcell, 2011). User data for the less

professionally geared Facebook, Twitter, and MySpace indicated that women comprised the majority of users with fifty-eight, sixty-four, and fifty-seven percent, respectively (Hampton et al., 2011). Further, the Hampton et al. (2011) study indicated that only ten percent of Facebook users' connections were coworkers. This data suggested that even in the digital society women's network ties were centered more on family and friends.

Similar to social capital development, online channels, particularly social media, have been shown to contribute significantly to individuals' perceived value (Keller, 2013). Given women's limited use of LinkedIn, the more professional social media channel (Hampton et al., 2011), women in business could be missing opportunities to develop their value through online networks. Further investigation should be conducted on the impact of online social networking for women's satisfaction with career repositioning.

The research summarized above has indicated that brokers of social capital can create real value for their careers in terms of promotion and increased salary (Burt, 2004). Social capital has also been found to help lower-level employees raise their organizational status to a higher-level (Burt, 1997) and to help higher level employees develop connections for innovative value (Burt, 2004). Several researchers have agreed that employee value has social concepts, particularly in relation to direct supervisor relationships and social media (Barrett, 2000; Keller, 2013). Individuals with diverse network connections were found more likely to capitalize on opportunities as well as to change careers (Burt, 1997; 2004). Although social network connections appeared to offer great opportunity for women in business, most women were challenged to create social capital (Burt, 1998; Ibarra, 1992). Women benefitted from borrowing social

capital from an individual higher in their organizations, but often had difficulty obtaining the mentor or sponsor for developing their social network (Burt, 1998). While men readily utilized social networks for career and economic opportunities, women concentrated their networks within domestic and family ties (Lin, 2000) even within the digital society (Pew, 2011). In turn, men enjoyed greater career and organizational returns from social capital.

The research findings suggested that while social capital has been a critical element in career success, women have suffered a disadvantage in building or reaping career rewards from social capital. Further investigation could help identify opportunities for women to develop social capital for their careers and explain whether women's challenges with social capital influenced their ability to craft successful career repositioning. Therefore, the following hypotheses have been established to investigate the impact of social capital on women's career repositioning in business.

Social Capital Outcomes and Satisfaction with Career Repositioning

H1a: The diversity of ties in a woman's work-related social capital network is positively related to her satisfaction with career repositioning.

H1b: The number of ties in a woman's work-related social capital network is positively related to her satisfaction with career repositioning.

H1c: The number of ties to persons in higher organizational ranks (e.g., sponsors, mentors) in a woman's work-related social capital network is positively related to her satisfaction with career repositioning.

Social Capital Behavior and Satisfaction with Career Repositioning

H2: Utilizing online connectivity for developing social capital is positively related to a women's satisfaction with career repositioning.

Career Success

In order to understand whether women considered their career changes to be on path toward increasing success, an investigation of career success research was conducted. An important concept was the delineation of perceptions of success from objective and subjective measures. Objective measures included elements such as salary and rank, while subjective measures included elements such as work that is deemed challenging or intrinsically rewarding (Schilling, 2012). In addition to understanding the difference between objective and subjective measures of career success, also essential to examine were the factors that contributed toward women's use of objective or subjective measures of career success.

Scholars and practitioners have debated the elements of career success for decades. While most agree on two sets of criteria - objective and subjective - many argue that a variety of factors have influenced the measures of individuals' career success. Heslin (2005) argued that much of the existing career-success literature focused solely on managerial and professional careers with a limited comprehension of objective measures, individual satisfaction, shared concern for career success, and evaluations based on self-aspirations. Heslin's (2005) research examined each of these areas to find that objective measures, such as salary and promotions, became contaminated by factors outside an individual's control, including the labor market, economy, and competition. Individuals conceptualized their career success in realms such as fulfillment, contribution, and work-life balance, and measured success, not only based on their current level of satisfaction,

but also on their anticipated achievements (Heslin, 2005). Although most research gauged objective measures of success, Heslin (2005) found that financial rewards were not necessarily shared by all individuals as an indicator of success and suggested that further research should concentrate on subjective measures such as the existence of work deemed challenging, fascinating, or intrinsically rewarding (Schilling, 2012). Finally, Heslin (2005) noted that human nature encouraged individuals to compare themselves to others rather than rely on self-referent measures of success.

Heslin (2005) further evaluated individuals' self-assessment of career success to find that context greatly impacts an individual's perception. At any point in time, an individual's self-assessment changed as he or she gained new knowledge of others' success (Heslin, 2005). Organizational cultures impacted individuals' tendency to utilize objective, subjective, self-referent or other-referent criteria for determining success. Competitive, market-oriented organizations focused the individual on objective criteria of success, while fraternal, group-oriented organizations focused the individual on subjective criteria of success (Heslin, 2005). An individual's orientation affected his or her perspective on measuring success as well. Specifically, individuals whose work orientation centered solely on the financial rewards of a job or on the financial rewards and advancement of a career focused on objective measures of success, such as salary and rank, with others as the reference point (Heslin, 2005). In contrast, individuals, whose work orientation sought fulfillment from a calling, focused on subjective measures of success, such as intrinsic challenges and rewards, with oneself as the reference point (Heslin, 2005). Research into women's career satisfaction orientations could provide a better understanding of their alignment with for-profit organizational goals.

Galunic and Anderson (2000) argued that professional development investments influence employment's psychological contracts, the perception of what the employee and employer owe each other (Rousseau, 1996). In a study of North American insurance agents, Galunic and Anderson (2000) found that as a firm made more generalized investments in an employee, his or her emotional attachment to the firm increased. The generalized investments also positively impacted the employee's perception of trust, fairness, and communication with the employer (Galunic & Anderson, 2000). Additional research should be conducted to determine whether organizations reciprocate the attachment to employees as their social capital increases.

Blansett (2008) offered parallel findings of the value of generalized investments in individuals' perceived value in a study of the contributions of education to career success. Using the United States Department of Labor's National Longitudinal Surveys dataset, Blansett (2008) measured human capital as the highest education level achieved and hours spent in training over the past two years. Blansett (2008) determined that a positive correlation existed between increased education and increased salary, while no such relationship was determined for training and salary. Blansett's (2008) findings suggested that increases in formal education positively impacted objective organizational rewards. Unanswered by Blansett's (2008) study was whether increases in education impacted social capital networks, as related to satisfaction with career repositioning.

Ballout's (2007) summaries of person-environment fit echoed Heslin's (2005) findings by identifying the impact of the psychological employment contract on an individual's perception of career success. The contemporary approach to career success defined the employee-employer relationship as more temporary than traditional career

approaches. With boundaryless careers, individuals actively managed their careers, fully embracing that they would work for more firms on broader ranges of projects. In addition, with intelligent and post-corporate careers, self-knowledge and self-awareness encouraged individuals to utilize an entrepreneurial approach to their careers by increasing their personal knowledge of why, how, and whom to contact for career support (Ballout, 2007).

Early studies of employee value were introduced in Schultz's (1961) seminal work, when he countered the accepted organizational philosophy that humans were to be considered wealth in which firms could invest. While individuals do, indeed, invest in themselves through acquisition of education and experience, the concept of organizations' investing in employees simply for increasing labor output became obsolete as the United States shifted towards a knowledge economy (Schultz, 1961). Instead, Schultz (1961) argued that employees' skills and knowledge contributed indirectly to the value of a firm. Schultz (1961) further argued that employee value directly increased through education but deteriorated when left idle or when hindrances limit choice of professions. Employee value must be developed to contribute to an individual's career trajectory over time, but has often been diminished very quickly by individuals' missteps (Keller, 2013).

Similarly, McFadden (2008) theorized that employee value functioned like a reservoir, deteriorating, or evaporating, over time. McFadden (2008) suggested that employees' health, general knowledge, and job-specific skills, also contains elements of socialization and motivation that contribute to individuals' success in work teams. Somewhat contrary, Becker (1993) argued that employee value could not diminish, as an

individual cannot be separated from his or her knowledge and skills. The resources an individual possesses should directly increase the value of that person to the firm (Becker, 1993). Human capital has served as a measure of personal value related to a firm. The argument that individuals obtain positions and wages in line with their human capital assumed that the labor market was efficient (Becker, 1993). Data indicating that women have possessed more human capital value than their employers rewarded with salary has implied that either the labor market was not efficient or that organizations were not embracing equality (Reimers-Hild et al., 2007).

As organizations have shifted over the past decades from autocratic management towards leadership that embraced the human side of business, management of employee satisfaction and success has been further investigated and defined (van Marrewijk & Timmers, 2003). Organizations have enjoyed productivity gains by supporting their employees as whole persons (van Marrewijk & Timmers, 2003). Often the organizational support was fostered by an alignment of employees' personal values with the values of the organization (van Marrewijk & Timmers, 2003). This concept followed closely with the personal brand value sentiment of an individual's attributes contributing to their perceived value and the value of the firm. Barrett (2000) also signified the importance of this organizational support in his contention that the values alignment was most critical in the relationship with a direct supervisor. Barrett (2000) found that thirty-nine percent of the variability in a firm's performance could be attributed to employee fulfillment, which was directly tied to a supervisor's commitment to promoting employees' values. These findings indicate that more knowledge could be gained by investigating how an individual's direct supervisor impacts his or her satisfaction with

career repositioning as employee needs evolve.

Ballout (2007) argued that while human capital factors, such as educational level and work experience, affected career success, other less obvious factors impacted success as well. Ballout (2007) analyzed the impact of three forms of person-fit on career success: 1) person-job, the knowledge, skills, and abilities of the person compared to the demands of the job, 2) person-organization, the shared similarities in characteristics, and 3) person-culture, the matching of personal values with organizational values and norms. Ballout (2007) identified mentorship as a critical factor affecting person-organization's influence on career success, and individualistic or collectivist culture as a clear factor impacting a person's boundaryless or traditional career orientation. With so many factors affecting an individual's realization of success, researchers should take caution in determining a well-defined set of variables in the measurement of career success (Ballout, 2007).

Gunz and Heslin (2005) agreed that success has been ambiguously defined and took the argument a step further as they suggested that careers have been ambiguous as well. An individual's perception of career success contained both objective and subjective criteria, where consideration of positive or negative experiences changed over time (Gunz & Heslin, 2005). Reflecting on the individual nature of careers and life situations, Gunz and Heslin (2005) argued that existing studies failed to acknowledge the inability to create a uniform scale for measuring success factors. Gunz and Heslin (2005) suggested that career success remained socially constructed, affected by individuals, institutions, and society.

Arthur, Khapova, and Wilderom (2005) concurred that career success researchers have limited their approach by failing to adapt to contemporary career theories. In addition to the altered psychological employment contract realized through increased mobility, organizations have also become more flattened in their hierarchies, minimizing the traditional career path (Arthur et al., 2005). Career research has typically been conducted within one large company with only internal peer or referent group comparisons (Arthur et al., 2005). To maximize research findings on career success, studies should be expanded to include measures of professional ability as perceived by parties external to the individual's organization (Arthur et al., 2005).

Agreeing that career success was impacted by social constructs, Seibert, Kraimer, and Liden (2001) contended that social resources, in the forms of contacts in other functions and in higher levels, provided network benefits of information access, resource access, and sponsorship necessary for career success. Seibert et al. (2001) argued that previous research into the elements of career success failed to acknowledge the relevance of social capital's numerous benefits on career success, including enhanced performance, boundary spanning, and empowerment. Through a study of engineering and master's of business administration alumni from a large Midwestern university, Seibert et al. (2001) measured the impact of social capital on career success by controlling for the demographic, industry and human capital variables typically used. Seibert et al. (2001) confirmed that social capital impacted both objective and subjective measures of career success and suggested that further research should be made into the relevance of social capital on both perspectives of career success.

The findings summarized above indicated that individuals tended to use comparisons to others, rather than self-reverent measures, in evaluating their own career success (Heslin, 2005). Organizational culture also contributed to individuals' career success measures, with competitive market-oriented organizations focusing the individual on objective criteria of career success (Heslin, 2005). The new paradigm of employee relationships around boundaryless careers contributed to the shift of career success toward the self, rather than a long-term relationship with an organization (Ballout, 2007). The connection of personal and organizational values has, in turn, impacted perceptions of career success.

Researchers appeared to agree that career success was socially constructed (Arthur et al., 2005; Ballout, 2007; Gunz & Heslin, 2005; Seibert et al., 2000). Individuals, institutions, and society have impacted perceptions of successful career trajectories (Gunz & Heslin, 2005). Important to note was that the institutional influence came, not only from the employing institution, but also from social contacts outside of the individual's organization (Arthur et al., 2005). Lastly, the social capital influences impacted both objective and subjective measures of success (Seibert et al., 2000). Since women's access to social capital has been limited (Burt, 1997; Lin, 2000; Hampton et al., 2011), further investigation is warranted into how women's organizational fit and network contacts influence their perception of successful career repositioning.

Therefore, in measuring women's satisfaction with career repositioning, a number of factors must be included as influencers of satisfaction. Satisfaction with career outcomes related to repositioning will be measured on four constructs:

1) women's perceived satisfaction with their salary; 2) women's perceived satisfaction

with the availability of new work opportunities; 3) women's satisfaction with their work structure, including their work schedule, flexibility, and location; and 4) women's satisfaction with support from their supervisors and coworkers.

Family Life Stage

Family life stage has been a highly influential force on women's careers with implications from the individual, the organization, and society at large (O'Neil et al., 2008). Differences exist for men and women in regard to the embedding of family and careers (Mason & Ekman, 2007; Moe & Shandy, 2009). Over time, women face critical choices in regard to career and family that men rarely encounter (Mason & Ekman, 2007; Moe & Shandy, 2009). Although women have increased as a percent of the American workforce over the past decade (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2010b), they continue to face many career challenges as their lives progress through motherhood and beyond (Goldin, 2004; Hackett, 1997; Mason & Ekman, 2007; Moe & Shandy, 2009).

Studies of women's careers over the past decades revealed that women tended to embed their careers in larger life contexts to a much greater extent than men did (Cinnamon & Rich, 2002; O'Neil et al., 2008). Holding both family and careers as central to their lives, women's careers have followed a wide range and variety of patterns (O'Neil et al., 2008). Critics of career psychology have argued that career theories were based on males and, therefore, do not account for the complexity of women's career decisions (Fitzgerald & Crites, 1980). Those offering career advice to women were often naïve in regard to discrimination by content and process in organizations (Fitzgerald & Crites, 1980).

Studies of women's careers indicated that goals of women have changed considerably from the baby-boomer generation to and today's generation (Goldin, 2004). Previously, women chose between a family and a career, while today's female college graduates define their goals as having both careers and families (Goldin, 2004). As graduation rates of women are now on par with men, today's generation of women believe that they are as well-educated and trained as their male counterparts who have successfully achieved having both careers and families (Goldin, 2004). Assessments of the Bureau of Labor Statistics' National Longitudinal Surveys found that forty-five to fifty-five percent of men had both a career and a family, while only thirteen to eighteen percent of women accomplished having both (Goldin, 2004; United States Department of Labor, 2006). While medical advancements that allowed women to time childbirth were available to just the last two generations of women, many of today's women observed that previous generations of women postponed family until after their careers, leading to significant childlessness (Goldin, 2004). Determined not to follow that path, today's women have attempted a new trajectory of 'mothers on the fast track' (Goldin, 2004).

Jackson and Scharman (2002) found similar sentiment amongst the women they interviewed in their qualitative study of family-friendly careers. The married mothers did not accept the dichotomy of work versus family (Jackson & Scharman, 2002). Instead, the women offered a number of common themes and areas of advice for women to succeed in a family-friendly career. The study specifically defined such a career as working less than thirty hours per week and constructed such that the woman was allowed significant time with her family (Jackson & Scharman, 2002). Common themes identified by the working mothers included creative pioneering, creating an alternative

work schedule because no one else before them did; pleasant stress, as it developed a sense of fulfillment; job satisfaction, in terms of truly enjoying their work; and surprising feelings, about work and motherhood that they could not have predicted (Jackson & Scharman, 2002). Advice offered by these working mothers included embracing peaceful tradeoffs, such as declining a promotion to allow more time with an infant or reducing income to increase personal time; ambiguous preparation, as in being open to flexible work and career options; and partner support, such as joint decision-making and willingness of the partner to also change his schedule (Jackson & Scharman, 2002).

Although women have recently adopted a sense of determination in having both a career and a family, several studies have indicated that society has limited the realities of this concept for women. In terms of parental influences and socially accepted gender roles, society has imposed barriers on women's career choices (Hackett, 1997). While working mothers have indicated issues with managing multiple roles at work and home, college age women have exhibited fairly low realism in regard to the challenges (Hackett, 1997). Forret, Sullivan, and Mainiero (2010) found that society's pressure for families to conform to the accepted norm has surfaced in the different views of men and women toward unemployment. Fathers who encountered unemployment reported feeling defeat, while mothers who faced unemployment reported feeling the situation was an opportunity to spend more time at home with their families (Forret, Sullivan, & Mainiero, 2010).

In some cultures, societal pressure on women to conform to norms has been so intense that women who elect to pursue education and careers confront societal rejection. Focused on women's careers in developing countries, Bhalalusesa's (1998) research

indicated that women who opted for increasing their education and career options were viewed by society as lesser potential for marriage and family. Career women were actually considered a failure by societies of developing countries (Bhalalusesa, 1998). Still, women in the developing nations were motivated to educate themselves to become more equal to men, especially if the women had someone, such as a teacher, motivate them (Bhalalusesa, 1998). Women expressed concern that regardless of age or marital and parental status, men have the ability to give as much time as necessary to their career without any societal backlash (Bhalalusesa, 1998).

Other studies have indicated that families and societies shaped women's career decisions not only in the formative years, but rather over time (Norton, 2003; Perry, 1993). Comparing men's and women's careers over time, Perry (1993) suggested that career values and attitudes developed individuals' internal career orientations. Norton (2003) suggested that women's self-actualization develops over time, causing them to change career paths for subjective measures. Women's internal career orientations were most influenced by work-family conflict, number of dependents, level of education, gender, age, and percent contributed to family income (Perry, 1993). Hypothesizing that as familial responsibilities diminished true career orientations emerged, Perry's (1993) research found that younger women were more entrepreneurial while older women were more service-oriented.

Moe and Shandy (2009) also argued that women's career orientations develop over time, attributing the changes to the women's larger life contexts. Moe and Shandy (2009) argued that women's lives, when combining children and work, develop as more of a career spiral than a career ladder. After becoming mothers, most women in Moe and

Shandy's (2009) studies did not desire a return to the career fast track. However, they did not wish to drop out entirely either. Instead, women chose to return to work in second-tier jobs with less pressure to work long hours and travel. The women cited their reasons for moving into second-tier positions as family demands, pressure on the family from the husbands' jobs, and a lack of financial necessity for her to continue working in the fast track (Moe & Shandy, 2009). Similarly, Daniels (1989) argued that women who made a mid-career change were not driven to choose between family and work, but rather accepted the duality as a normal part of career life for women. Daniels (1989) suggested that job satisfaction was a stronger determinant in women's career repositioning. Still, the studies left unanswered whether certain organizations or fields were more adaptive to the needs of the working mothers.

Women who attempted to jump start their careers after taking a break or remaining in a second-tier holding pattern experienced challenges and discouragement, as employers questioned resume gaps and women's dated technology skills (Moe & Shandy, 2009). Women's desires to return to the fast track after becoming mothers varied with some wanting to return to their fields in a different capacity and others who wished to return to the fast track but were unable (Moe & Shandy, 2009). Even highly educated women who took two years out of their career to spend at home with a new child endured difficulties in attempting to reignite their careers (Moe & Shandy, 2009). Many women chose to create an alternate career path by returning to their field through self-employment (Moe & Shandy, 2009). A study of women graduating from a prestigious northeastern university suggested that as working women became mothers, their perceived level of competence declined, while their perceived warmth increased, traits

likely to diminish their career trajectories (Cuddy, Fiske, & Glick, 2004). The New York City based think-tank, Center for Work Life Policy, suggested that women attempting a career comeback faced a stigma against resume gaps (Gutner, 2008). The center advised that the successful women utilized network connections as their most valuable reentry point (Gutner, 2008). However, a critical concept unaddressed was the means for women to maintain or develop network contacts during their time away from full-time employment.

Investigations of why women have changed jobs have indicated that societal and organizational pressures, combined with individuals' lack of preparedness, have contributed to women's inclinations to make career changes. In a study of graduates of a Midwestern women's college, researchers investigated why college-educated women changed employment within the ten years after graduation. The study examined both the reasons women left jobs and the retention strategies offered by employers. Women cited relationships, supervisor support, and organizational career support as the most critical elements to their organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Allen, Dreves, & Ruhe, 1999). The top reasons suggested by the women as reasons for leaving an employer were promotion, increased pay, and relocation for marriage or family, followed by graduate school, pregnancy, involuntary actions, and work conditions (Allen et al., 1999). Twenty percent of the women felt that societal pressure to 'do it all' created a difficult scenario for women (Allen et al., 1999). Fifty percent of the women expressed that organizational dimensions, including respect issues, excessive hours, and subtle discrimination, contributed to their decision to leave an employer (Allen et al., 1999). While most women who changed employment cited a lack of managerial support, some blamed

themselves for being too timid or too worried about job security to ask for change (Allen et al., 1999). The women suggested that colleges should prepare women for the dual roles of working mothers and that organizations should show women more respect by offering flexibility, part-time work, and extended maternity leave (Allen et al., 1999). Women who try to reenter the corporate world during a period of economic downturn faced even greater challenges, as flexibility was typically on the chopping block for organizations (Moe & Shandy, 2009).

The flexibility and alternative work arrangements suggested for women did not inherently run counter to organizational goals. Forward-thinking organizations that had telecommuting and part-time work arrangements incurred costs savings for the firm (Rohman, 2014). *Fortune's* list of best companies has continually included flexibility as a key issue (Rohman, 2014). Development of off and on ramps for employees also served as a critical strategy for retaining women (Moe & Shandy, 2009). Price Waterhouse Coopers, Deloitte and Touche, and IBM were prime examples of companies offering three to five year leaves for employees during which time the employee was able to continue using company resources and participate in trainings (Moe & Shandy, 2009). Although the programs were open to men and women, the companies' goals were to retain women (Moe & Shandy, 2009).

Moe and Shandy's (2009) studies outlined eight strategies common amongst the successful working mothers navigating their career paths. First, women needed to embrace sequencing, in terms of developing a career and then having a family or having a family and then developing a career. Secondly, women preferred to reduce their number of working hours (Moe & Shandy, 2009). Taylor et al. (2007) indicated that nearly two-

thirds of working mothers preferred part-time work and just over one-third preferred full-time hours, yet nearly three-quarters of working mothers work full-time and only about one-fourth work part-time. Only twenty-one percent of working women with children under eighteen suggested that full-time work was ideal, down from thirty-two percent in 1997 (Taylor et al., 2007). Four out of five mothers working part-time considered the situation ideal, while one in three mothers at home wished they could work part-time (Taylor et al., 2007).

The third avenue of success for working mothers focused on the second-tier jobs that women accepted which allowed them a less hectic pace. Often these lesser positions were in education and nonprofit organizations (Moe & Shandy, 2009). The fourth commonality amongst successful working mothers was the management of priorities, such as reduced housework and community service, as well as a learned ability to decline additional activities (Moe & Shandy, 2009). In a similar vein, successful working mothers also had at-home support, including a stay-at-home spouse, nanny, or helpful parents or in-laws nearby (Moe & Shandy, 2007). Lastly, successful working mothers made functional changes to their work lives, including reducing commuting time, moving to a better place, and initiating self-employment (Moe & Shandy, 2007). Reducing commuting time often included telecommuting several days each week, while in other cases the change was to find a new job closer to home (Moe & Shandy, 2007). Moving to a better place often meant relocating to be near family who could assist with childcare (Moe & Shandy, 2009).

Mason and Ekman (2007) compiled extensive results from qualitative interviews with women in top positions in law, medicine, higher education, and Fortune 500

businesses. The women interviewed echoed similar sentiments that women do not opt out of professions entirely, but instead take second-tier positions that move them from the 'fast track' to the 'mommy track' (Mason & Ekman, 2007). Additionally, they suggested that these women who change careers to better manage work and family often feel like failures (Mason & Ekman, 2007). The interviewees suggested that women's careers and biological clocks were on a collision course and that women make career decisions during the student years when they have little information and few mentors (Mason & Ekman, 2007).

Mason and Ekman (2007) suggested that women make decisions over the courses of their careers in three specific phases: the student years, ages eighteen to thirty-two, the make-or-break years, ages thirty to forty, and beyond the glass ceiling, ages forty to sixty-five and beyond. Between age thirty to forty, women were the most likely to change career direction (Mason & Ekman, 2007). This phase was labeled the make-or-break years, as the long hours and travel in the fast track were not aligned with motherhood (Mason & Ekman, 2007). During this phase women were most likely to drop into second-tier career positions (Mason & Ekman, 2007). Adding to the fundamental challenge for women's careers in this phase were the shifts in women's network contacts. While unmarried men and women's social networks were quite similar, motherhood shifted women's networks toward more female and family contacts (Ibarra, 1993). This change in composition of women's networks tended to reduce the career related value of their social contacts (Ibarra, 1993).

During the student years, mentors and mothers tended to be most influential on women's career choices (Mason & Ekman, 2007). Young couples tended to make

decisions and job choices cooperatively but women were more likely to defer to the man's career (Mason & Ekman, 2007; Moen, 2003). Women also had fewer motherhood decisions during this phase, as nearly two-thirds of college-educated women did not have a baby until after age thirty (Matthews & Hamilton, 2002). The final phase of women's careers presented new sets of challenges as women became responsible to care for older relatives (Mason & Ekman, 2007). Women faced additional obstacles if they took an extended time away from their career, citing social connections as the most critical element to being able to reenter the workforce (Mason & Ekman, 2007).

During the most critical years for women's career trajectories, the thirty to forty age range, men's and women's career and family trajectories diverged (Mason & Ekman, 2007). Women who stayed on the fast track were less likely to have children, but men who stayed on the fast track were more likely to have children (Mason & Ekman, 2007). The previous two generations of women were the first groups of women to have choices in their careers. The first generation of women in the 1970's and 1980's were pioneers, fighting hostile, male-dominated industries with lawsuits and political battles (Mason & Ekman, 2007). The following generation of women in the 1990's faced fewer barriers but encountered a more demanding workplace, as well as a more demanding world of motherhood (Mason & Ekman, 2007). The contemporary generation of working women has been challenged to change the structure and culture of the workplace (Mason & Ekman, 2007).

The advice offered by Mason and Ekman's (2007) interview participants echoed the sentiments of other studies. The women indicated that a good partner was critically important to a working mother's success (Mason & Ekman, 2007). They suggested that

women seek out mentors and take chances on new opportunities to craft career paths (Mason & Ekman, 2007). The successful women also credited keeping connected to their discipline even if only part-time (Mason & Ekman, 2007). Finally, three attributes shared by the successful working mothers were skills in time management, saying no, and controlling against feelings of guilt when not with their children (Mason & Ekman, 2007).

Summarizing the literature above, several general themes emerged, yet questions remained. Women hold both career and family as central in their lives (O'Neil et al., 2008). Over the last decades, women's goals have changed as they attempted to minimize the dichotomy of career versus family (Goldin, 2004). Women have sought alternative and less than full-time work schedules; however organizations have not necessarily enabled these intents (Jackson & Scharman, 2002; Moe & Shandy, 2009). A select few Fortune 500 firms continued to be highlighted as model organizations for women, but studies have not investigated whether these ideals are pervasive in the business world (Moe & Shandy, 2009). Society has tended to limit women's career options and pressure them to conform to male precedent norms (Bhalalusesa, 1998; Hacket, 1997; Forret et al., 2010).

Over time, women's careers tended to evolve in a spiral (Moe & Shandy, 2009). As larger life contexts changed, women made career choices, including career breaks and movements into lesser positions, most often in order to manage their dual roles of career women and mothers (Moe & Shandy, 2009; Mason & Ekman, 2007). Women cited organizational, mentor, and direct supervisor support as critical elements to managing their career trajectories over life changes (Allen, et al 1999; Moe & Shandy, 2009; Mason

& Ekman, 2007). The thirty-to-forty age range was identified as the most critical era of change for working women, as during that peak parenthood time, men and women's career trajectories diverged (Mason & Ekman, 2009).

While the studies reviewed offered insights into the career challenges of women, the research fell short of answering the question of whether organizations understand and embrace career issues for women as their lives and social constructs progress. The review also left unanswered whether women appreciate the impact of their social network contacts on their career progression. Particularly in business where the top ranks are predominantly male (Catalyst, 2014), further investigation should be made into how well companies are enabling women to craft their desired career repositioning throughout the duration of their careers.

Therefore, the following hypotheses have been established to investigate the impact of family life stage on women's career repositioning in business.

Family Life Stage and Social Capital Outcomes

H3a: Women who commit more hours to family tend to have less diversity of ties in their work-related network.

H3b: Women who devote more hours to family tend to have a smaller number of total ties in their work-related network.

H3c: Women who commit more hours to family tend to have a smaller number of ties in their work-related network to persons in higher organizational ranks (e.g., sponsors, mentors).

Family Life Stage, Social Capital Behavior, and Social Capital Outcomes

H4: The effect of time devoted to family on social capital outcomes depends on the level of a woman's online connectivity, such that higher levels of online connectivity counteract the negative effects of time devoted to family on (a) diversity of ties, (b) total number of ties, and (c) number of ties to persons in higher organizational ranks (e.g., sponsors, mentors).

Family Life Stage and Satisfaction with Career Repositioning

H5: Women who commit fewer hours to family tend to be more satisfied with career repositioning.

Summary

The issues of social capital, integrated with career success, and family life stage, suggested that women could develop opportunities through social networks, yet women tended to incur conflict in successfully utilizing its potential. Social capital has impacted most areas of women's careers, while career success has elicited a high level of ambiguity in the areas of definition, perception, and measurement. In regard to the diversity and extent of social networking contacts, Burt's (2004) studies showed that individuals with network contacts external to the organization developed and capitalized on more good ideas, while Lin (2000) showed that similar network structure increased both the career options considered and the likelihood of career change. Social capital impacted perceived employee value for women as well, as it provided opportunities and challenges (Galunic & Anderson, 2000; Keller, 2013). Since investigations of women's career progression has shown that women often need social capital to create career change (Bascia & Young, 2001), an investigation of women's current social capital

constraints and opportunities could provide significant insight for women seeking to reposition their careers.

The constructs also brought into question whether the issues that women endured in building their own social capital (Lin, 2000) and personal brands (Reimers-Hild et al., 2007) might intersect with the flattening of organizations and altering of traditional career paths (Arthur et al., 2005). Since women were less likely to follow a traditional continuous, linear, and hierarchical career path (Schilling, 2012), the suggestions by Arthur et al. (2005) to expand career success to more boundaryless careers could imply that more research should be conducted on the impact of social capital specifically on women's career repositioning. The inequalities of social capital identified by Burt (1997) and Pew (2011) implied that although women possess more potential to benefit due to their dominance in lower level positions, they incur more challenges in developing social capital. The women who have advanced maintained fewer competitive peers, which should have allowed them to capitalize on social capital brokerage (Burt, 1997). Investigations into the social capital networks of women at various organizational levels in business could provide useful insight into women's career repositioning.

The findings that many individuals perceived success, subjectively or objectively, in comparison to those around them (Heslin, 2005) indicated that social capital and career success were intertwined on many levels. As well, the findings that a person's fit with his or her organization depended on characteristics and values (Ballout, 2007) suggested that social influences impacted a person's career trajectory. The nature of an individual's social network could have impacted both the relative perception of success as well as the extent of shared values and characteristics amongst network contacts. Burt's (1998) and

Lin's (2000) contentions that women faced greater challenges in developing fruitful social capital could have indicated that the obstacles affected women's relative perception of successful career repositioning as well.

The findings also suggested that much of the existing literature on career success failed to investigate the unique perspectives and circumstances of women. Studies have shown that individuals working in more competitive organizations utilized objective measures of success (Heslin, 2005). Social capital has helped individuals move out of low-level positions (Burt, 1997) and consider more career alternatives (Higgins, 2001). Since women have achieved limited success in developing diverse, extensive or online professional social networks (Lin, 2000; Pew, 2011), especially through their own solo efforts (Burt, 1998), the effect of social capital on women's ability to reposition their careers should be further investigated. The challenge remains to investigate whether women intrinsically choose career paths that rely more heavily on subjective measures of success, if the dominance of women in certain disciplines has influenced their measurements of success, or if the limitations to social capital have diminished the options that women consider as career alternatives.

Lastly, the career impacts of women's family life stages were highly concentrated on social paradigms as well. Families, organizations, and societal norms have influenced women's choices of career paths (Goldin, 2004; Forret, Sullivan, & Maniero, 2010; Hackett, 1997; Moe & Shandy, 2009). Many authors have proposed advice for women to succeed in managing career and family, but most studies have been limited to the few women in very prestigious positions and the same few businesses that have been highlighted as positive environments for women. Further investigation should be

conducted to determine whether women at various levels of businesses are able to establish the necessary social capital to craft career repositioning as their larger life contexts evolve.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This quantitative study will investigate the opportunities and obstacles surrounding social capital for women in repositioning their careers in business. The study will survey women in a variety of business positions to measure the influence of factors previously found to have general career implications with specific emphasis on the influence of social capital. The prevailing factor of social capital has been found to be intertwined with other factors including perceived career success and family life stage (Heslin, 2005; Ibarra, 1993; Keller, 2013, Lin, 2000). As women's careers have tended to follow boundaryless trajectories and businesses have tended to promote hierarchical career paths, this study will examine the obstacles and opportunities for women to utilize social capital in successfully repositioning their careers within their larger life contexts.

A quantitative methodology has been established for this study in order to gain a stronger base of knowledge on women's career repositioning in business. Existing studies have either concentrated on the few women who made it to the top in business or the same few organizations that provide special advantages for female employees. Additionally, existing studies have examined women's careers in an overarching manner with very limited consideration given to the employment fields of the women.

This study will expand on the existing knowledge base by measuring the influence of social capital as women at a variety of organizational levels within business attempt to reposition their careers according to their needs. Limitations to the existing research have left unclear the degree to which organizational obstacles for women in business have had a negative impact on women's abilities to craft their own careers paths

as their life contexts changed. The existing studies have also fallen short of identifying potential opportunities for women in midlevel business careers to guide and direct their careers as their needs change. Embedded in women's career issues of perceptions of success and family life stage are influences by the composition of women's social networks. This study investigates the degree to which women's social capital helps or hinders their abilities to reposition their careers.

Within this quantitative study of the impact of social capital on women's career repositioning in business, the population studied will include women who have worked for a for-profit company within the past ten years. The sample of participants will be drawn within a region of small cities in southwestern New York and northwestern Pennsylvania. Company human resource managers will solicit participants' responses via an online survey instrument with invitations to participate sent through email. Data collected will be analyzed using the SPSS version 20 statistical software and stored in password-protected locations. Only the primary researcher will have access to the data files.

Research Question and Hypotheses

This quantitative study investigates the impact of social capital on women's career repositioning in business. The study considers the issues of perceptions of success and larger life contexts as related to social capital. As such, three research constructs have been established for the study. A visual representation of the research question and hypotheses is presented in Figure A1 of Appendix C.

Construct 1: Social Capital; Construct 2: Objective and Subjective Measures of Career Success; and Construct 3: Family Life Stage.

The following research question and hypotheses guide this quantitative study:

To what degree does social capital impact women's career repositioning in business?

Social Capital Outcomes and Satisfaction with Career Repositioning

H1a: The diversity of ties in a woman's work-related social capital network is positively related to her satisfaction with career repositioning.

H1b: The number of ties in a woman's work-related social capital network is positively related to her satisfaction with career repositioning.

H1c: The number of ties to persons in higher organizational ranks (e.g., sponsors, mentors) in a woman's work-related social capital network is positively related to her satisfaction with career repositioning.

Social Capital Behavior and Satisfaction with Career Repositioning

H2: Utilizing online connectivity for developing social capital is positively related to a women's satisfaction with career repositioning.

Family Life Stage and Social Capital Outcomes

H3a: Women who commit more hours to family tend to have less diversity of ties in their work-related network.

H3b: Women who devote more hours to family tend to have a smaller number of total ties in their work-related network.

H3c: Women who commit more hours to family tend to have a smaller number of ties in their work-related network to persons in higher organizational ranks (e.g., sponsors, mentors).

Family Life Stage, Social Capital Behavior, and Social Capital Outcomes

H4: The effect of time devoted to family on social capital outcomes depends on the level of a woman's online connectivity, such that higher levels of online connectivity counteract the negative effects of time devoted to family on (a) diversity of ties, (b) total number of ties, and (c) number of ties to persons in higher organizational ranks (e.g., sponsors, mentors).

Family Life Stage and Satisfaction with Career Repositioning

H5: Women who commit fewer hours to family tend to be more satisfied with career repositioning.

Method

The primary purpose of this quantitative study is to analyze social capital factors influencing women's career repositioning in business. As individuals make career changes, their experiences have typically been affected by social capital, intertwined with perceptions of career success and family life stage. This study analyzes the degree to which social capital within those constructs helped or hindered women's career repositioning in business. A quantitative methodology has been selected as previous studies have concentrated on qualitative approaches to studying small samples of successful women executives. By sampling a larger number of women working in multiple organizations, the study has been structured to produce more generalizable findings for women in business.

Survey questions have been designed to address women currently working in business as well as women who were previously employed by a for-profit company within the past ten years. Since the survey will be administered unaided online, all questions will utilize a closed-ended approach (Creswell, 2012). Questions employ

Likert-type scales for gauging agreement with organizational and individual perceptions, as well as other equal-interval continuous scales for measuring behaviors (Gerring, 2012).

To minimize ambiguity, a number of independent individuals will review the survey prior to conducting the research. Two business professors from universities not affiliated with the researcher's doctoral institution will review and approve the survey questions. Four human resource managers from participating organizations will review the online survey prior to launch. Additionally, an individual who serves as a research statistician, professor of economics, and chair of the division of management and education at an unaffiliated university will review the survey questions and assist with the associated statistical data analyses.

Review of Selected Related Literature

A comprehensive review of literature associated with women's careers, social capital, measures of success, and family life stage have contributed to the design of this study. The University of Pittsburgh library system has been used extensively to locate and examine appropriate books on the subject areas of the study. The Proquest Dissertations and Theses (PQDT) database was utilized for examining previously published dissertations related to women's careers. Also accessed through the University of Pittsburgh library system, the JSTOR database provided access to numerous articles related to the study constructs.

Key findings of the literature review indicated that social capital has been prevalent in all of the areas under consideration in this study. Burt's (1992) theory of social capital proposed that career success was highly determinant of the range, diversity,

and uniqueness of an individual's social network connections. Achieving social capital has been found to be particularly challenging for women (Burt, 1998; Ibarra, 1992; Ibarra, 1993; Lin, 2000). Social capital was shown to influence employee value, as personal brand equity has been built through association with other individuals or organizations (Keller, 2013). Perceptions of career success have been shown to be contingent upon social capital, as individuals compare their success to those within their social network (Heslin, 2005). Further, family life stage and social capital have been intertwined as the social networks of women with children have been shown to more focused on family and community than the networks of single women and men (Ibarra, 1993, Lin, 2000).

Population and Sample

The population for this study consists of women working in for-profit businesses and business-related fields in northwestern Pennsylvania and southwestern New York state. The geographic region has been selected for the study in order to minimize variability of economic, market, or employment conditions. Convenience sampling will be used, as the researcher has identified companies that are willing to invite their employees and contacts to participate in the study (Creswell, 2012). Additionally, two area chambers of commerce have agreed to solicit participants by emailing contacts on their member lists. The human resource managers and chamber of commerce directors will forward the survey invitation letter via email to their employees or members. In order for an employee or member to be eligible to participate in the study, the individual must be female and have worked for a for-profit entity within the past ten years. These criteria will be explained in the invitation letter. Also, qualifying questions at the

beginning of the survey will confirm that the participant is female and that she has worked for a for-profit company. The time period of the last decade for work experience has been determined in order to establish a technological and sociological frame set for the study.

The area businesses that have agreed to directly request their employees' participation in the study operate in a number of industries including manufacturing, oil and gas production, financial services, and professional services. The organizations range in size, with three of the firms employing fewer than 200 and generating annual sales of 14 million to 35 million dollars. Three of the companies employ between 200 and 1,000 and generate annual revenues of 27 million to 42 million dollars. Another firm employs 1,100 employees and generates annual sales of 74 million dollars, while the last company employs just over 2,000 and generates revenues of nearly 400 million dollars. All but the largest company are privately held. One firm is a subsidiary of a Japanese manufacturer, while the rest are locally headquartered within the southwestern New York and northwestern Pennsylvania region of the study.

The executive directors of the two area chambers of commerce serving the region included in this study will solicit responses from their member lists. Combined, these two chambers comprise over one thousand organizational members. Chamber members range from small to large businesses, as well as some nonprofit organizations. In order to examine responses of women who migrated their business careers into educational institutions, participants will also be requested from one public K-12 educational institution and three area higher education organizations.

Instrumentation

The instrumentation for this quantitative study is an online survey hosted by Qualtrics. The invitation to complete the survey will be sent via email from human resource managers and chamber of commerce directors. The researcher will provide the managers and directors an email letter with a link to the survey that these contacts will distribute to their employees. Since the participating organizations do not have email lists separated by gender, the survey will be sent to all employees with qualifying questions at the start of the survey. The introductory email letter also reminds recipients that the focus of the study is on women in business. Opening questions on the survey will ask the participant to indicate gender and employment within a for-profit company. Participants who indicate that they are female and have been employed by a business would be continued through the online survey to collect their responses.

An online survey has been determined to be most appropriate to collect responses from women in a variety of professional organizational positions. Since the purpose of the study is to investigate women with business careers, limiting the participants to those with computer and Internet access is reasonable. Additional advantages to utilizing an online survey include the ease of use for the participant and the direct migration of response data into the SPSS statistical software. Since the study solicits quantitative responses, an unaided online survey is appropriate for scaled and ranking questions.

The online survey instrument contains thirty-five closed-ended multiple-choice questions. Eight questions address categorical issues of demographics and employment status. Twelve questions utilize a Likert scale for responses to measure participants' level of agreement with concepts (Creswell, 2012). The remaining questions utilize

equal-interval continuous scales for responses to measure participants' perceptions and behaviors (Gerring, 2012). The survey questions will be tested and confirmed to be clear and understandable by five business professionals.

Variables

For this quantitative study, the dependent variable has been defined as successful career repositioning by women in business. In this study, successful career repositioning will be measured by respondents' satisfaction with career outcomes related to repositioning. Their satisfaction will be assessed based on respondents' perceived satisfaction with their 1) salary; 2) availability of new work opportunities; 3) work structure, including their work schedule, flexibility, and location; and 4) support from their supervisors and coworkers.

The primary independent variable in this study has been defined as the participant's social capital. Four factors of social capital will be measured: 1) diversity; 2) size; 3) upward reach; and 4) connectivity. Diversity of social capital relates to the types of persons and relationships within a social network (Burt, 1992). Size of social capital has been measured by the range of contacts in the network, while upward reach of social capital has been measured by the organizational and social rank of persons in a social network (Ibarra, 1992). Connectivity of social capital refers to participants' use of online tools to develop and maintain their social capital network.

Additional measurements of perception of success and family life stage will be considered as confounding variables, as these constructs have been shown to be intertwined with social capital (Heslin, 2005; Ibarra, 1993; Lin, 2000). The perception of success will be determined by the participant and measured in the study in terms of

objective and subjective determinants. Family life stage will be measured by categorical questions, including the age of dependents and the number of hours per week dedicated to family. Six control variables have been established for the study: the participants' 1) age; 2) organizational level; 3) field of work; 4) employer size; 5) education; and 6) personal brand value. Personal brand value will be measured by participants' behaviors in marketing their career aspirations (Keller, 2013).

Data Collection Procedures

The target population for this quantitative study is professional female workers whose primary career discipline is in a business field or primary business function. The Creighton University Institutional Review Board will approve the research. The study utilizes a convenience sampling approach, as the sample frame will be comprised of organizations willing to have their employees and contacts participate in the survey.

Email letters of invitation to participate in the online survey will be sent from the researcher to the human resource managers and chamber of commerce directors. In turn, those managers and directors will email their employee and contact lists. Participants will receive the email specified in Appendix B, inviting them to complete an online survey by following an embedded link. Survey responses will be collected via an online questionnaire over a three-week period during the summer of 2014. One week after the initial invitation email is sent, the researcher will request that the managers and directors resend the invitation to participate, as a reminder to recipients. The total number of female participants responding to the survey will be included in chapter four.

The researcher will not collect or develop email lists of invited participants. Rather, the researcher will provide an email letter of invitation to the participating

organizations' human resource managers and chamber directors. A link to the online survey will be provided in an email distributed to all employees by human resources managers within the for-profit and educational organizations. The email administrators for the chambers of commerce will send the email invitation to their members. Because of the difficulty in separating out the female contacts in their email lists, the invitation to participate will invite women to respond. Also, a qualifying question on the survey will confirm the gender of participants as female and their having a job function related to business. The online survey should take participants ten to fifteen minutes to complete.

The email invitation, as well as the opening page of the survey, will include the verbiage to cover implied consent by nature of their volunteering to complete the survey. Personally identifying information will not be collected in the survey and Internet Protocol (IP) address tracking will not be utilized. However, at the end of the survey participants will be asked to provide the name of their organization, solely to ensure that responses did not come from only one or two organizations. A number of organizations must be included in order to minimize the mitigating variables related to the size or industry of the organization. At the close of the survey, data will be downloaded from the online survey host Qualtrics in SPSS format.

Data Analysis Plan

The survey data will be analyzed using SPSS version 21. Using SPSS's table views, the data will be reviewed to confirm that all variables transferred properly with coding in place. The data will then be analyzed to determine whether the sampling follows a normal distribution, using the tests for normalcy in SPSS. If the data indicate a

normal distribution, probability statistical tests will be utilized. For all statistical testing, the level of significance of .05 will be established (Creswell, 2012).

Statistical analyses will include descriptive statistics, such as frequencies, mean, median, and standard deviations for all variables contained in the dataset. Observations for the dependent variable, successful career repositioning, will be analyzed using responses to questions asking participants to indicate their satisfaction with career outcomes related to career repositioning. Four areas of satisfaction measured include both objective and subjective measures: salary, new opportunities, work structure, and supervisors and coworkers. Participants will be asked to indicate the length of time since the respondent's last career change. The data for career repositioning will be analyzed against the data for the independent variable, social capital. The social capital measurements, questions 1 through 15, provide continuously scaled data. The dependent variable will also be analyzed for statistical correlation with the confounding variables of perceptions of career success and family life stage. Perceptions of success will be measured on continuous scales. The family life stage and demographic data contain both categorical and continuous scale responses. Social capital factors will be analyzed holding the control variables constant so as to ensure that the analysis accounts for their potential influences.

If the data follows a normal distribution, statistical tests for examining relationships between the social capital continuous scale independent variable and the career repositioning continuous scale dependent variable would include the Pearson product moment correlation and multiple regression (Creswell, 2012). Statistical tests for examining relationships between the perceived career success continuous scale

independent variables and the career repositioning continuous scale dependent variable would include the Pearson product moment correlation and multiple regression (Creswell, 2012). Statistical tests for examining relationships between the demographic and family life stage categorical independent variables and the career repositioning continuous scale dependent variable would include the independent samples t-tests and analysis of variance (ANOVA) when considering more than one independent variable at a time (Creswell, 2012).

If the data follows a non-normal distribution, statistical tests for examining relationships between the social capital continuous scale independent variable and the career repositioning continuous scale dependent variable would include the Spearman Rho and Kendall's Tau (Creswell, 2012). Statistical tests for examining relationships between the perceived career success continuous scale independent variables and the career repositioning continuous scale dependent variable would include the Spearman Rho and Kendall's Tau as well (Creswell, 2012). Statistical tests for examining relationships between the demographic and family life stage categorical independent variables and the career repositioning continuous scale dependent variable would include the Kruskal-Wallis and Mann-Whitney U (Creswell, 2012).

Assumptions

The use of a Qualtrics online survey instrument for this quantitative study assumes that participants have access to the Internet and a web browser. Soliciting participation via email assumes that members of the sample frame read their email on a timely basis and trust the sender of the solicitation email. The human resources managers and chamber directors' sending the solicitation email should improve trust. The use of an

unaided online survey instrument assumes that all questions are clear and simple to understand, and that all pages of the survey load properly. Pilot testing will be conducted prior to the launch of the survey to minimize any ambiguity and improve navigation. The human resource managers at the participating organizations will serve as pilot testers of the survey for clarity.

Ethical Considerations

A number of steps have been taken to ensure the credibility and ethical foundation of this quantitative study. The Creighton University Institutional Review Board (IRB) will review the study for approval. Overall, the participants would be subject to no harm. Participants in the study will be invited by email to voluntarily respond to the survey. The survey contains noninvasive questions of respondents' opinions on career and work related topics. The study does not seek to identify personal information from participants.

The benefits of the study include increased knowledge of women's issues in business. Eligible participants are professional women; hence all subjects will be women over the age of nineteen. Participation in the online survey will be voluntary and imply consent. No coercion or personal incentive will be introduced to the participants. Organizations that agree to participate in the study will be offered a copy of the study findings.

Data collection methods in the study ensure anonymity, confidentiality and privacy. The researcher will collect no participant email addresses to distribute the survey. Rather, human resources and email administrators within the participating organizations will forward the invitation to participate to their employees and contacts.

The participants are asked to provide no personally identifying information. In order to ensure that the study includes more than one or two organizations' employees, participants are asked at the end of the survey to provide the name of their employer. This data will be kept separate from the rest of the data collected and used solely for statistical purposes of determining the number of different organizations involved in the study. Confidentiality is ensured to the participants, as only the researcher will have access to the participants' direct responses and the database of responses. Only the aggregate of responses will be reported in any published format. Preventing any viewing of the participant responses also ensures privacy. Additionally, participants are granted privacy in the completion of the survey as they may choose their time and location to respond. The researcher will promote data integrity and prevent falsification of information by personally managing all data files. The data files will be stored on the researcher's password-protected computer system. Only the researcher will have access to the files, which will be stored for no more than three years from the completion of the study. After that time period expires, the data files will be permanently removed and destroyed.

The IRB approval letter with the protocol number, informed consent documents, authorization letters, and other confidentiality measure will appear as Appendix C once completed.

Limitations

The most significant limitation of this study is the reporting of respondents' self-perceptions in regard to career obstacles and opportunities. Some self-selection bias could limit the study if only women who feel strongly about career issues choose to

participate in the study. Since the study is limited to small cities in two East Coast states, the findings may not be generalizable to metropolitan or other employment clusters in the United States. Additionally, the study is limited to the timeframe in which participants respond to the survey. Questions in regard to their network contacts or communication methods could vary over time, causing the participants to respond to questions based on their most recent activities rather than their typical behaviors.

Summary

The quantitative online survey methodology of this study has been established to encourage participation in the study by a large number of professional women in a range of organizational levels in business. The research question will focus on measuring the influence of social capital on women's career repositioning in business, with the hypothesis suggesting that improvements in a woman's social capital network has a positive impact on her ability to reposition her career as her larger life context evolves. Four elements of social will be investigated to assess the impact on women's career repositioning: diversity, size, reach, and connectivity. A quantitative design has been developed for this study in order to expand upon the existing knowledge base of women's careers, as most previous studies focused on a select few organizations or women in a qualitative manner.

The population for the study, women working in for-profit businesses and business-related fields in northwestern Pennsylvania and southwestern New York state, will be reached through an email invitation from human resource managers of companies and directors of chambers of commerce that agreed to participate in the study. Having the managers and directors invite employees and contacts to participate in the study

serves to improve participation rates through the implied organizational endorsement of the survey. The participating companies cover a range of industries, including oil and gas production, financial services, manufacturing, and professional services. Establishing a geographic boundary for the population improves controls for economic factors in the employment market for the study.

An online survey instrument has been developed as the data collection tool in order to maximize the convenience for participants and encourage a large response rate. Since professional women are the target population, limiting the participants to women with computer and Internet access does not impose an issue to the sampling. The online survey utilizes closed-ended scaled questions to measure variables for the four constructs of the study. University business faculty members and a qualified statistician will review the online survey questions. Participating organizations' human resource directors will complete pilot testing of the online survey and confirm the ability to complete the survey.

A number of steps have been taken to assure the credibility of data in the study, including limiting access to participant responses to only the researcher. Privacy, confidentiality, and anonymity will be provided to the participants, as respondents will not be asked to provide personally identifying information. The researcher will not collect participant information, including email addresses, as the invitation to participate will be sent within organizations by human resource managers and chamber directors. In order to minimize bias, participants will not be offered any incentive to complete the survey, other than to contribute useful knowledge to the study. The Creighton University Institutional Review Board will approve this research project.

CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

Introduction

For several generations of working women, the desire to develop satisfying careers in business over the course of their evolving lives has presented a variety of challenges. The hierarchical nature of the for-profit organization's career ladder has been less adaptive to the needs and desires of women than to the nature of the more traditional paths of men (Moe & Shandy, 2009). Women have continued to grow as a percentage of the labor force, but questions remained in regard to how well women in business have been able to reposition their careers as their needs changed (United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2010). Researchers have established that social capital improves the ability of individuals to succeed in their careers, but women have been less successful than men in acquiring or returning benefits from social capital (Burt, 1998). Most studies have focused on women's careers in an overarching manner, or highlighted the select few women who excelled to the very top of organizations.

The purpose of this research study was to investigate the impact of social capital for women in business as they attempt to reposition their careers over the course of their lives. The study measured social capital in terms of the diversity, size, and upward reach of women's professional networks. An additional measure of women's social capital behavior in terms of methods of connectivity was included to investigate its impact on women's careers in business. Indications of women's life stages were provided through a measure of their weekly hours devoted to family activities and the presence and ages of any dependent children. Women's personal elements of success were determinants of their objective or subjective measures of career success. The ability of women to

reposition their careers was measured in terms of how successful they felt they were in making their desired career changes, as well as which factors women considered to be elements of career success.

Review of the Methodology

This study surveyed women in southwestern New York and northwestern Pennsylvania who have been employed by for-profit organizations within the past ten years. Organizational leaders in eight for-profit firms, two chambers of commerce, and four educational institutions distributed the survey through an email letter with a link to a Qualtrics online survey. Participants received the email specified in Appendix B, inviting them to complete an online survey by following an embedded link. Survey responses were collected via an online questionnaire over a three-week period during August and September 2014.

In order to determine whether participants represented more than a few organizations, an optional survey question asked participants to indicate the name of their employer. This data was stored separately from the other question responses. A total of forty-seven organizations were reported as the participants' employers. This large number of organizations minimized the impact of the extraneous variables of organizational culture that could have diminished the generalizability of the study.

The survey was also structured to qualify participants for the research by confirming their gender as female and their having been employed by a for-profit firm within the past ten years. In total, 350 respondents attempted to complete the survey. However, eight individuals were male, so they were disqualified from continuing with the survey. Another sixty-three indicated that they had not worked for a for-profit firm

within the past ten years, so they too were disqualified from continuing. Another seventy-one participants dropped out of the survey before completing any questions in the study. The net number of qualified completed survey responses was 218.

Data Analysis Procedures

The survey data was first analyzed by reviewing the frequency of responses for control variables, to ensure that the distribution of respondents was not skewed. After initially reviewing the frequencies, the initial data testing process was determined to be conducting analysis of variance (ANOVA) on the variables. The ANOVAs included testing a) between the independent variables and the dependent variables, b) between the control variables and the dependent variable, and 3) between the control variables and the independent variables. If an ANOVA indicated a statistically significant relationship between variables, a post hoc test was run to determine the differences between group responses and the strength of the relationship between variables. In order to establish the significance of the hypotheses, a series of linear regression models were run on the independent variables to confirm the strength of association with the dependent variable (ability to make desired career changes). Control variables were tested in the regression series as well. A 95% confidence interval was accepted as the significance level for all analyses in the study.

Results: Sample Description

The data analysis begins with an overview of the participants' personal and employer characteristics. Table 1 Respondent Demographics provides an overview of the respondent demographics. Five sets of hypotheses were established in this study,

investigating the impact of social capital on women's career repositioning in business.

Therefore, the ensuing results are reported per testing of each hypothesis.

Table 1

Respondent Demographics

	N	Mode
Which of the following best describes your age range?	195	4=over 50
What is your highest educational level achieved?	193	4=Bachelors
Which of the following best describes your current primary work function?	191	8=Gen Admin
Which of the following best describes your current organizational level?	195	4=Non-Mgmt
Please indicate the approx number of employees in your organization.	194	3=201-500
Which of the following best describes your employer's primary industry?	194	1=Manufacturing
My current work status is	195	1=Full-time

Table 2 Major Measures provides a matrix of the major measures of the study.

The means and standard deviations are listed for each of the questions used in the analysis of hypotheses. The first statement listed in Table 2 Major Measures served as the measure of the dependent variable. The remaining questions listed were utilized as independent variables throughout the study. Note that the scales for the questions listed are indicated per question set. The test results for control variables follow the results drawn on each set of hypotheses. The final section reports the findings from the series of regression models.

Table 2a
Major Measures

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following -Over the course of my career, I have been able to make my desired changes. 1=Very True; 4=Not at All True	218	2.23	0.759
From whom do you typically seek career advice? *-My supervisor	218	2.17	0.890
From whom do you typically seek career advice? *-Coworkers	218	2.17	0.815
From whom do you typically seek career advice? *-Colleagues outside my organization	218	2.19	0.935
From whom do you typically seek career advice? *-Friends outside my organization	218	2.11	0.862
From whom do you typically seek career advice? *-Organizational leader above my supervisor	218	2.98	0.885
From whom do you typically seek career advice? *-Organizational leader outside my functional area	218	2.94	0.894
From whom do you typically seek career advice? *-Organizational leader outside my organization	218	2.88	0.933
From whom do you typically seek career advice? *-College faculty	218	3.34	0.839
From whom do you typically seek career advice? *-Family members	218	2.02	0.969
* 1=Often; 4=Never			
Which of the following best describes your professional network contacts? -Gender. 1=All Female; 5=All Male	218	3.00	0.800
Which of the following best describes your professional network contacts? -Field. 1=All Within My Field; 5=All Outside	218	2.86	0.849
My professional network contacts connect me to many more otherwise unavailable contacts. 1=Completely Agree; 5=Completely Disagree	217	2.47	1.072
Please indicate your approximate number of each type of contact: **-Critical sources of buy-in / political support	218	1.09	0.328
Please indicate your approximate number of each type of contact: **-Authority Figures	218	1.35	0.567
Please indicate your approximate number of each type of contact: **-Knowledgeable/Helpful Subordinates	218	1.46	0.615
Please indicate your approximate number of each type of contact: **-Coworkers / Colleagues	218	1.99	0.740
Please indicate your approximate number of each type of contact: **-Informal / Social	218	1.94	0.792
Please indicate your approximate number of each type of contact: **-Personal Connections WITHIN my organization	218	1.61	0.698
** 1=Fewer than 10; 3=More than 20			

Table 2b
Major Measures

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Compared to others, the size of my professional network is: 1=Much Smaller; 5=Much Larger	215	3.33	1.000
Within my organization I have at least one mentor/professional sponsor. 1=Completely Agree; 5=Completely Disagree	217	2.90	1.417
Within my organization, men and women have equivalent opportunities for career change. 1=Completely Agree; 5=Completely Disagree	218	2.84	1.321
Within my organization, my direct supervisor has been supportive of my career goals/needs. 1=Completely Agree; 5=Completely Disagree	218	1.99	1.168
The amount of time I have spent on activities to market myself has been: 1=Very Little; 7=A Great Deal	218	3.56	1.676
In a typical week, how many hours do you devote to family tasks (child/elder care, attending events...) 1= <10; 4= >40	197	2.39	0.976
How often do you use these online tools for your professional networking? ***-Email	218	2.39	1.277
How often do you use these online tools for your professional networking? ***-Text Messaging	218	3.98	1.115
How often do you use these online tools for your professional networking? ***-LinkedIn	218	4.05	1.157
How often do you use these online tools for your professional networking? ***-Facebook	218	4.35	1.077
How often do you use these online tools for your professional networking? ***-Twitter	218	4.78	0.663
How often do you use these online tools for your professional networking? ***-Instagram	218	4.89	0.481
*** 1=Very Frequently; 5=Never			

Descriptive statistics on the dependent and independent variables of the sampling provided an overview of the responses of the participants in the study. The measures of central tendency for the dependent variable - satisfaction with career repositioning - were reported as frequencies. Figure 1 illustrates the overall responses for question eleven. Question 11: Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the

following: Over the course of my career, I have been able to make my desired career changes.

Over two-thirds of respondents indicated that they agreed that they were able to make their desired career changes, with fourteen percent indicating strongly that they found this to be very true.

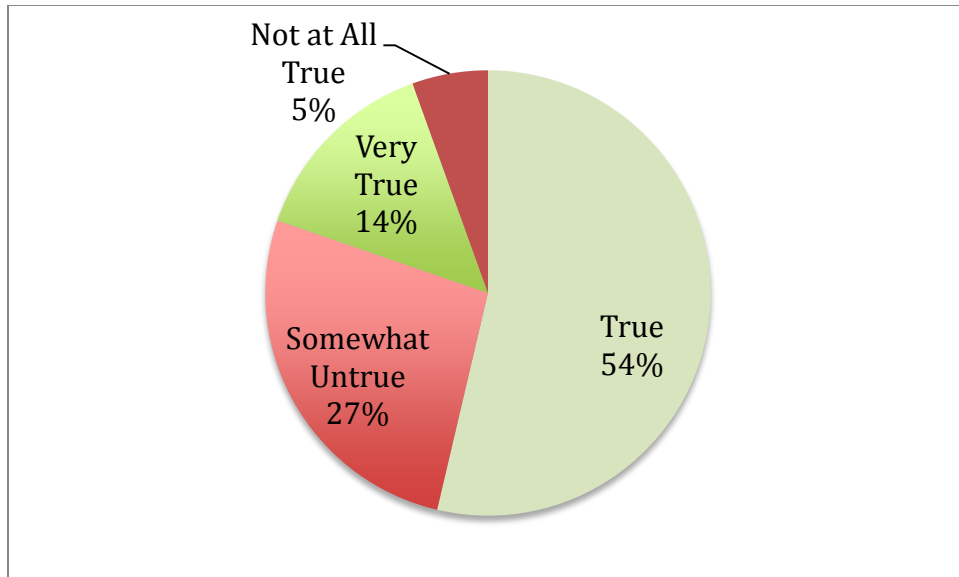


Figure 1. Ability to make desired career changes. This figure illustrates the percentage of participants indicating their agreement that they were able to make desired career changes.

An overview of the responses in regard to work-related social capital network diversity, including upward reach, is provided in Figure 2. Additionally, the measures of network gender, as provided by responses to question four, found that the mean, median, and mode for network gender was 3, on a five-point semantic differential scale of all female to all male.

Question 4: Which of the following best describes your professional network contacts:

Gender: 1=all female, 2=more females than males, 3=about the same number of females as males, 4=more males than females, 5=all makes.

Field: 1=all within my field, 2=more from within my field than other fields, 3=about the same number of within and outside my field, 4=more from other fields than within my field, 5=all work outside my field.

The measures of diversity of network contacts' fields, as provided by responses to question four, found a mean of 2.86 and median and mode of 3, on a five-point semantic differential scale of all within the respondent's field and all outside her field.

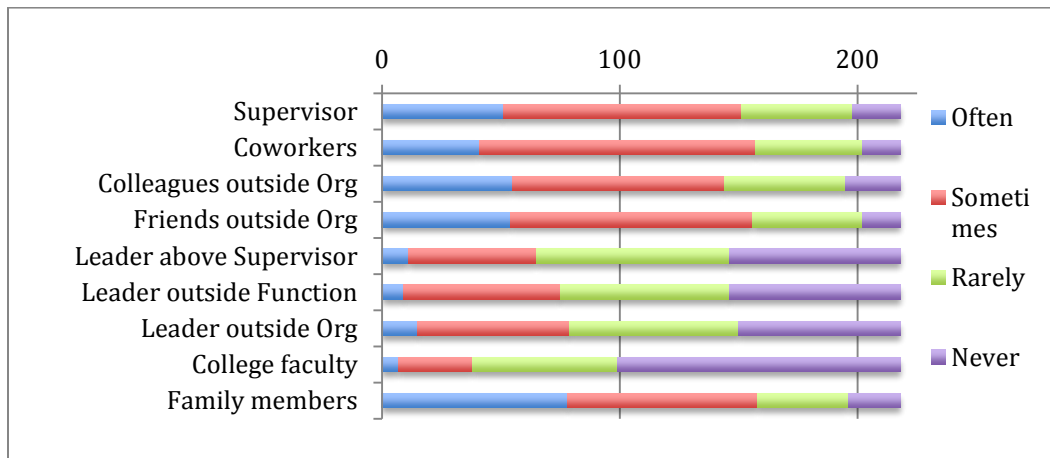


Figure 2. Diversity of work-related social capital network. This figure illustrates the frequency of participants indicating that they sought career advice from the listed contact/group (n=218).

An overview of the responses in regard to work-related social capital network size is provided in Figure 3. Additionally, the measures of network size, as provided by responses to question six, found that the mean was 3.33, the median was 3, and the mode was 4, on a five-point semantic differential scale.

Question 6: Compared to others, the size of my professional network is: 1=much larger, 2=somewhat larger, 3=about the same, 4=somewhat smaller, 5=much smaller.

Respondents indicated the number of contacts for each specific type listed. As indicated in Figure 4, the type of contact most consistently measured as fewer than ten was contacts that provide critical support. Participants with more than twenty authority figure contacts

were also reported as a small portion. Number of contacts that were colleagues, informal, or personal within the organization measured larger numbers for the participants surveyed.

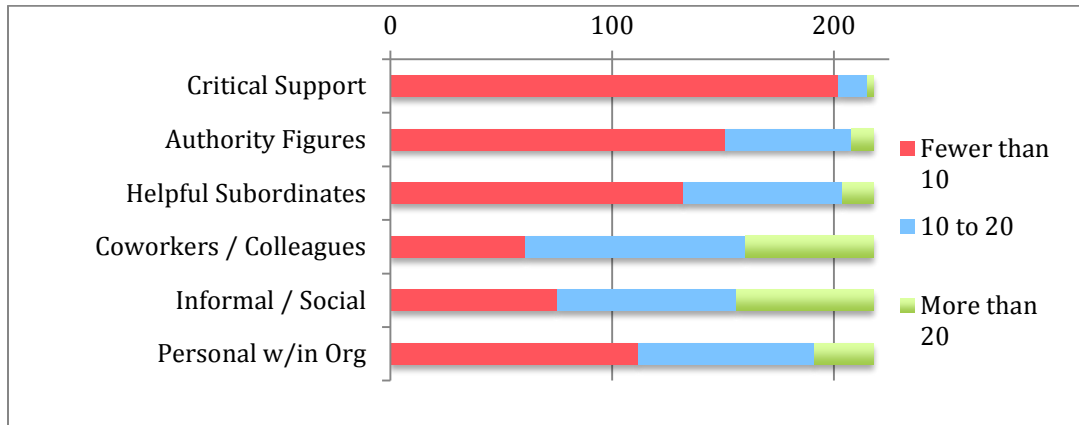


Figure 3. Size of work-related social capital network. This figure illustrates the participants' responses of their number of contacts of each type (n=218).

An overview of the responses in regard to connectivity behaviors of social capital networks is provided in Figure 4. Connectivity behaviors were measured by question ten. Question 10: How often do you use these online tools for your professional networking?

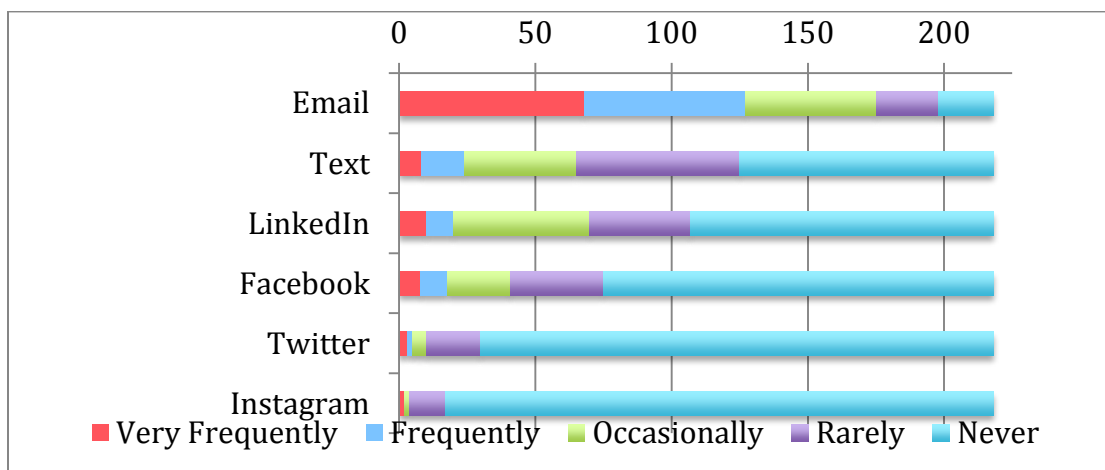


Figure 4. Connectivity of work-related social capital network. This figure illustrates participants' use of listed methods for professional networking (n=218).

Descriptive statistics on the control variables of the sampling provided an overview of the characteristics of the participants in the study. The measures of central tendency for the descriptive statistics were frequencies. In order to ensure that the sample of women included in the study represented a range of demographic and employment characteristics, frequency reports were run on the participants' age, education, organizational level, and field of work, as well as their employers' size, primary industry, and ownership. Additionally, the measures of personal brand value, as provided by responses to question nine, found that the mean=3.56, median=4, and mode=4 for personal brand, on a seven-point semantic differential scale.

Question 9: The amount of time I have spent on activities to market myself as been: 1= very little through 7= a great deal.

As indicated in Figure 5, participants were well distributed amongst the four age groups. Survey question thirty-four addressed participants' age: Which of the following best describes your age range: 1=20-30, 2=31-40, 3=41-50, 4=over 50. No one age group comprised a majority of the participants.

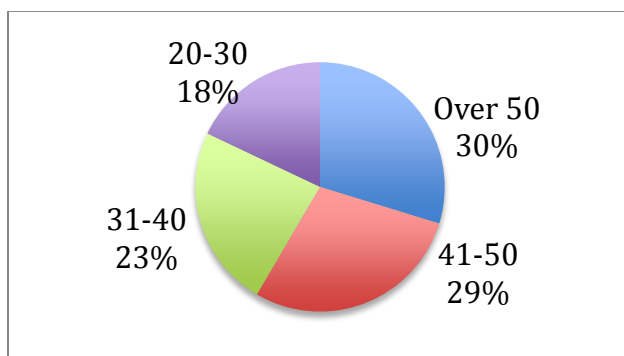


Figure 5. Age of participants. This figure illustrates the percentage of participants in each age group.

Women over fifty comprised 30% of the sample. Women forty-one to fifty accounted for 29% of the respondents. Women of the thirty-one to forty year age group

comprised 23% of the sample, while those in the twenty to thirty year age group accounted for 18% of the respondents.

The educational level of participants was mainly at the college level. As illustrated in Figure 6, over 40% of participants held a bachelor's degree. Another 34% had an associate's degree or some college experience, while just over 16% were at the master's degree level.

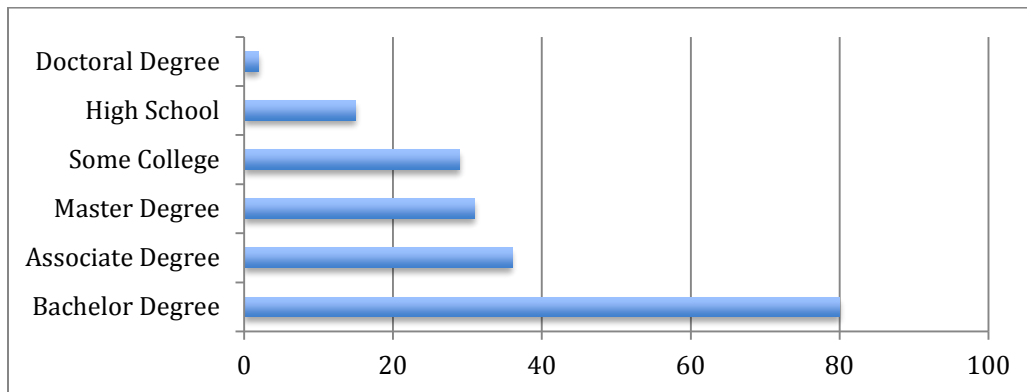


Figure 6. Participants' educational level. This figure illustrates the numbers of participants by reported educational level (n=218).

As illustrated in Figure 7, over half of the participants in this study, 57%, held non-management positions. Women in lower and middle management positions accounted for 19% and 15% of the sample, respectively. Nine percent of survey participants held senior management positions.

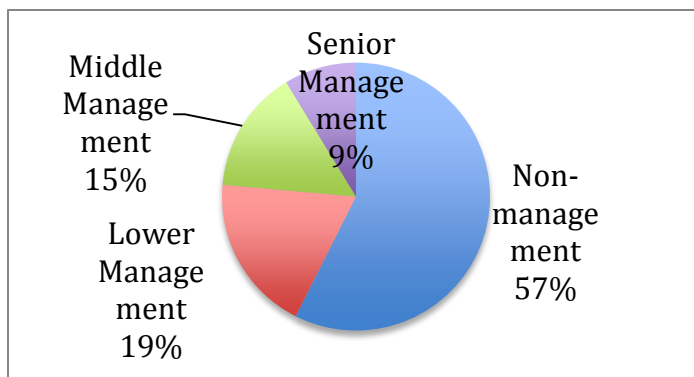


Figure 7. Participants' organizational level. This figure illustrates the percentage of participants by their current management levels.

As illustrated in Figure 8, the women in this study represented a number of fields. Question thirty-one addressed participants' fields: Which of the following best describes your current work function. The largest percentage of participants, 22%, indicated their field was general administration, followed by general management with just under 16%. Fourteen percent of participants indicated their primary field as marketing/sales, while 14% indicated accounting/finance. Manufacturing/production and communications/PR were each represented by 19% of participants, while human resources and engineering/design each accounted for 14% of participants. The smallest percentage of participants, less than 2%, indicated that legal was their primary field.

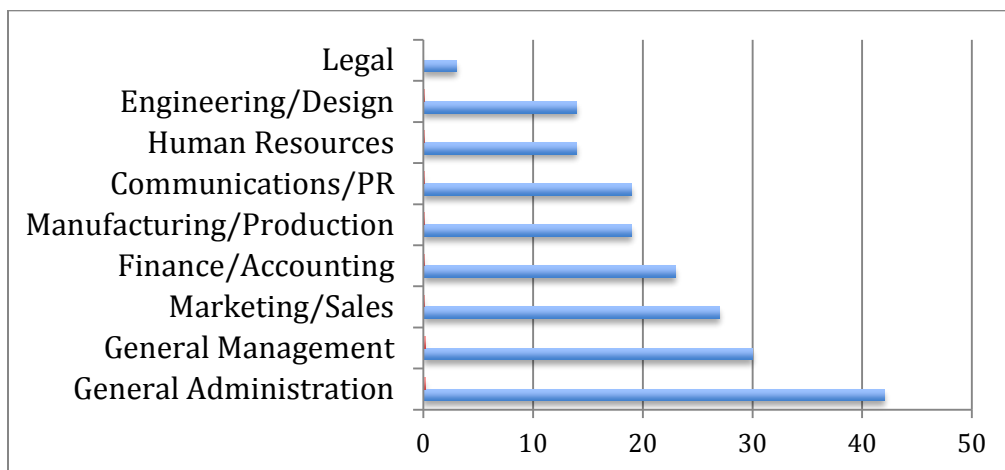


Figure 8. Participants' fields of work. This figure illustrates the numbers of participants by reported primary work function (n=218).

Survey participants also represented various sizes of organizations. As illustrated in Figure 9, 30% of participants were employed by firms with approximately 201 to 500 employees. Another 29% of participants were employed by firms with 501 to 1,999 employees. Twenty-one percent of participants were employed by the largest firms with over 2,000 employees.

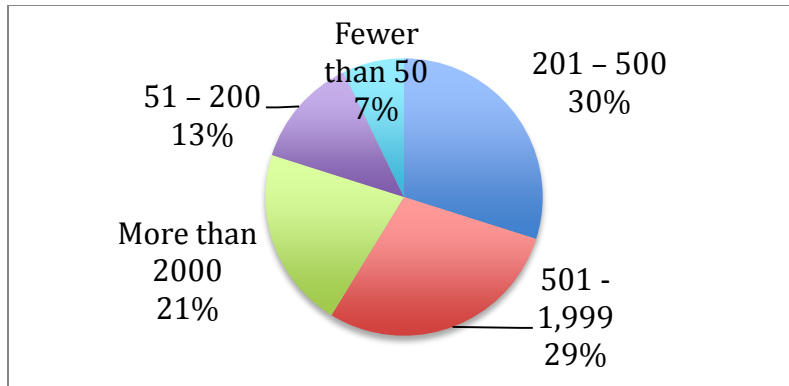


Figure 9. Employer size. This figure illustrates the percentage of participants employed by organizations of each size.

Companies in the manufacturing sector, as indicated in Figure 10, employed the majority of survey participants, 54%. The other 46% of participants represented a broad spectrum of industries, with 11% of participants employed by firms in the health care industry and 9% of respondents employed by firms in the financial services sector. Participants from retail sales and professional services industries accounted for 8% and 5%, respectively. Women employed in education, nonprofit, and government industries accounted for 12% of the sampling, with 8%, 3%, and 1%, respectively. Women from these industries were included as one criterion for participation was having been employed by a for-profit organization within the last ten years.

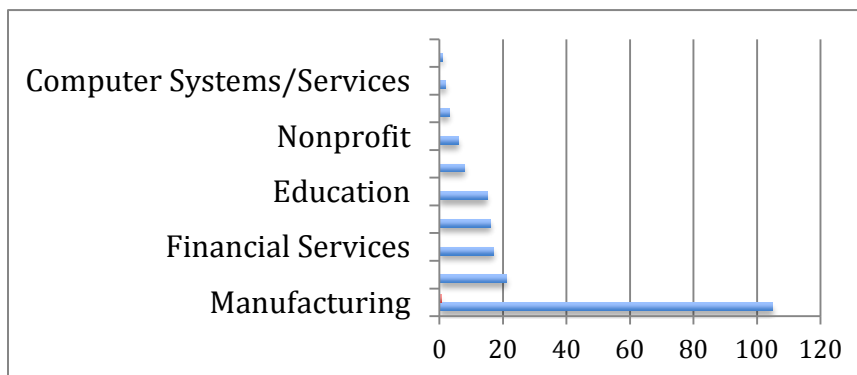


Figure 10. Employer industry. This figure illustrates the numbers of participants by employers' industries (n=218).

Survey participants indicated their family life stage according to the number of hours per week typically dedicated to family. As illustrated in Figure 11, over 80% of participants dedicated a considerable number of hours to family each week. While the hours that participants dedicated to family varied, the most often cited number of hours was the 11-25 range.

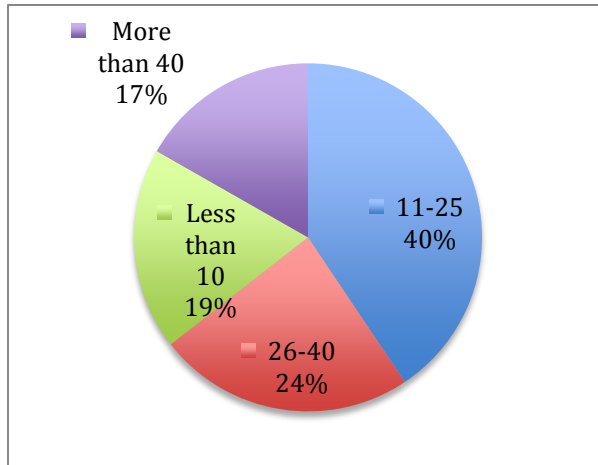


Figure 11. Hours devoted to family. This figure illustrates the distribution of participants' responses to question nineteen: In a typical week, how many hours do you devote to family tasks.

Participants' personal elements of success were recorded to gauge their orientation toward objective or subjective measures of success. As indicated in Figure 12, participants rated the degree to which they considered each an element of career success. The four most cited elements were being a well-rounded employee, achieving personal goals, attaining a proper work-life balance, and working on interesting or meaningful projects.



Figure 12. Personal elements of career success. This figure illustrates the frequency of participants indicating that they considered this as an element of career success.

The independent and dependent variables were analyzed using ANOVA since they were recorded and measured as scaled, continuous variables. For tests of the variables, statistical significance was set at 95%, an alpha level of .05 or less. Since appropriate post hoc tests depended on whether the ANOVAs indicated homogeneity of variance, the Levene's statistic was utilized to determine the homogeneity of variance for each statistically significant ANOVA value. In the instance that the ANOVA indicated homogeneity (Levene's statistic was greater than .05, rejecting the null that the variance was not homogenous) the post hoc test utilized was the Tukey HSD test. For those instances that the variance was not homogenous, both Tamhane's and Games-Howell tests were run to determine the significance of the variable relationships.

Results: Preliminary Analysis of Hypotheses

Results for Hypothesis 1a: The diversity of ties in a woman's work-related social capital network is positively related to her satisfaction with career repositioning.

The diversity of participants' social capital was measured in five questions. Question 3 asked, "From whom do you typically seek career advice?" Question 4 asked,

“Which of the following best describes your professional network contacts?” (scaled for gender and field). Question 8 asked, “To what degree do you agree or disagree; my professional network contacts connects to otherwise unavailable contacts.” Two additional questions measured diversity in participants’ opportunity to make new organizational contacts. Question 21 asked, “How many years have you been with your current company?” and Question 22 asked, “How many years have you been in your current position?” The ANOVA for these responses was run against the dependent variable measure: “Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following: Over the course of my career, I have been able to make my desired career changes” (Q11).

Analyzing the dependent variable of ability to make desired career changes, statistically significant relationships were found in the ANOVAs for question three, which asked from whom the respondents typically sought career advice, for those indicating that colleagues, friends, and leaders outside their organization, as well as leaders outside their functional area were utilized for career advice. The ANOVA showed a significant association between seeking advice from colleagues outside their organization and women’s ability to make desired career changes at the $p < .05$ level for the conditions [$F(3, 184) = 8.66, p < .05$]. The ANOVA showed a significant association between seeking advice from leaders outside their organization and women’s ability to make desired career changes at the $p < .05$ level for the conditions [$F(3, 184) = 6.63, p < .05$].

The ANOVA for women’s indication of diversity of their social capital network in the ability for their network to connect them to contacts otherwise unavailable also

suggested a positive relationship with ability to make desired career changes. The ANOVA showed a significant association between women's networks connecting them to otherwise unavailable connections and their ability to make desired career changes at the $p < .05$ level for the conditions [$F(3, 184) = 8.66, p < .05$]. Post hoc tests were then run on the statistically significant ANOVAs to find the variance amongst groups in the responses. The post hoc value was on the dependent variable questions' scale of one to four (where ability to make desired changes, 1=very true, 2=true, 3=somewhat untrue, 4=not at all true), so that a negative post hoc mean difference indicated that the respondent found her ability to make desired career changes under that condition to be more true.

As outlined in Table 3 ANOVA Post Hoc Tests, results indicated that women who often or sometimes sought advice from colleagues outside their organization rated their ability to make desired career changes as greater by $-.797$ and $-.780$, respectively, than those who never sought such advice. Post hoc tests indicated that women who often or sometimes sought advice from friends outside their organization rated their ability to make desired career changes higher than those who never did, by $-.884$ and $-.870$, respectively. Analysis indicated that women who sometimes or just rarely sought career advice from leaders outside their organization rated their ability to make desired career changes greater by $-.498$ and $-.374$, respectively, than those who never sought such advice.

Table 3

ANOVA Post Hoc Tests

				Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.
Colleagues outside org	Tamhane	Often	Never	-0.797	0.179	0.000
		Sometimes	Never	-0.78	0.195	0.002
Friends outside org	Tukey HSD	Often	Never	-0.884	0.201	0.000
		Sometimes	Never	-0.87	0.189	0.000
		Rarely	Never	-1.255	0.204	0.000

Note: The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Independent Variable: Seek career advice from colleagues or friends outside my organization

Dependent Variable: Ability to make desired career changes

The post hoc tests on the relationship between those who sought advice from leaders outside their functional area indicated no statistically significant differences amongst the groups. Therefore, the independent variable showed overall influence on the dependent (ability to make desired career change); but the differences amongst the groups in the independent variable were insignificant. Lastly, the post hoc tests for question eleven - their network connects them to otherwise unavailable contacts - indicated that respondents who completely agreed rated their ability to make desired career changes higher, by -.803, than women who completely disagreed with this statement.

The ANOVA for participants' years with her company and ability to make desired career changes found statistical significance. The ANOVA showed a significant association between women's years with their company and their ability to make desired career changes at the $p < .05$ level for the conditions [$F(4, 192) = 3.13, p < .05$]. The post hoc test indicated that women who were with their current company less than two years rated their ability to make desired career changes higher than those who were with their company six to ten years, by a measure of -.598, scale of one to four (where ability to make desired changes, 1=very true, 2=true, 3=somewhat untrue, 4=not at all true). The

ANOVA for participants' years in her current position and ability to make desired career changes found no significance. The ANOVA findings lend preliminary support to an association between the diversity of women's social capital and their ability to make desired career changes.

Results for Hypothesis 1b: The number of ties in a woman's work-related social capital network is positively related to her satisfaction with career repositioning.

The number of ties in participants' social capital was measured in questions five and six. Question 5 asked, "Please indicate your approximate number of each type of contact – critical sources of buy-in/political support, authority figures, knowledgeable/helpful subordinates, coworkers/colleagues, informal/social, personal connections within my organization." Question 6 asked, "Compared to others, the size of my professional network is 1=much larger, 2=somewhat larger, 3=about the same, 4=somewhat smaller, 5=much smaller." The ANOVA for these responses was run against the dependent variable measure: "Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following: Over the course of my career, I have been able to make my desired career changes" (Q11).

Statistically significant relationships were found in the ANOVAs for question five, in respondents' measures of their approximate number of contacts who were authority figures, helpful subordinates, and personal connections within their organization. The ANOVA showed a significant association between women's number of authority figures in their network and their ability to make desired career changes at the $p < .05$ level for the conditions [$F(2, 215) = 3.28, p < .05$]. The ANOVA showed a significant association between women's number of helpful subordinates in their network

and their ability to make desired career changes at the $p < .05$ level for the conditions [$F(2, 215) = 4.26, p < .05$]. The ANOVA showed a significant association between women's number personal connections within their organization their network and their ability to make desired career changes at the $p < .05$ level for the conditions [$F(2, 215) = 4.46, p < .05$]. Post hoc tests were then run on the statistically significant ANOVAs to find the variance amongst groups in the responses. The post hoc value was on the dependent variable questions' scale of one to four (where ability to make desired changes, 1=very true, 2=true, 3=somewhat untrue, 4=not at all true), so that a negative post hoc mean difference indicated that the respondent found her ability to make desired career changes under that condition to be more true.

Post hoc tests on the relationship between women's number of authority figures in their professional networks and their ability to make desired career changes indicated no statistically significant differences amongst the groups. Therefore, the independent variable - number of authority figures - showed overall influence on the dependent variable, ability to make desired career change. However, the differences amongst the groups in the independent variable were insignificant. As illustrated in Table 4 ANOVA Post Hoc Tests, findings showed that women with more than twenty helpful subordinates in their professional network rated their ability to make desired career changes as greater by $-.548$ than those who indicated that their network included fewer than ten helpful subordinates.

Also outlined in Table 4 ANOVA Post Hoc Tests, results indicated that women who indicated their professional network included more than twenty personal connections within their organization rated their ability to make desired career changes as greater by -

.479 than those who indicated their network included fewer than ten personal connections within their organization. These findings offer preliminary support for Hypothesis 1b that the number of ties in women's social capital networks influences their ability to make desired career change.

A review of the frequencies of participants' relative measure of the size of their professional networks indicated that only 22.8% of respondents indicated that they perceived their professional network to be somewhat or much larger than others'. About one-third (31.2%) indicated that they believed their network was about the same size as others' and just over 46% responded that they perceive their network as being somewhat or much smaller than others' professional networks. The ANOVA for women's relative measure of the size of their professional network found no statistically significant relationship with their ability to make desired career changes. The ANOVA findings on the number of ties in women's social capital networks and their ability to craft desired career change indicate preliminary support based on a number of measures.

Table 4

ANOVA Post Hoc Tests

				Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.
Helpful Subordinates	Tukey	More than 20	Fewer than	-0.356	0.21	0.027
	HSD		10			
Personal Connections within organization	Tukey	More than 20	Fewer than	-0.479	0.156	0.011
	HSD		10			

Note: The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Independent Variable: Numbers of contacts of listed type

Dependent Variable: Ability to make desired career changes

Results for Hypothesis 1c: The number of ties to persons in higher organizational ranks (e.g., sponsors, mentors) in a woman's work-related social capital network is positively related to her satisfaction with career repositioning.

The number of ties to persons in higher organizational ranks (e.g., sponsors, mentors) in participants' social capital networks was measured in three questions. Question 3 asked, "From whom do you typically seek career advice?" Question 5 asked, "Please indicate your approximate number of each type of contact – critical sources of buy-in/political support, authority figures, knowledgeable/helpful subordinates, coworkers/colleagues, informal/social, personal connections within my organization." Question 8 asked, "To what degree do you agree or disagree: within my organization I interact with leaders; men and women have equal opportunity to find a mentor; and I have at least one mentor/sponsor." The ANOVA for these responses was run against the dependent variable measure: "Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following: Over the course of my career, I have been able to make my desired career changes" (Q11).

As discussed in the results for Hypothesis 1a, statistically significant relationships were found in the ANOVAs for question three for respondents who sought career advice from leaders outside their function and from leaders outside their organization. Also mentioned in Hypothesis 1a, statistically significant results were found for the ANOVA for question five in terms of measures of women's approximate number of contacts who were authority figures.

Statistical significance was also found in the ANOVA for question eight in regard to whether men and women have an equal opportunity to find a mentor within her

organization, as well as in terms of how well her supervisor has supported her desired career goals. The ANOVA showed a significant association between women's opportunity to find a mentor in their organization and their ability to make desired career changes at the $p < .05$ level for the conditions [$F(4, 212) = 2.95, p < .05$]. The ANOVA showed a significant association between supervisors supportive of women's career goals and their ability to make desired career changes at the $p < .05$ level for the conditions [$F(4, 213) = 3.07, p < .05$]. Post hoc tests were then run on the statistically significant ANOVAs for question eight to find the variance amongst groups in the responses. The post hoc value was on the dependent variable questions' scale of one to four (where ability to make desired changes, 1=very true, 2=true, 3=somewhat untrue, 4=not at all true), so that a negative post hoc mean difference indicated that the respondent found her ability to make desired career changes under that condition to be more true.

As outlined in Table 5 ANOVA Post Hoc Tests, item five (Within my organization, men and women have equivalent opportunities for finding a mentor) indicated that respondents who agreed somewhat rated their ability to make desired career changes higher, by $-.457$ than women who completely disagreed with this statement. Also included in Table 5, the post hoc tests for question eight, item eight (Within my organization, my supervisor has been supportive of my career goals/needs) indicated that women who completely agreed rated their ability to make desired career changes higher by $-.489$ over women who neither agreed nor disagreed with that statement.

Table 5

ANOVA Post Hoc Tests

				Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.
Men/Women in org have equal opp to find mentor	Tamhane	Agree Somewhat	Completely Disagree	-0.457	0.166	0.049
Supervisor supportive of career goals/needs	Tamhane	Completely Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	-0.489	0.155	0.016

Note: The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Independent Variables: Mentor / Supervisor Support

Dependent Variable: Ability to make desired career changes

The ANOVA findings lend preliminary support to an association between the number of ties to persons in higher organizational ranks in women's social capital networks and their ability to make desired career change.

Results for Hypothesis 2: Utilizing online connectivity for developing social capital is positively related to a women's satisfaction with career repositioning.

Frequency of participants' use of traditional and online methods for developing social capital was measured in two questions. Question 7 asked, "How do you typically communicate when discussing career issues – face-to-face, phone, email, text message, LinkedIn, Facebook." Question 10 asked, "How often do you use these online tools for your professional networking - email, text messaging, LinkedIn, Facebook, Twitter, Instagram." The ANOVA for these responses was run against the dependent variable measure: "Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following: Over the course of my career, I have been able to make my desired career changes." (Q11).

For the analysis of ability to make desired career changes, a statistically significant relationship was found in only one ANOVA for all of the elements of both question seven and question ten. Statistically significant results were found in the ANOVA for question ten in regard to the frequency of use of email for professional networking. The ANOVA showed a significant association between use of email for career networking and women's ability to make desired career changes at the $p < .05$ level for the conditions [$F(4, 213) = 4.54, p < .05$]. Post hoc tests were then run to find the variance amongst groups in the responses. The post hoc value was on the dependent variable question's scale of one to four (where ability to make desired changes, 1=very true, 2=true, 3=somewhat untrue, 4=not at all true), so that a negative post hoc mean difference indicated that the respondent found her ability to make desired career changes under that condition to be more true.

The post hoc test for question ten, in regard to the use of email for professional networking, indicated that respondents who very frequently used email for professional networking rated their ability to make desired career changes higher than nearly all other groups. As indicated in Table 6 ANOVA Post Hoc Tests, frequent users of email for professional networking indicated higher ability to make desired career changes by $-.379$ than women who frequently used email, by $-.490$ than women who occasionally used email, and by $-.524$ than women who never used email for professional networking.

Table 6

ANOVA Post Hoc Tests

			Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.	
Use of Email	Tamhane	Very Frequently	Frequently	-0.379	0.131	0.045
		Very Frequently	Occasionally	-0.49	0.138	0.006
		Very Frequently	Never	-0.524	0.171	0.047

Note: The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.
 Independent Variable: Use of Email for career networking
 Dependent Variable: Ability to make desired career changes

The ANOVA findings lend preliminary support to a possible association between email connectivity behaviors for professional networking and women's ability to make desired career change.

Results for Hypothesis 3a: Women who commit more hours to family tend to have less diversity of ties in their work-related network.

Measurement of participants' hours dedicated to family was recorded in two questions. Question 19 asked, "In a typical week, how many hours do you devote to family tasks?" The scale offered as choices "less than ten; eleven to twenty-five; twenty-six to forty; and more than forty. Question 20 asked, "What percentage of household tasks are completed by you (the respondent)?" The question also asked the participant to indicate the percentage completed by her spouse, another relative, a nanny, or hired services. The ANOVA for these responses was run against the dependent variable of social capital diversity: "From whom do you typically seek career advice?" (Q3); "Which of the following best describes your professional network contacts (gender and field)" (Q4); and "To what degree do you agree or disagree: within my organization I interact

with leaders; men and women have equal opportunity to find a mentor; and I have at least one mentor/sponsor.” (Q8). No statistically significant ANOVA values were found for any of the variable relationships between responses to questions nineteen or twenty and questions three, four, or eight. Subsequent testing was not warranted as no evidence indicated that the null hypotheses should not be rejected. The data showed no statistical significance between hours dedicated to family and the diversity of the respondents' social capital networks. The ANOVA findings lend preliminary support to a lack of association between hours dedicated to family and the diversity of the respondents' social capital networks.

Results for Hypothesis 3b: Women who devote more hours to family tend to have a smaller number of total ties in their work-related network.

Measurement of participants' hours dedicated to family was recorded in two questions. Question 19 asked, “In a typical week, how many hours do you devote to family tasks?” The scale offered as choices “less than ten; eleven to twenty-five; twenty-six to forty; and more than forty. Question 20 asked, “What percentage of household tasks are completed by you (the respondent)?” The question also asked the participant to indicate the percentage completed by her spouse, another relative, a nanny, or hired services. The ANOVA for these responses was run against the dependent variable of social capital network size. Number of ties was measured by two questions. Question 5 asked, “Please indicate your approximate number of each type of contact – critical sources of buy-in/political support, authority figures, knowledgeable/helpful subordinates, coworkers/colleagues, informal/social, personal connections within my organization.” Question 6 asked, “Compared to others, the size of my professional

network is 1=much larger, 2=somewhat larger, 3=about the same, 4=somewhat smaller, 5=much smaller.” No statistically significant ANOVA values were found for any of the variable relationships between responses to questions nineteen or twenty and questions five or six. Subsequent testing was not warranted as the analysis indicated that the null hypotheses should be accepted. The data showed no statistical significance between hours dedicated to family and the number of ties in the respondents' work-related professional networks. The ANOVA findings lend preliminary support to a lack of association between hours dedicated to family and the number of ties in the respondents' social capital networks.

Results for Hypothesis 3c: Women who commit more hours to family tend to have a smaller number of ties in their work-related network to persons in higher organizational ranks (e.g., sponsors, mentors).

Measurement of participants' hours dedicated to family was recorded in two questions. Question 19 asked, “In a typical week, how many hours do you devote to family tasks?” The scale offered as choices “less than ten; eleven to twenty-five; twenty-six to forty; and more than forty. Question 20 asked, “What percentage of household tasks are completed by you (the respondent)”. The question also asked the participant to indicate the percentage completed by her spouse, another relative, a nanny, or hired services. The ANOVA for these responses was run against the dependent variable of social capital network upward reach. Number of ties in higher organizational ranks was measured by three questions. Question 3 asked, “From whom do you typically seek career advice?” Question 5 asked, “Please indicate your approximate number of each type of contact – critical sources of buy-in/political support, authority figures,

knowledgeable/helpful subordinates, coworkers/colleagues, informal/social, personal connections within my organization. "Question 8 asked, "To what degree do you agree or disagree: within my organization I interact with leaders; men and women have equal opportunity to find a mentor; and I have at least one mentor/sponsor."

No statistically significant ANOVA values were found for any of the variable relationships between responses to questions nineteen or twenty and questions three, five, or eight. Subsequent testing was not warranted as the analysis indicated that the null hypotheses should be accepted. The data showed no statistical significance between hours dedicated to family and the number of ties in the respondents' work-related networks to persons in higher organizational ranks. The ANOVA findings lend preliminary support to a lack of association between hours dedicated to family and the number of ties in the respondents' work-related networks to persons in higher organizational ranks.

Results for Hypothesis 4: The effect of time devoted to family on social capital outcomes depends on the level of a woman's online connectivity, such that higher levels of online connectivity counteract the negative effects of time devoted to family on (a) diversity of ties, (b) total number of ties, and (c) number of ties to persons in higher organizational ranks (e.g., sponsors, mentors).

The analysis for Hypotheses 3a, 3b, and 3c indicated that no statistically significant relationship exists between the hours respondents devoted to family and the diversity, number of ties, or number of ties to persons in higher organizational ranks in participants' work-related networks. However, the analyses of Hypothesis 2 suggested that more frequent use of email for professional networking may increase a woman's

ability to make desired career changes. Therefore, further examination of the variables was conducted on the covariance of frequency of use of email with the number of hours dedicated to family. A statistically significant negative covariance could indicate that, as Hypothesis 4 suggests, increased connectivity could reduce the effect of increased hours devoted to family. Additionally, testing of the interaction between use of email and hours devoted to family is included in the regression analysis section of this chapter.

Measurement of participants' hours dedicated to family was recorded in two questions. Question 19 asked, "In a typical week, how many hours do you devote to family tasks?" The scale offered as choices "less than ten; eleven to twenty-five; twenty-six to forty; and more than forty. Question 20 asked, "What percentage of household tasks are completed by you (the respondent)". The question also asked the participant to indicate the percentage completed by her spouse, another relative, a nanny, or hired services. The analysis of covariance was run utilizing the Pearson Product Moment test. Responses for questions nineteen and twenty were analyzed against responses for question ten: "How often do you use these online tools for your professional networking - email, text messaging, LinkedIn, Facebook, Twitter, Instagram."

Pearson coefficients for both questions were less than .30, indicating that a weak or non-existent relationship existed between the two variables. As outlined in Table 7 and Table 8 Pearson Product Moment Correlations, no statistically significant correlation values were found between use of email for professional networking and hours dedicated to family. The preliminary results in the analysis of covariance would suggest that the null hypothesis for Hypothesis 4 should be accepted. Further evaluation of any relationship between these variables will be conducted in the regression analysis models.

Table 7

Pearson Product Moment Correlations

		How often do you use these online tools for your professional networking? -Email	In a typical week, how many hours do you devote to family tasks
How often do you use these online tools for your professional networking? -Email	Pearson Correlation	1	-0.03
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.677
	Sum of Squares	354.073	-7.249
	Covariance	1.632	-0.037
	N	218	197
In a typical week, how many hours do you devote to family tasks	Pearson Correlation	-0.03	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.677	
	Sum of Squares	-7.249	186.68
	Covariance	-0.037	0.952
	N	197	197

Table 8

Pearson Product Moment Correlations

		How often do you use these online tools for your professional networking? -Email	Please indicate the percentage of household tasks provided -Myself
How often do you use these online tools for your professional networking? -Email	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.884
	Pearson Correlation	1	0.011
	Sum of Squares	354.073	63.959
	Covariance	1.632	0.326
	N	218	197
Please indicate the percentage of household tasks provided -Myself	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.884	
	Pearson Correlation	0.011	1
	Sum of Squares	63.959	117514.528
	Covariance	0.326	599.564
	N	197	197

Results for Hypothesis 5: Women who commit fewer hours to family tend to be more satisfied with career repositioning.

Measurement of participants' hours dedicated to family was recorded in two questions. Question 19 asked, "In a typical week, how many hours do you devote to family tasks?" The scale offered as choices "less than ten; eleven to twenty-five; twenty-six to forty; and more than forty. Question 20 asked, "What percentage of household tasks are completed by you (the respondent)?" The question also asked the participant to indicate the percentage completed by her spouse, another relative, a nanny, or hired services. The ANOVA for these responses was run against the dependent variable measure: "Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following: Over the course of my career, I have been able to make my desired career changes" (Q11).

ANOVAs were run on each set of variables, analyzing the variances between the number of hours participants dedicated to family, from both question nineteen and twenty, and their ability to make desired career changes. The ANOVAs involving question eleven, measurements of participants' ability to make desired career change, found no statistical significance for either measure of hours dedicated to family. Review of the frequencies of responses to question eleven, which measured the ability of participants to make desired career change, indicates that approximately one third (32%) of participants stated it was untrue or very untrue that they were able to make their desired career changes. Figure 1 provides a summary of the responses to question eleven. Although the majority of participants indicated positively that they were able to make desired career changes, the agreement was not unanimous.

The distribution of responses for question nineteen measuring the hours participants dedicated to family also indicated nonhomogeneous responses. As illustrated in Figure 13, participants' hours devoted to family varied. The lack of findings in the analyses of the relationships between hours spent on family and career change satisfaction could not have been due to a lack of variance in participants' ratings of these variables. No one range of hours received the majority of participant responses. The largest percentage of women, 40%, indicated that they devoted between eleven and twenty-five hours per week on family. Twenty-four percent devoted twenty-six to forty hours, while nineteen percent indicated they devoted less than ten hours per week to family in a typical week. The remaining seventeen percent of respondents indicated that they devoted more than forty hours per week to family activities.

Since previous studies have indicated that the presence of children under the age of six was tied to the percentage of women in the workforce (United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2010b), additional testing was warranted on the relationship between ages of respondents' children and the hours dedicated to family, on the ability for respondents to make desired career changes. Question twenty-five asked participants to indicate the age ranges of their children with multiple selections of the choices of a) I have no children, b) My children are all over the age of 18, c) I have at least one child age 6-18, and d) I have at least one child under the age of 6. Analysis required that a multiple-response table be created in SPSS, since respondents could have selected more than one categorical measure for age of children. The multiple response set was then analyzed in a cross tabulation with hours dedicated to family (see Table 9 Crosstab of Age of Children with Hours Spent of Family) and ability to make desired career changes

(see Table 10 Crosstab of Age of Children with Ability to Make Desired Career Changes).

Table 9

Crosstab of Age of Children with Hours Spent on Family

	No children		All over 18		Child age 6-8		Child under 6	
	Actual	Expected	Actual	Expected	Actual	Expected	Actual	Expected
Less than 10	26	13	9	11	3	13	0	4
11-25	26	27	33	23	22	27	4	8
26-40	11	16	10	13	23	16	8	5
More than 40	4	11	4	9	19	11	8	3
	67		56		67		20	
	34%		29%		34%		10%	

Note: At least one cell has an expected value of less than five. Unable to compute Chi Square.

Table 10

Crosstab of Age of Children with Ability to Make Desired Career Changes

	No children		All over 18		Child age 6-8		Child under 6	
	Actual	Expected	Actual	Expected	Actual	Expected	Actual	Expected
Very true	12	9	7	8	6	9	3	3
True	35	37	28	31	40	37	13	12
Somewhat Untrue	16	18	18	15	17	18	4	6
Not at all	4	4	3	3	4	4	0	1
	67		56		67		20	
	32%		27%		32%		10%	

Note: At least one cell has an expected value of less than five. Unable to compute Chi Square.

Expected values for each cell were calculated based on the observed percentages of children’s age ranges. Because the expected value of at least one cell was less than five, Chi Square analysis could not be performed on the crosstab data. Fewer than 10% of the survey respondents indicated that they had at least one child under the age of six.

The analysis of the relationship between hours spent on family and the motivations for making a job change were evaluated using the responses for question nineteen and question twenty-four. Only if respondents had indicated in question twenty-three that they were not currently employed by a for-profit company were they given question twenty-four. Hence, question twenty-four measured only the motivations of participants who had migrated out of for-profit fields. The ANOVA for question

nineteen and twenty-four found that the only motivation that had statistical significance was achieving work-life balance. Respondents who devoted twenty-six to forty hours on family indicated work-life balance as a motivation was more true by $-.523$ over participants who committed fewer than ten hours per week to family. The crosstabs findings lend preliminary support to a lack of association between hours dedicated to family and the ability to make desired career changes as well as a lack of association between the presence of children in the household and hours dedicated to family. Further evaluation of the variables is included in the series of regression models.

Results for tests of statistical significance of control variables: personal brand value, education, employer size, field of work, organizational level, and age.

Six control variables were included in this study in order to evaluate their significance on the constructs of social capital measures and connectivity, family life stage, and satisfaction with career repositioning. Not every control variable showed significance on the variables measured in the construct. The following results describe the findings for the control variables for which the ANOVA showed significance for a construct.

Results for personal brand value. The control variable, personal brand value, was measured by question nine: The amount of time I have spent on activities to market myself as been 1= very little through 7= a great deal.

Using ANOVA, personal brand value was evaluated against the measures of social capital diversity, number of contacts, and number of contacts in higher organizational positions. The analysis found that personal brand value had significance with the social networks of those seeking advice from colleagues outside her

organization, from friends outside her organization, and from college faculty. For each group, as the amount of time spent marketing herself increased, the frequency of seeking advice from that group increased. The analysis found that personal brand value also had statistical significance with the number of informal social contacts and the respondents' perception of the size of their professional network compared to others'. As personal branding efforts increased from very little towards a great deal, informal social contacts decreased while perception of relative network size increased. The ANOVAs indicated that personal brand value had statistical significance with the number of network contacts in higher ranks, in terms of organizational leaders above respondents' supervisors, outside their function, and outside their organization. As the amount of time spent marketing herself increased, the respondent's frequency of seeking advice from those leadership contacts increased by as much as 1.281, more than one point on the 1-4 (often, sometimes, rarely, never) scale.

Using ANOVAs, personal brand value was evaluated against the measures of social capital connectivity, in terms of participants' frequency of utilization of online tools for professional networking. The amount of time respondents spent on marketing themselves had statistical significance with their use of text messaging, LinkedIn, and Facebook as typical networking tools, as well as their frequency in utilizing text messaging, LinkedIn, Facebook, and Twitter as a channel for professional networking. Those who spent more time marketing themselves (scored at least four on the seven-point scale) were more likely to use text, LinkedIn, and Facebook. They also indicated more frequent use of texting, LinkedIn, Facebook, and Twitter for career networking by -.376 to -.981 on the 1-4 (often, sometimes, rarely, never) scale. In the ANOVAs personal

brand value measures showed no statistical significance with the measures of family life stage or satisfaction with career repositioning.

Results for education. The control variable, education, was measured by question thirty-three: What is your highest level of education achieved, 1=high school, 2=some college, 3=associate's degree, 4=bachelor's degree, 5=master's degree, and 6=doctoral degree.

Using ANOVAs, education was evaluated against the measures of social capital diversity, number of contacts, and number of contacts in higher organizational positions. The analysis found that education had statistical significance with the diversity of professional network contacts in the frequency of respondents utilizing colleagues outside their organization and college faculty for career advice. The analysis also showed significance for education with the gender of respondents' professional network contacts. The post hoc tests indicated that respondents with master's degrees more frequently sought the career advice of colleagues outside their organization, by $-.862$, over those with high-school level educations. The post hoc tests found that those with doctorate degrees accessed college faculty for advice more frequently than those of all other educational levels. In measures of network gender, the ANOVAs found that respondents with bachelor's degrees had more male professional network contacts, by $.453$ on a five-point semantic differential scale, over those with associate's degrees.

The analysis found statistical significance for education with respondents' number of professional network contacts in terms of number of critical sources of buy-in and the number of informal or social contacts. Respondents with bachelor's or master's degrees had greater numbers of contacts who were critical sources of buy-in compared to those

with associate's degrees. Respondents with high school educations had fewer personal contacts within their organization compared to all other educational levels except the doctorate. Post hoc tests indicated differences of $-.487$ for some college, $-.422$ for associate's degrees, $-.479$ for bachelor's degrees, and $-.779$ for master's degrees over high school educations on the scale where 1=fewer than 10, 2=10-20, and 3=more than 20 contacts in that category.

The analysis found statistical significance for education with social capital connectivity only with respondents' frequency of use of LinkedIn. Post hoc tests indicated that respondents with master's degrees used LinkedIn more frequently than those with associate's degrees or high school educations, by $-.813$ and -1.052 respectively, on the 1-4 (often, sometimes, rarely, never) scale. The ANOVAs for education indicated no significance with the measures of family life stage or satisfaction with career repositioning.

Results for employer size. The control variable, employer size, was measured by question twenty-eight: Please indicate the approximate number of employees in your organization: 1=fewer than 50, 2=51-200, 3=201-500, 4=501-1,999, and 5=more than 2,000.

Using ANOVA, employer size was evaluated against the measures of social capital diversity, number of contacts, number of contacts in higher organizational positions, and connectivity. The only measure showing statistical significance was the measure of network gender. Respondents in firms with more than 2,000 employees indicated that their professional networks contained more males by a measure of $.590$ on a five-point semantic differential scale. No statistical significance was found with any of

the social capital measures of size or connectivity. Similarly, the ANOVAs for employer size indicated no statistical significance with the measures of family life stage or satisfaction with career repositioning.

Results for field of work. The control variable, field of work, was measured by question thirty-one: Which of the following best describes your current work function.

Using ANOVA, field of work was evaluated against the measures of social capital diversity, number of contacts, number of contacts in higher organizational positions, and connectivity. The ANOVA analyzing diversity showed statistical significance in the measure of network gender. Respondents in the accounting/finance field indicated that their networks were more female than those working in manufacturing/production by a measure of -.883 on a five-point scale. The ANOVA analyzing connectivity showed statistical significance in the measure of frequency of use of Facebook. Respondents working in communications/public relations used Facebook for career networking more than those in engineering by a measure of -1.346 on the 1-4 (often, sometimes, rarely, never) scale. The ANOVAs for field of work indicated no statistical significance with the measures of family life stage or ability to make desired career changes. The analysis of field of work and measures of perceived career success indicated a statistically significant difference between groups. However, the ANOVA post hoc tests found no statistical significance. The control variable for field of work had overall influence on respondents' career success values, but not with distinguishable variance between groups of functions.

Results for organizational level. The control variable, organizational level, was measured by question thirty: Which of the following best describes your current

organizational level, 1=senior management, 2=middle management, 3=lower management, and 4=non-management.

Using ANOVA, organizational level was evaluated against the measures of social capital diversity, number of contacts, number of contacts in higher organizational positions, and connectivity. The ANOVAs on diversity measures indicated that those in senior and middle-management positions had greater diversity of contacts than those in non-management positions. Senior managers were more likely to seek career advice from colleagues and leaders outside their organizations, as well as leaders outside their functional area. The indications for accessing leaders also showed statistical significance for the measures of contacts in higher organizational ranks. Senior managers more frequently sought the advice of colleagues and leaders outside their organizations by -.651 and -.606, respectively, over non-managers. This measure was on a 1-4 (often, sometimes, rarely, never) scale. Middle-managers sought the advice of leaders outside their functional area more often than non-managers by -.461 on the 1-4 (often, sometimes, rarely, never) scale.

The ANOVAs evaluating connectivity of social capital found statistical significance in the measures of frequency of use of text messaging and Twitter. The post hoc test did not find statistically significant variance amongst the groups for use of either text messaging or Twitter. The ANOVAs indicated no statistical significance in the tests of organizational level on family life stage. The ANOVAs for organizational level with ability to make desired career changes indicated that those in senior management rated their ability to make desired career changes to a greater degree than those in lower management and non-management, by measures of -.731 and -.674 respectively. These

differences were on a scale of 1-4, where respondents' agreement that they were able to make desired career changes was 1=very true, 2=somewhat true, 3=untrue, and 4=not at all true. The ANOVAs for organizational level with measures of perceived career success indicated that those in senior management rated more highly as elements of career success crafting unique value for the firm, working on interesting/meaningful projects, and accomplishing organizational goals. Senior managers rated these elements higher on a 1-4 scale, where 1=very true, 2=somewhat true, 3=somewhat untrue, and 4=very untrue, by -.351 to -.518, over those in lower-management and non-management positions.

Results for age. The control variable, age, was measured by question thirty-four: Which of the following best describes your age range.

Using ANOVA, age was evaluated against the measures of social capital diversity, number of contacts, number of contacts in higher organizational positions, and connectivity. The ANOVAs evaluating diversity indicated differences amongst the age groups in their frequency of seeking advice from family, college faculty, and coworkers. Post hoc tests found that respondents in the 20-30 year-old age group more frequently sought the advice of family than those in the 31-40, 41-50, or over 50 age groups, by -.679, -.871, and -.795 respectively. Post hoc tests found that respondents in the 20-30 year-old age group more frequently sought the advice of college faculty than those in the 31-40 or over 50 age groups, by -.549 and -.718 respectively. The post hoc tests indicated no statistically significant differences amongst age groups on frequency of accessing coworkers. The ANOVAs for age indicated no statistical significance with the

measures of number of ties in a woman's work-related social capital network or measures of number of ties to those in higher organizational ranks.

Analysis of variance in connectivity by age groups found statistical significance in the methods typically used for professional networking. Face-to-face, email, text messaging, and Facebook use varied amongst the age groups. Post hoc tests revealed that respondents in the youngest (20-30 year-old) age group were more likely to utilize each of the four listed methods than respondents in older age groups. Those in the 30-40 year-old group were also more likely to use face-to-face as a typical networking method than those in the 41-50 year-old age group. The question used a four-point scale, where respondents indicated the tool was used typically 1=often, 2=sometimes, 3=rarely, and 4=never. The 20-30 year-old age group was -.504 more typically using email than those in the 41-50 year-old age group. The 20-30 year-old age group was more typically using text messaging than those in the 41-50 year-old and over-50 age groups by -.500 and -.786 respectively. The 20-30 year-old age group was -.491 more typically using Facebook than those in the over-50 year-old age group.

The ANOVAs evaluating age found statistical significance in the measures of family life stage. Post hoc tests indicated that those in the 31-40 year-old age group rated their hours spent on family tasks higher than those in the 20-30 year-old age group by .783 on the scale of 1-4, where 1=less than 10, 2=11-25, 3=26-40, and 4=more than 40 hours spent on family. The post hoc tests also indicated that those in the 31-40 year-old age group rated their hours spent on family tasks higher than those in the over-50 year-old age group by .576. The ANOVAs for age indicated no statistical significance with the measures of career repositioning.

Results: Multiple Regression Analysis

A series of regression models were designed to analyze the statistical significance and evaluate the strength of independent variables found in the ANOVAs to have a relationship with the dependent variable, ability to make desired career changes. The following models were evaluated:

Model 1) Control variables were entered as independent variables, while question 11 on the ability to make desired career changes was entered as the dependent variable.

Model 2) Several variations were run to test the strength of the relationship with ability to make desired career changes for H1a (diversity of ties), H1b (size of network), H1c (upward reach), H2 (connectivity) and H5 (hours devoted to family) along with the control variables.

Model 3) Control variables were entered as independent variables, while measures of social capital diversity were entered as the dependent variable.

Model 4) The measures of hours dedicated to family were added along with the control variables as independent variables. A calculated interaction variable was also included to test the significance of the association between hours dedicated to family and each of the measures of connectivity. The dependent variable was entered as measures of social capital diversity.

Model 5) Control variables were entered as independent variables, while measures of social capital network size were entered as the dependent variable.

Model 6) The measures of hours dedicated to family were added along with the control variables as independent variables. A calculated interaction variable was also included to test the significance of the association between hours dedicated to family and each of the

measures of connectivity. The dependent variable was entered as measures of social capital network size.

Model 7) Control variables were entered as independent variables, while measures of social capital upward reach were entered as the dependent variable.

Model 8) The measures of hours dedicated to family were added along with the control variables as independent variables. A calculated interaction variable was also included to test the significance of the association between hours dedicated to family and each of the measures of connectivity. The dependent variable was entered as measures of social capital upward reach.

Results for Regression Model 1

The regression analysis for Model 1 indicated that only organizational level had a relationship with women's ability to make their desired career changes. As indicated in Table 11 Summary of Regression Analyses: Dependent Variable = Ability to Make Desired Career Changes, with an R² at .049, a very weak positive relationship was indicated between a woman's organizational level and her ability to make desired career changes. As organizational level ascended, ability to make desired career changes increased.

Results for Regression Model 2

The regression analysis for Model 2 indicated that, even in the presence of the control variables, social capital diversity and upward reach influenced women's ability to make desired career changes. As outlined in Table 12 Summary of Regression Analyses: Dependent Variable = Ability to Make Desired Career Changes, women who more

frequently sought career advice from colleagues outside their organization indicated increased ability to make desired career changes.

A weak positive relationship was identified between the diversity measure of seeking career advice from colleagues outside a woman's organization and her ability to make desired career changes. For the measures of social capital upward reach, having at least one mentor in their organization, perceiving that women and men have equal opportunity to find a mentor in their organization, and supervisor support of career goals all showed a positive relationship, although weak, with ability to make desired career changes.

One connectivity behavior – use of email – showed significance with ability to make desired career changes. Use of email for career-related networking was shown to have a weak positive relationship with ability to make desired career changes. The results are outlined in Table 12 Summary of Regression Analyses: Dependent Variable = Ability to Make Desired Career Changes. The regression found no significant relationships between measures of social capital network size and ability to make desired career changes. The regression found no significant relationships between hours devoted to family and ability to make desired career changes.

Table 11
Summary of Regression Analyses: Dependent Variable = Ability to Make Desired Career Changes

Independent Variable	Model 1		
	Standardized Beta	Standard Error	p value
Control Variables			
Organization Level	0.207	0.057	0.007*
Personal Brand Value	-0.059	0.034	0.427
Education Level	-0.066	0.049	0.397
Age	0.113	0.053	0.136
Work Function	-0.073	0.021	0.324
Employer Size	-0.059	0.049	0.443
Intercept	2.027		
R2	0.049		
N	218		

Notes: Dependent Variable is Ability to Make Desired Career Changes; *p<.05.

Results for Regression Model 3

The regression analysis for Model 3 indicated that the control variables of organizational level, personal brand value, and employer size had a relationship with the diversity of ties in women's social capital networks, as measured by their network connecting them to otherwise unavailable contacts. As outlined in Table 13 Summary of Regression Analyses: Dependent Variable = Social Capital Outcomes, as personal brand value, measured by the amount of time the women spent marketing themselves, increased, the perceived usefulness of their network connections decreased. Similar to the results for Model 1, as organizational level ascended, the diversity of women's professional networks increased. This regression model identified that as organizational size increased, the diversity of women's professional networks decreased.

Results for Regression Model 4

The regression analysis for Model 4 indicated that family life stage, as measured by the number of hours devoted to family, had no relationship with the measures of social capital diversity. Email based connectivity was also tested as it was the only method shown in the ANOVAs to have any preliminary significance. The regression model showed no significant relationship for email or the interaction variable (hours to family times email connectivity) with diversity of social capital. For Model 4, the adjusted r-square value was .116. See Table 13 Summary of Regression Analyses: Dependent Variable = Social Capital Outcomes.

Results for Regression Model 5

The regression analysis for Model 5 indicated that the control variable of personal brand value had a relationship with the size of women's social capital networks, as measured by the size of their network relative to others'. As outlined in Table 13 Summary of Regression Analyses: Dependent Variable = Social Capital Outcomes, the relationship between personal brand value and perceived size of network had a positive Beta. This variable relationship indicates that women who spent more time marketing themselves perceived the size of their network as larger compared to others.

Results for Regression Model 6

The regression analysis for Model 6 indicated that family life stage, as measured by the number of hours devoted to family, had no relationship with the measures of social capital network size. Email based connectivity was also tested as it was the only method shown in the ANOVAs to have any preliminary significance. The regression model

showed no significant relationship for email or the interaction variable (hours to family times email connectivity) with social capital network size. For Model 6, the adjusted r-square value was .132. See Table 13 Summary of Regression Analyses: Dependent Variable = Social Capital Outcomes.

Results for Regression Model 7

As outlined in Table 13 Summary of Regression Analyses: Dependent Variable = Social Capital Outcomes, the regression analysis for Model 7 was tested using two different measures of social capital upward reach. Model 7-1 used having at least one mentor as the dependent variable, while Model 7-2 used having a supportive supervisor as the dependent variable. Model 7-1 indicated that the control variables of organizational level, personal brand value, and educational level had a relationship with having at least one mentor within her organization. The use of email for professional networking also showed a significant relationship with having at least one mentor in her organization. Model 7-2 indicated that the control variables of educational level and age had a relationship with upward reach of social capital within her organization. Although the significance of each of these control variables with having at least one mentor fell within the acceptable range ($p < .05$), the extremely small Betas negated the relationship as significant. See Table 13 Summary of Regression Analyses: Dependent Variable = Social Capital Outcomes.

Table 12
Summary of Regression Analyses: Dependent Variable = Ability to Make Desired Career Changes

	Model 2 - Diversity			Model 2 - Size			Model 2 - Up-Reach			Model 2 - Up-Reach			Model 2 - Up-Reach			Model 2-Connectivity			Model 2-Hrs on Family			
	B	SE	p	B	SE	p	B	SE	p	B	SE	p	B	SE	p	B	SE	p	B	SE	p	
Control Variables																						
Organization Level	0.175	0.056	.021*	0.212	0.058	0.007*	0.057	0.160	0.039*	0.056	0.202	0.006*	0.056	0.181	0.012*	0.056	0.18	0.018*	0.057	0.21	0.006*	
Personal Brand Value	-0.009	0.034	0.902	-0.042	0.035	0.579	-0.025	0.034	0.739	0.034	-0.053	0.485	0.034	-0.030	0.682	0.034	-0.031	0.676	0.034	-0.053	0.047*	
Education Level	-0.044	0.048	0.567	-0.054	0.050	0.490	0.05	-0.109	0.169	0.049	-0.083	0.281	0.050	-0.114	0.145	0.049	-0.051	0.507	0.049	-0.067	0.386	
Age	0.100	0.052	0.178	0.119	0.053	0.112	0.052	0.101	0.181	0.054	0.078	0.311	0.053	0.074	0.329	0.052	0.094	0.211	0.052	0.114	0.134	
Work Function	-0.052	0.021	0.470	-0.076	0.022	0.308	0.021	-0.096	0.195	0.021	-0.08	0.274	0.021	-0.064	0.378	0.021	-0.066	0.365	0.021	-0.082	0.268	
Employer Size	-0.078	0.048	0.304	-0.052	0.050	0.506	0.049	-0.064	0.400	0.049	-0.064	0.397	0.049	-0.038	0.639	0.048	-0.07	0.359	0.049	-0.06	0.438	
Independent Variables																						
Advice from Colleagues Outside Organization	0.229	0.058	0.002*																			
Relative Size of Network				0.057	0.038	0.445																
At least 1 Mentor							0.191	0.040	0.012*				0.181	0.041	0.014*							
Equal Opp for Mentor																						
Supervisor Support of Career Goals																						
Use of Email for Networking																						
Hours Devoted to Family																						
Family Intercept	1.866	0.093		1.789	0.050		1.948	0.078		1.866	0.077		1.87	0.085		1.784	0.080		-0.107	0.056	0.135	
R2																						
N	218			218			218			218			218			218			218			

Notes: Dependent Variable is Ability to Make Desired Career Changes; *p<.05; B=Standardized Beta.

Table 13
Summary of Regression Analyses: Dependent Variable = Social Capital Outcomes

	Model 3			Model 4			Model 5			Model 6			Model 7-1			Model 8-1			Model 7-2			Model 8-2		
	B	SE	p	B	SE	p	B	SE	p	B	SE	p	B	SE	p	B	SE	p	B	SE	p	B	SE	p
Control Variables																								
- Organization Level	0.075	0.167	0.027*	0.075	0.139	0.062	0.074	0.109	0.158	0.072	0.064	0.392	0.104	0.237	0.002*	0.102	0.211	0.004*	0.087	0.075	0.322	0.088	0.054	0.479
- Personal Brand Value	0.045	-0.226	0.002*	0.045	-0.200	0.006	0.045	-0.200	0.008*	0.044	-0.164	0.024*	0.062	-0.174	0.017*	0.062	-0.132	0.065	0.052	-0.138	0.061	0.053	-0.114	0.124
- Education Level	0.066	-0.050	0.515	0.065	-0.039	0.607	0.065	-0.081	0.306	0.062	-0.059	0.453	0.090	0.225	0.004*	0.089	0.243	0.001*	0.076	0.233	0.003*	0.076	0.244	0.002*
- Age	0.070	0.010	0.888	0.069	-0.010	0.897	0.069	0.028	0.717	0.066	0.006	0.937	0.097	0.105	0.156	0.095	0.074	0.308	0.081	0.189	0.013*	0.081	0.174	0.022*
- Work Function	0.028	0.052	0.471	0.028	0.065	0.368	0.028	0.036	0.634	0.027	0.037	0.606	0.039	0.141	0.053	0.038	0.145	0.042*	0.033	-0.043	0.559	0.033	-0.039	0.591
- Employer Size	0.065	0.173	0.023*	0.065	0.163	0.030	0.065	-0.074	0.340	0.062	-0.095	0.201	0.090	-0.006	0.937	0.089	-0.028	0.704	0.076	-0.102	0.183	0.076	-0.110	0.152
Independent Variables																								
- Connectivity: Email				0.162	-0.052	0.733				0.153	-0.183	0.228				0.199	0.505	0.005*			0.186	-0.063	0.684	
- Hours Devoted to Family				0.149	0.132	0.475				0.139	0.102	0.567				0.218	0.231	0.121			0.170	0.124	0.506	
- Hours Devoted X Connectivity Email	2.344			0.062	0.105	0.636				0.058	0.266	0.218				0.081	-0.392	0.072			0.069	0.050	0.825	
Intercept	0.080			0.116			0.051			3.711			0.646			-0.581			1.161			1.017		
R2	0.080			0.116			0.051			0.097			0.097			0.140			0.059			0.071		
N	218			218			218			218			218			218			218			218		

Notes: *p < .05; B = Standardized Beta.

Results for Regression Model 8

The regression analysis for Model 8 was tested using two different measures of social capital upward reach. Model 8-1 used having at least one mentor as the dependent variable, while Model 8-2 used having a supportive supervisor as the dependent variable. The regression analysis for Model 8-1 and 8-2 indicated that family life stage, as measured by the number of hours devoted to family, had no relationship with the measures of social capital upward reach. As well, the regression model showed no significant relationship for the interaction variable (hours to family times email connectivity) with social capital upward reach. Email based connectivity was also tested as it was the only method shown in the ANOVAs to have any preliminary significance. Email connectivity was shown to have a positive relationship with upward reach as measured by having a supervisor supportive of the woman's career goals. For Model 8-1 and 8-2, the adjusted r-square values were .140 and .071, respectively. See Table 13 Summary of Regression Analyses: Dependent Variable = Social Capital Outcomes.

The regression results reaffirm the findings of the ANOVA for measures of social capital diversity and upward reach. The regression analysis did not find significance influence of network size on ability to make desired career changes. Based on the regression analysis, the null hypothesis for Hypothesis 1a, that there is no relationship between diversity of social capital and ability to make desired career change, should be rejected. The null hypothesis for Hypothesis 1c, that there is no relationship between upward reach of social capital and ability to make desired career change, should also be rejected. However, the null hypothesis for H1b, that there is no relationship between social capital network size and ability to make desired career change, should fail to be

rejected. The regression analysis also affirmed the ANOVA findings for connectivity of social capital behaviors and family life stage. Based on the regression analysis, the null hypotheses for H2 and H3a, H3b, and H3c should be accepted.

Post Hoc Analysis of the Data

The independent variables that showed statistical significance in Model 2 were entered to evaluate the relationship with the dependent variable of ability to make desired career changes. An additional model, Model 9, was run to test the strength of significant independent variable relationships without the interaction of the non-significant variables.

Results for regression Model 9. The independent variables that showed statistical significance in Model 2 – seeking advice from colleagues outside their organization, having at least one mentor, having equal opportunity to find a mentor, supervisor support of career goals, and use of email - were entered to evaluate the relationship with the dependent variable of ability to make desired career changes. This model was run to test the strength of significant independent variable relationships without the interaction of the non-significant variables. The results of the regression Model 9 are outlined in Table 14 Summary of Regression Analyses: Dependent Variable = Ability to Make Desired Career Changes.

The results of Model 9 indicated that not all of the independent variables had statistical significance with ability to make desired career changes. A second iteration of Model 9 was run to analyze the strength of the relationships between the significant independent variables and the ability to make desired career changes. Under this trimmed regression model, the only independent variables entered were those that had shown significance in the first iteration of Model 9 – perception that men and women had

equal opportunity to find a mentor and seeking career advice from colleagues outside their organization. In this version of Model 9, also outlined in Table 14 Summary of Regression Analyses: Dependent Variable = Ability to Make Desired Career Changes, both remaining variables again showed a significant relationship with ability to make desired career changes.

Table 14
Summary of Regression Analyses: Dependent Variable = Ability to Make Desired Career Changes

	Model 9-1			Model 9-2		
	B	SE	<i>p</i>	B	SE	<i>p</i>
Independent Variables						
Advice from Colleagues Outside Organization						
At least 1 Mentor	0.053	0.272	0.000*	0.304	0.052	0.000
Connectivity: Email	0.040	0.122	0.834			
Equal Opp for Mentor	0.040	0.122	0.070			
Supervisor Support of Career Goals	0.041	0.158	0.029*	0.224	0.036	0.001
Intercept		1.163			1.328	
R2		0.147			0.133	
N		218			218	

Notes: Dependent Variable is Ability to Make Desired Career Changes; **p*<.05; B=Standardized Beta.

Results for regression including personal elements of success. In order to assess the potential impact of women's tendencies to value objective or subjective career satisfaction measures, regression models were run using personal elements of success as independent variables. The objective and subjective personal elements of success were evaluated as predictors of the dependent variable, ability to make desired career changes. As outlined in Table 15 Summary of Regression Analysis for Personal Elements of Success, two objective measures of personal success elements – salary and achieving

organizational goals – were shown to have significance on ability to make desired career changes.

Considering salary as an element of success had an inverse relationship with ability to make desired career changes, while achieving organizational goals had a positive relationship with ability to make desired career changes. One subjective measure of personal success elements – working on meaningful/interesting projects – was found to have a significant relationship with ability to make desired career changes. As outlined in Table 15 Summary of Regression Analysis for Personal Elements of Success, considering work on meaningful/interesting projects was positively associated with ability to make desired career changes. The results of the series of regression models confirm several measures of the study. The regression suggested that the control variables did not significantly influence women's ability to make desired career changes.

Table 15
Summary of Regression Analysis for Personal Elements of Success

	Intercept	Beta	R2
Objective Measures	1.956		0.062
Salary		0.298	
Achieving Org Goals		-0.277	
Subjective Measures	1.811		
Meaningful Projects		0.33	0.046

Note: $p < .05$.

Summary

The results of the ANOVA and regression model analyses indicate strong evidence for the influence of the diversity and ties to higher organizational ranks in a woman's work-related social capital network on her satisfaction with career repositioning. The results found no statistically significant relationships between hours dedicated to family and any of the social capital measures or behaviors. The results also found no statistically significant relationships between hours dedicated to family and ability to make desired career changes. The lack of association was suggested by the ANOVAs and the regression analysis alike.

Although initial results in the ANOVAs indicated that size of career-related social capital networks was related to women's ability to make desired career changes, the regression analysis was unable to confirm any such relationship. Diversity of ties and connections to those in higher organizational ranks were confirmed in the regression analysis as influencing factors. Limited results could be drawn on the relationship between respondents' hours dedicated to family and their life stage in motherhood. Fewer than ten percent of respondents indicated that they had children under age six, which restricted the analysis that could be conducted on the data.

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This study critically analyzed the impact of social capital on women's career repositioning in business, as women fit their work situations to their larger life contexts. This study has provided additional insight into the findings in previous studies of social capital, yet also challenged the theories set forth by other studies in regard to gender-based career differentials. The results of this study indicated that many of the organizational and cultural opportunities related to women's social capital influence their abilities to reposition their careers across various levels of business and industries. Also, female participants in this study working in business had limited utilization of the new opportunities of the digital society for development of their social capital. In regard to the impact of family life stage, the findings in this study suggest that women have not allowed their devotion to family to impact either their social capital development or their planned career repositioning. A number of specific recommendations follow for women interested in managing their career changes over the course of their evolving lives, as well as for firms seeking to attract and retain female employees throughout their organization.

Summary of the Study

The purpose of this research study was to investigate the impact of social capital for women in business on their ability to reposition their careers over the course of their lives. The study measured social capital in terms of the diversity, size, and upward reach of women's professional networks, as well as in terms of behavior by use of connectivity via online social networking tools. Women's family life stages, as measured by their

hours devoted to family activities, was also evaluated for its potential impact on career repositioning and social capital measures. The ability of women to reposition their careers was measured in terms of participants' perceived ability to make their desired career changes.

The research question of this study was: To what degree does social capital impact women's ability to reposition their careers in business? The research was developed around three constructs: 1) social capital, in terms of diversity, number of contacts, number of contacts in higher organizational ranks, and connectivity behaviors; 2) objective and subjective measures of career success, where objective measures included elements such as salary and rank, and subjective measures included elements such as worked deemed challenging or intrinsically rewarding; and 3) family life stage, in terms of the number of hours women commit to family as well as the presence of children in the women's families.

A quantitative online survey methodology was established for this study to encourage participation by a large number of professional women in a range of organizational levels and work functions in business of varying sizes. The hypotheses suggested that improvements in a woman's social capital network would have a positive impact on her ability to reposition her career as her larger life context evolves. Four elements were investigated to evaluate women's social capital: diversity, size, reach, and connectivity. A quantitative design was developed for this study in order to expand upon the existing knowledge base of women's careers, as most previous studies focused on a select few highly successful women in a qualitative manner.

The population for the study, women working in for-profit businesses and business-related fields in northwestern Pennsylvania and southwestern New York State, was reached through an email invitation to an online Qualtrics survey. The geographic boundary for the population controlled for economic factors in the employment market for the study. Participants were employed by companies in a range of industries, including oil and gas production, financial services, manufacturing, and professional services. These women held positions in different functions and organizational levels. Over two hundred participants from nearly fifty different organizations of varying sizes across several industries were included in the study.

The results of this study indicated that both diversity and number of contacts in higher organizational ranks within women's career related social capital networks were positively related to their ability to make desired career changes. Number of contacts in higher organizational ranks was found to be tied to a woman's ability to make desired career changes when the higher-ranking contact was a supportive supervisor or a mentor/sponsor. The findings for connectivity behaviors in social capital development were minimal, due in part to the lack of utilization of the online tools by the women in this study. Although the findings indicated no significant influence for family life stage on social capital or career change success, the results still offered implications for women in business that were in the early stages of parenthood.

Summary of the Findings

The study offers a number of findings in regard to the influence of social capital on women's ability to reposition their careers in business. The findings relate to social capital's influence on women's ability to make desired career changes as well as on the to

what degree women's social capital is influenced by their family life stage. The results of this study found significant influences related to the diversity of women's professional network contacts and their contacts in higher organizational ranks.

Diversity of social capital was found to impact women's ability to make desired career changes in several conditions. Women who sought career advice from colleagues outside their organization had a greater ability to make desired career changes. As confirmed by the regression analysis, more frequently seeking career advice from colleagues outside their organization was found to be one of the most significant factors affecting women's ability to make their desired career changes.

Previous studies that measured the impact of social capital diversity on career success suggested that homogeneity of network contacts could limit individuals' ability to develop useful communications and receive positive performance appraisals, promotions, and compensation for career advancement (Burt, 1992). Studies of social capital's influence on changing careers also implied that the greater the diversity of an individual's social capital network, the greater the likelihood that the person would change careers due to additional information on opportunities, advice, and range of possibilities considered (Higgins, 2001). However, several researchers have suggested that women have not been able to develop diversity in their social capital networks due to gender and societal roles (Burt, 1998; Lin, 2000; Still, 2006). While the findings of this study confirm the value of social capital for career repositioning, the results of this study also challenge much of the previous research in regard to the limitations for women due to prescribed female roles.

The findings of the study indicated that women with master's degrees were more likely to utilize colleagues outside their organization for career advice. However, education level alone did not impact women's satisfaction with career repositioning. Solely comparing education level of participants, women with varying degrees of education indicated no more ability to make desired career changes than participants in any other educational level. These findings challenge Blansett's (2008) thesis that increases in formal education positively impact objective organizational rewards, as no significant difference in educational level was found to influence ability to make desired career changes. Blansett's (2008) study did not address whether increases in education impacted social capital networks, as suggested by the findings of this study.

The findings for social capital diversity also indicated that women employed at different levels within organizations varied in their social capital development. The study was designed to be able to compare the social capital and career repositioning of women at different organizational levels, since previous studies concentrated on women at higher levels. The percentages of women at different organizational levels in this study were relatively similar to the percentages found by Catalyst (2014) in their studies of women in business, with over half serving in non-management, nearly 20% in lower-level management, 15% in middle management, and nearly 10% in senior management positions. Analysis of this range of organizational level participants indicated that women in middle or senior management sought career advice from leaders and colleagues outside their organization more than lower-level women did. The middle and senior management-level participants also indicated that they had greater ability to make desired career changes. These findings suggest that Burt's (1992) structural hole theory

for social capital seems to be in play for women as they attempt to make desired career changes. The higher-level women who were connected to colleagues outside their organization bridged gaps of diversity, increasing their ability to brokerage across holes in social capital networks. Their use of colleagues outside their organization may have created new visions and career change opportunities that would otherwise have gone unseen (Burt, 1992).

Diversity of women's social capital was also measured in regard to the opportunities women had to diversify their social capital networks through new network connections made available via a change of position or employer. A finding of this analysis was that women who had been with their current company less than two years had greater ability to make desired career changes than those who had been with their company longer, specifically six to ten years. No significance was found in ability to make desired career change for women who had recently changed positions. This could imply that women had to change companies in order to make their desired career changes. The findings also support previous research on the trend for women to have boundaryless careers, embracing the idea that they would work for more firms over the course of their careers (Ballout, 2007). At the same time, the findings have implications for organizations. Leaders should take note that women in business are finding career change satisfaction by changing employers. Retaining female talent could be dependent upon leaders' appreciation of women's career change goals.

The findings in this study indicated a lack of influence from the number of ties in women's social capital networks on their ability to make desired career changes. The analysis of participants' perceived relative size of their professional networks indicated

no relationship with ability to make desired career changes. However, a larger number of contacts in authoritative positions were found to be significant with women's ability to make desired career changes. This follows the findings from previous studies that suggested that ties to contacts in higher organizational ranks increases career success (Ibarra, 1992; Lin, 2000). The findings in this study could suggest that women are able to gain advice and express their goals to those in authoritative positions with the power to enable change.

The findings of this study imply that women with access to contacts with upward reach through supportive supervisors and mentor candidates indicated greater satisfaction with their ability to make desired career changes. Lin (2000) argued that women's professional networks lack of connection to higher-ranking contacts decreased their career success. While this study was not designed to compare women's social capital contacts to men's, the study did investigate women's perception of the equality of opportunity for men and women in their organizations to find professional mentors.

Access to social network contacts in higher organizational ranks through mentorship showed significance in an interesting way. Nearly equal statistical significance with their satisfaction with career repositioning was found between women who had at least one mentor within her organization and women who indicated that women in their organization had equivalent opportunity as men to find a mentor within their organization. The findings suggested that both having a mentor and perceiving that she could have a mentor had a positive influence on a woman's ability to make desired career changes. Previous research had indicated that an obstacle for women in business has been the inability to develop mentorships (Ballout, 2007; Mason & Ekman, 2007).

The findings in this study imply that the perception of organizational support through the availability of mentoring opportunities contributed to women's ability to make their desired changes even more than actually forming a mentorship.

Additionally in the area of access to contacts in higher organizational ranks, significant results were found in the relationship between supervisor support and ability to make desired career changes. Women who indicated that their direct supervisor was supportive of their career goals also indicated that they were more able to make desired career changes. Barrett (2000) argued that for-profit firm's performance was related to employee fulfillment, which was directly tied to a supervisor's commitment to promoting employees' values. This study found that supervisor support has a correlation with satisfaction in career repositioning, as confirmed through the regression analysis. Supervisor support was found to be one of the most significant factors contributing to satisfaction with career repositioning evaluated in this study. This finding has great significance for organizational leaders who wish to retain and develop female talent over the course of their careers. The appreciation that supervisors have for their female employees' career repositioning goals can impact the employees' satisfaction. The element of supervisor support could impact the likelihood that women seek to fulfill their career repositioning goals in another organization.

Implications for Action & Recommendations for Further Research

An important finding in this study for women in business seeking success in career repositioning relates to the behaviors associated with their development of career related social capital. Of all the online connectivity behaviors associated with developing professional social network contacts, email was the only online tool that was found to

have significance on ability to make desired career changes. However, important to note is that the use of most online tools was very infrequent amongst participants. Fewer than 20% of participants indicated that they rarely or never use email for professional social networking, as compared to 68% of women who rarely or never use LinkedIn and 70% who never use text messaging.

Some variance in the use of online networking tools was associated with the educational level of participants. Women with master's degrees were more likely than those of any other educational level to use the social networking tool LinkedIn. Variance was also found in the use of online networking tools for the control variable of personal brand value. Women who indicated that they spent more time marketing themselves were more likely to frequently use online tools. These participants use text messaging, LinkedIn, and Facebook as typical networking tools, and more frequently utilize text messaging, LinkedIn, Facebook, and Twitter as a channel for professional networking. Those who spent more time marketing themselves were more likely to use text messaging, LinkedIn, and Facebook.

Some variance was also found in the use of online connectivity tools for professional networking across work functions and age groups. Women working in public relations fields indicated greater use of the online social networking tool Facebook for career networking than those in engineering. However, no significant variances were found for the use of other tools. The use of the social media tool Facebook by those in public relations could be due to the nature of their field in trying to communicate across multiple media channels. Still, the finding leaves question regarding how adept women in more technical fields are with contemporary communications tools.

The results indicated that younger women were more likely to utilize email, text messaging, and Facebook for professional networking than respondents in older age groups. This finding could suggest that women in younger generations may have different expectations for professional networking than the women with more working experience in business fields. Younger businesswomen may need to be made aware that all women in business may not utilize the same connectivity tools that they are accustomed to using. Additionally, experienced professional women in business fields may not appreciate being approached by younger women for career networking via online connectivity methods. The younger generations may face career networking challenges if they rely too heavily on these online tools that many women in business seem not to be currently using.

An adjacent finding for women of the younger generations relates to their choice of contacts for career networking. The results of this study indicate that younger women are more likely to seek career advice from family members and college faculty. This finding suggests that younger women are not utilizing the contacts associated with increased social capital diversity or higher-ranking connections. This could create a weakness in the ability of women in younger generations to be successful in their career repositioning. The finding also raises an issue for college faculty in that they should be prepared to help young businesswomen appreciate the value of social capital and professional networking.

Further research should be conducted in the area of online connectivity for career networking. Research should focus on the expectations younger women entering business fields have for online or traditional career networking. Additionally, research

should focus on the preparation women graduating from business schools are being given to develop their social capital networks. These further studies should investigate the behaviors of undergraduate upperclassmen, recent college graduates, and business college faculty to provide further knowledge on the level of preparation and expectations of college graduates for their development of social capital for career networking.

In the area of connectivity for career related social capital development, further investigation should be made regarding why so few women utilize the online tools for professional networking, particularly the online professional networking site, LinkedIn. Research should focus on individuals who do utilize LinkedIn to determine the degree to which its use facilitated their career repositioning. Since women who spent more time marketing themselves included LinkedIn as a connectivity behavior in their professional networking, the findings raise the question of whether women hoping to market themselves are using the right channels. Since only eight percent of participants in this study indicated that they often or sometimes use LinkedIn, compared to twenty-three percent who rarely, and sixty-eight percent who never, use LinkedIn for typical career networking communications, further investigation into the connection of online networking tools to successful career repositioning should be conducted. A quantitative study of users of online networking tools should be conducted to provide further insight into the influence of the tools on career change success measures.

This study produced a number of findings in regard to family life stage, as it relates to women's social capital measures and behaviors, as well as to women's successful career repositioning. Previous studies have identified women's roles as mothers and caretakers to be contributing factors to the lack of progression in women's

careers (Cinnamon & Rich, 2002; Goldin, 2004; Mason & Ekman, 2007; Moe & Shandy, 2009; Perry, 1993). Researchers have also found that women's inability to develop and capitalize on social capital was related to their gender roles and expectations (Burt, 1998; Ibarra, 1992, 1993; Lin, 2000; O'Neil et al., 2008). The findings of this study indicate that women's ability to make desired career changes was not limited by their family life stage, as measured by the hours dedicated to family. Further, the findings of this study also indicate that women's family life stage was not a factor in their social capital development or maintenance, in terms of the measures of diversity, number of contacts, and number of contacts in higher organizational ranks. No significant results were found for family life stage and the behaviors related to social capital connectivity.

The results of this study found no significance between the number of hours women spent on family and their satisfaction with career repositioning. The lack of association could not have been due to self-selection bias in the participants who chose to respond to the survey. About one third of participants indicated that they were not satisfied with their ability to make desired career changes, so the lack of findings in the relationship between hours spent on family and ability to make desired career changes was not due to a skewed sample of only-satisfied women. Two thirds of participants indicated that they were able to make desired career changes, regardless of the number of hours they dedicated to family events, activities, and childcare.

The findings in this study in regard to the lack of significance between family life stage and women's social capital runs contrary to research of the past decades. Previous research has suggested not only that social capital contributes significantly to career success (Burt, 1992), but also that women have enjoyed fewer rewards from their social

capital networks (Burt, 1998). Following Burt's (1998) theories, Still (2006) and Lin (2000) argued that women's deficiency in social capital networks was due to their family roles. Still (2006) argued that women based their social capital networks on family and lacked full development because of their greater investment of time on childcare. Similarly, Lin (2000) contended that women's social capital networks suffered from their focus on family, friends, and neighbors. The lack of any significant findings in this study between family life stage and the diversity, number of contacts, and number of contacts in higher organizational ranks in women's career related social capital networks suggests that previously held gender role theories of social capital may be refuted for women across organizational levels in business.

A particular finding of the study suggests that the impact of family life stage was not completely eradicated for women in business. The survey distribution elicited a small percentage of participants within a critical life stage for motherhood. Fewer than ten percent of participants indicated that they had children under the age of six. Previous researchers have argued that the contemporary female labor force has chosen to move into second-tier positions rather than completely opt out of the workforce (Mason & Ekman, 2007). Women in previous studies have cited family demands as reasons for choosing to return from parental leave to work in second-tier jobs with less pressure to work long hours or travel (Moe & Shandy, 2009). However, since survey participants in this study covered a broad range of organizational levels, including over fifty percent in non-management positions, the results of this study indicate that women with children under age six were noticeably absent.

Federal employment data has indicated that mothers of children aged six to seventeen were more likely to be in the labor force than mothers of children under the age of six (United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2010). The lack of participation in this study from women with the youngest age range of children leaves unanswered whether or not women with children under six were present in the workforce of this research sample. Alternately, women with young children may have been overburdened with work and personal commitments that they were unable to devote time to participating in the study. Since explanations of the absence of women with children under six cannot be concluded, further research should be conducted to address the career repositioning issues of women with young children. A qualitative study of women with children under age six attempting to navigate their careers in business should be conducted to further the knowledge regarding the impact of this critical family life stage on women's career trajectories in business.

Another finding in this study that challenges previous research relates to the notion that women in the thirty to forty year age range face critical choices between career and family (Mason & Ekman, 2007; Matthews & Hamilton, 2002). Mason and Ekman (2007) suggested that women's career decisions between ages thirty to forty are the make-or-break decisions in their career trajectories, as the long hours and travel in the fast track were not aligned with motherhood (Mason & Ekman, 2007). During their thirties and forties, women were most likely to change career direction, drop into second-tier career positions, and diverge from men in career trajectories (Mason & Ekman, 2007). Women's thirties have also become the age of motherhood, as nearly two-thirds of college-educated women have their first baby after age thirty (Matthews & Hamilton,

2002). While the findings in this study confirm that women in the thirty to forty age range spent more hours on family than other age groups, the devotion to family showed no significance to their ability to make desired career changes or to the development of their career-related social capital networks.

No significant findings could be established between the hours women spent on family and their social capital in any measures – diversity, number of contacts, or number of contacts in higher organizational ranks. This finding has encouraging implications for women since social capital was found to have a positive impact for women seeking to reposition their careers in business. Further, previous studies had already established the connection of social capital to successful hierarchical career patterns (Burt, 1992; Lin, 2000). Ibarra (1993) argued that marriage and motherhood shifted women's social networks toward less professional contacts. Ibarra (1993) contended that as women became mothers, their networks reoriented toward more female and family contacts, reducing the career related value of their social contacts. The findings of this study challenge Ibarra's (1993) contention, as no significance could be established between women's hours devoted to family, or the presence of children in her household, to the diversity, number of contacts, or numbers of contacts in higher organizational ranks in her career-related social capital network.

The lack of significance between hours spent on family and social capital measures for women in business suggests that women have found means to make career networking and devotion to family coincide. The findings leave unanswered specifically how women have progressed in their social capital development since earlier studies suggested that women's social capital suffered deficits due to family obligations and

culturally prescribed roles (Burt, 1998; Lin, 2000; Still, 2006). The findings in this study suggest that devotion to family does not have to impede women's social capital development or maintenance. Additional research should be directed toward determining the methods women in business have used to develop and maintain their social capital networks, even as their lives evolve through stages of parenthood.

This study investigated the theory that social capital development through online connectivity tools could contribute toward women's ability to maintain social capital throughout family life stages. However, the women in this study who devoted large numbers of hours to family did not report any decreased measures of social capital. Additionally, the women in this study did not report regular use of online professional networking behaviors, with the exception of their use of email as a tool for communicating on career issues. Email has been available for several decades and would be unlikely to have changed the communication dynamic since the time of publication of earlier social capital research such as Lin (2000) or Still (2006).

Since a weak or non-existent relationship was found between connectivity behaviors and hours spent on family, still left in question are what activities help women who devote many hours to family to maintain and develop their professional network ties. More investigation should be focused on the activities women who devote large numbers of hours to family use to manage their social capital. A qualitative study should investigate the patterns of behavior that contributed to women's ability to maintain and develop social capital throughout family life stages. Specific consideration should be given to women who devote at least twenty-five hours per week to family activities while

also attempting to direct their careers toward increasing their personal measures of success.

An interesting finding in this study for women and leaders in business relates to the elements women use to measure their personal career success. Previous researchers have found that market-oriented organizations focus their employees and reward systems on objective criteria of career success (Heslin, 2005). This study found that the top rated personal elements of success for women working in business were subjective measures. Women in this study indicated that their top four success elements were: being a well-rounded employee, achieving personal goals, attaining a proper work-life balance, and working on interesting or meaningful projects, which would all be considered subjective measures. These findings could contribute to the suggestions in previous studies that women incur obstacles in following business' hierarchical career ladder (Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987; Heslin, 2005; O'Neil et al., 2008). Women's career satisfaction motivations could be contributing to the mismatch in career trajectories.

The regression analysis for personal elements of success indicated that objective and subjective measures of success had influence on women's ability to make desired career changes. In the area of objective measures, two elements showed a statistically significant relationship with ability to make desired career changes. Women who held achieving organizational goals as a personal element of success indicated greater ability to make desired career changes. Women who held salary as a personal element of success indicated lesser ability to make desired career changes. While achieving organizational goals would seem to align with the objective orientation of career incentives within business organizations, the findings for salary suggest an underlying

issue for women in business. Those who were less oriented toward salary as a personal element of career success indicated greater satisfaction with their ability to make desired career changes.

The regression analysis for subjective measures found that women who held working on meaningful projects as an element of success indicated greater ability to make desired career changes. This finding would suggest that women in business are finding ways to achieve their goal of work that is meaningful, but this goal is not the norm in for-profit firms' employee incentive programs. These findings could pose a challenge to businesses leaders wishing to retain female talent, if organizational leaders assume their female employees desire career changes only according to objective measures of career success. Heslin (2005) suggested that too much emphasis has been placed on objective measures of success, and that all individuals did not necessarily share financial rewards as an indicator of success. Similarly, Schilling (2012) suggested that further research was needed on the valuation of satisfaction through work on challenging, fascinating, or intrinsically rewarding projects. This study has confirmed that women seeking career repositioning do not set their goals on objective measures alone. A qualitative study investigating the views of female employees in business and their supervisors, managers, or leaders could provide further knowledge in this area. The additional research should evaluate whether business leaders' perceptions of their female employees' career goals closely align with the women's goals for career repositioning.

Summary

This research study was designed to measure the impact of social capital on the ability for women in business to reposition their careers over the course of their lives.

The study measured social capital, family life stage, career repositioning, and career satisfaction elements through a quantitative online survey of over two hundred women.

The participants in the study were employed in nearly fifty different organizations within southwestern New York and northwestern Pennsylvania.

The study found that, in terms of the diversity and upward reach of women's professional networks, social capital was associated with greater ability to reposition women's careers as their needs evolved over the course of their personal lives. Women whose career related social capital networks included more contacts outside their organizations indicated greater ability to make desired career changes. Women with master's degrees were found to be more likely to go outside their organization for career networking; however, increased education alone did not influence women's ability to reposition their careers. As suggested by previous research, women with career related network contacts in higher organizational ranks indicated greater ability to make desired career changes (Ibarra, 1992; Lin, 2000). Although preliminary analysis suggested that the number of contacts in women's career-related professional networks varied with their ability to make desired career changes, the final regression analyses could not confirm a significant relationship between the two.

Development of social capital through online social networking tools was not found to be prevalent amongst the women in the study, although younger women were more likely to utilize online tools for career networking. Women in public relations or communications positions were also more likely to use online social networking tools than those in more technical positions, such as engineering. These findings leave in

question the degree to which online tools will benefit women's career related social capital development in the near term.

The study presented positive findings for women in terms of family life stages, as measured by their hours devoted to family activities. The study found that increased hours devoted to family had no significance on women's ability to make desired career changes or to their development and maintenance of social capital. As well, no ties could be established between women's ability to reposition their careers or develop social capital networks with their family life stage, as measured by the presence of children in their households. Further studies should be conducted to investigate the social capital activities and career repositioning of women with children under age six, as fewer than ten percent of responses in this study were women fitting that profile. While the findings in this study counter previous research on gender issues of social capital, they present hope for women seeking to cooperatively achieve parenthood and satisfaction in their business careers.

The findings of this study offer several implications for business leaders seeking to retain female talent and develop organizational cultures conducive to employee satisfaction. Women who had been with their current employer less than two years indicated greater ability to make desired career changes, implying that they had to change employers in order to achieve their desired career repositioning. The findings of this study regarding women's career satisfaction measures suggest that for-profit firms' career development systems may be incongruent with women's career goals. Overall, women indicated that their four top career satisfaction measures were all subjective, while businesses tend to reward and incentivize based on objective measures of career success.

Business leaders should take note of this potential discrepancy in perceptions and improve their appreciation of women's career satisfaction measures.

The findings in regard to supervisor support also have implications for organizational leaders. Women who indicated that their direct supervisor was supportive of their career goals had greater ability to make desired career changes. A lack of supervisor support could lead to women seeking career repositioning with another organization. Additionally, women who indicated that they had equivalent opportunity as men to find a mentor within their organizations had greater ability to make desired career changes. The perceived opportunity of finding a mentor had nearly equal influence on career repositioning as actually having a mentor, suggesting that perceived organizational support influences women's satisfaction with career repositioning.

The results of this study have identified several areas for recommended future research. Since online connectivity tools were not identified as an influential element in social capital development for women who devote more hours to family, more investigation should be conducted to determine which behaviors or practices have helped their social capital development. Also, since very few women in this study were utilizing online professional networking tools, further studies should be conducted to measure the effectiveness of the online tools for women who are utilizing such tools. Finally, fewer than ten percent of the participants in this study were mothers of children under the age of six. Since early parenthood years have been found to have critical influence on women's career trajectories, further research should focus on women in the early parenthood years, evaluating the influences on their social capital and career repositioning.

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*Appendix A***Bill of Rights for Research Participants**

As a participant in a research study, you have the right:

1. To have enough time to decide whether or not to be in the research study, and to make that decision without any pressure from the people who are conducting the research.
2. To refuse to be in the study at all, or to stop participating at any time after you begin the study.
3. To be told what the study is trying to find out, what will happen to you, and what you will be asked to do if you are in the study.
4. To be told about the reasonably foreseeable risks of being in the study.
5. To be told about the possible benefits of being in the study.
6. To be told whether there are any costs associated with being in the study and whether you will be compensated for participating in the study.
7. To be told who will have access to information collected about you and how your confidentiality will be protected.
8. To be told whom to contact with questions about the research, about research-related injury, and about your rights as a research subject.
9. If the study involves treatment or therapy:
 - a. To be told about the other non-research treatment choices you have.
 - b. To be told where treatment is available should you have a research-related injury, and who will pay for research-related treatment.

*Appendix B***Letters Inviting Participants to the Survey**

Subject Line: University research on women in business, please participate

Pre-Notice:

Within the next few days, you will be receiving an email inviting you to participate in a research study of women in business by a doctoral candidate at Creighton University. The goal of the study is to identify both challenges for women in business and opportunities for organizations to better meet working women's needs. Women in business today still face many obstacles besides the 'glass ceiling'. Your participation in this study will help to identify what is working – and not working – for women's careers in many different areas of business. Your participation is important because your experiences can help shape the future of women's careers and business leaders' policy decisions.

Please watch for the email in the coming days and contribute your valuable input.

Thank you.

Invitation:

You are receiving this e-mail because you could provide valued information for a doctoral research study of the career paths of women in business. The goal of the study is to identify both challenges for women in business and opportunities for organizations to better meet working women's needs. Women in business today still face many obstacles besides the 'glass ceiling'. Your participation in this study will help to identify what is working – and not working – for women's careers in many different areas of business. By including your experiences, you can help shape the future of women's careers and business leaders' policy decisions.

If you are female, please take a few moments to fill out a short survey about your career experiences. The survey should take ten to fifteen minutes to complete.

Please be assured that this survey is for research purposes only. Participation in the study is voluntary. In no way will you be identified or contacted because of your answers to this survey. Your answers will be grouped anonymously with all other participants.

As an added incentive, participants who complete the survey may choose to enter a drawing to win a \$50 Amazon gift card. The option to be entered to win is included at the end of the survey through a link to a separate and independent response form. Information entered for the drawing will be separate from any survey responses.

For questions on the survey or to receive a summary of the results, please send an email to Diana Maguire at dianamaguire@creighton.edu.

Thank you for your time.

[Link to Survey](#)

Diana Maguire
Interdisciplinary Leadership EdD Candidate
Creighton University

Follow-Up:

You recently received an invitation to participate in a brief online survey about women's careers in business. If you are female and have not yet responded, please take a few moments to fill out a short survey about your career experiences. The survey should take ten to fifteen minutes to complete.

The goal of the study is to identify both challenges for women in business and opportunities for organizations to better meet working women's needs. Women in business today still face many obstacles besides the 'glass ceiling'. Your participation in this study will help to identify what is working – and not working – for women's careers in many different areas of business. Your participation is important because your experiences can help shape the future of women's careers and business leaders' policy decisions.

Please be assured that this survey is for research purposes only. Participation in the study is voluntary. In no way will you be identified or contacted because of your answers to this survey. Your answers will be grouped anonymously with all other participants.

As an added incentive, participants who complete the survey may choose to enter a drawing to win a \$50 Amazon gift card. The option to be entered to win is included at the end of the survey through a link to a separate and independent response form. Information entered for the drawing will be separate from any survey responses.

For questions on the survey or to receive a summary of the results, please send an email to Diana Maguire at dianamaguire@creighton.edu.

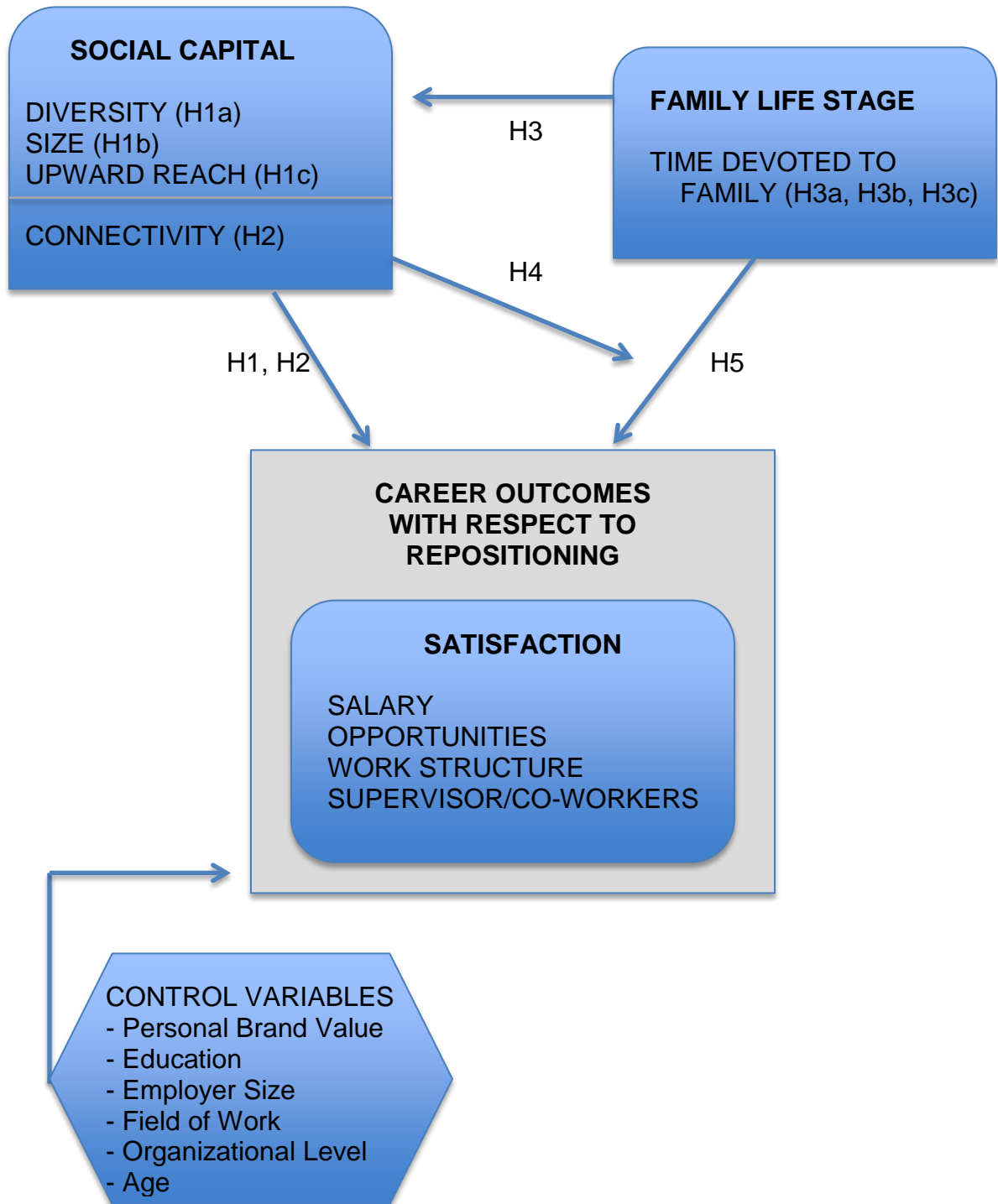
Thank you for your time.

[Link to Survey](#)

Diana Maguire
Interdisciplinary Leadership EdD Candidate
Creighton University

Appendix C

Figure A1
A Model of Social Capital Effects on Women's Career Repositioning in Business



Hypotheses of Social Capital Effects on Women's Career Repositioning in Business*Social Capital Outcomes and Satisfaction with Career Repositioning*

H1a: The diversity of ties in a woman's work-related social capital network is positively related to her satisfaction with career repositioning.

H1b: The number of ties in a woman's work-related social capital network is positively related to her satisfaction with career repositioning.

H1c: The number of ties to persons in higher organizational ranks (e.g., sponsors, mentors) in a woman's work-related social capital network is positively related to her satisfaction with career repositioning.

Social Capital Behavior and Satisfaction with Career Repositioning

H2: Utilizing online connectivity for developing social capital is positively related to a women's satisfaction with career repositioning.

Family Life Stage and Social Capital Outcomes

H3a: Women who commit more hours to family tend to have less diversity of ties in their work-related network.

H3b: Women who devote more hours to family tend to have a smaller number of total ties in their work-related network.

H3c: Women who commit more hours to family tend to have a smaller number of ties in their work-related network to persons in higher organizational ranks (e.g., sponsors, mentors).

Family Life Stage, Social Capital Behavior, and Social Capital Outcomes

H4: The effect of time devoted to family on social capital outcomes depends on the level of a woman's online connectivity, such that higher levels of online connectivity

counteract the negative effects of time devoted to family on (a) diversity of ties, (b) total number of ties, and (c) number of ties to persons in higher organizational ranks (e.g., sponsors, mentors).

Family Life Stage and Satisfaction with Career Repositioning

H5: Women who commit fewer hours to family tend to be more satisfied with career repositioning.

*Appendix D***Copy of Questions in Qualtrics Survey**

Thank you for your interest in this research project on women in business.
 Your input is very important to the study.
 Please be assured that this survey is for research purposes only.
 Participation in the study is *voluntary*.

In no way will you be identified or contacted because of your answers to this survey.
 Your answers will be grouped anonymously with all other participants.

Please note that questions requiring a response are indicated with an *.

Q1. Please indicate your gender. *

- Male
 Female

Q2. Within the last ten years, have you worked for a for-profit company? *

- Yes
 No

Q3.

From whom do you typically seek career advice? *

	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
My supervisor				
Coworkers				
Colleagues outside my organization				
Friends outside my organization				
Organizational leader above my supervisor				
Organizational leader outside my functional area				
Organizational leader outside my organization				

Often Sometimes Rarely Never

College faculty

Family members

Q4.

Which of the following best describes your professional network contacts? *

	All Female	More Females than Males	About the same number of Females and Males	More Males than Females	All Male
Gender	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	All work within my field	More are from within my field than other fields	About the same number of within and outside my field	More are from other fields than within my field	All work outside my field
Field	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q5. Please indicate your approximate number of each type of contact: *

Fewer than 10 10-20 More than 20

Critical sources of buy-in / political support

Authority Figures

Knowledgeable/Helpful Subordinates

Coworkers / Colleagues

Informal / Social

Personal Connections WITHIN my organization

Q6. Compared to others, the size of my professional network is

Much larger	Somewhat larger	About the same	Somewhat smaller	Much smaller
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q7.

How do you typically communicate when discussing career issues? *

Often Sometimes Rarely Never

Face-to-face

	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Phone				
Email				
Text message				
LinkedIn				
Facebook				

Q8. To what degree do you agree or disagree with the following statements?

	Completely Agree	Somewhat Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Completely Disagree
My professional network contacts connect me to many more otherwise unavailable contacts.					
Within my organization, I interact with leaders/directors.					
My organization has an employee mentoring system.					
Within my organization I have at least one mentor/professional sponsor.					
Within my organization, men and women have equivalent opportunities for finding a mentor.					
Within my organization, men and women have equivalent					

Completely Agree	Somewhat Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Completely Disagree
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opportunities for career change.

Within my organization, an individual must market herself for career change.

Within my organization, my direct supervisor has been supportive of my career goals/needs.

My organization allows employees to change their work situation as life context changes (marriage, divorce, relocation, childbirth, etc.).

Q9. The amount of time I have spent on activities to market myself has been

Very Little A Great Deal

Q10.

How often do you use these online tools for your professional networking? *

Very Frequently	Frequently	Occasionally	Rarely	Never
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Email
Text Messaging
LinkedIn
Facebook
Twitter
Instagram

Q11.

Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following *

	Very True	True	Somewhat Untrue	Not at All True
Over the course of my career, I have been able to make my desired changes.				

Q12.

To what extent are you satisfied with each of the following elements of your career? *

	Very Satisfied	Somewhat Satisfied	Somewhat Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied
Salary				
Promotion				
Professional opportunities				
Flexibility in working hours				
Flexibility in working location				
Telecommuting				
Personal/Vacation time				
Awards / recognition				

Q13.

My personal elements of success would be defined as

	Very True	Somewhat True	Somewhat Untrue	Very Untrue
Increasing Salary				
Achieving Rank/Status				
Crafting Unique Value for the Firm				
Longevity with the Firm				

	Very True	Somewhat True	Somewhat Untrue	Very Untrue
Being a Well-Rounded Employee				
Working on Interesting /Meaningful Projects				
Accomplishing Personal Goals				
Accomplishing Organizational Goals				
Achieving Work-Life Balance				
Q14. Over the course of my career, my desire to achieve the following has				
	Increased	Decreased	Stayed the Same	
Increasing Salary				
Achieving Rank/Status				
Achieving Management Level				
Crafting Unique Value for the Firm				
Longevity with the Firm				
Being a Well-Rounded Employee				
Working on Interesting /Meaningful Projects				
Accomplishing Personal Goals				
Accomplishing				

Organizational Goals Increased Decreased Stayed the Same

Achieving Work-Life Balance

Q15.

Within my organization, elements of success would be defined as

Very True Somewhat True Somewhat Untrue Very Untrue

Increasing Salary

Achieving Rank/Status

Crafting Unique Value for the Firm

Longevity with the Firm

Being a Well-Rounded Employee

Working on Interesting /Meaningful Projects

Accomplishing Personal Goals

Accomplishing Organizational Goals

Achieving Work-Life Balance

Q16.

Which of the following have been your motivations for making a job change?

Very True Somewhat True Somewhat Untrue Very Untrue

Increasing Salary

Achieving Rank/Status

	Very True	Somewhat True	Somewhat Untrue	Very Untrue
Crafting Unique Value for the Firm				
Longevity with the Firm				
Being a Well-Rounded Employee				
Working on Interesting /Meaningful Projects				
Accomplishing Personal Goals				
Accomplishing Organizational Goals				
Achieving Work-Life Balance				
Q17.				
Within my organization, as women become mothers, they				
Incur no change in their work/career	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Reduce hours to less than full time				
Reduce travel				
Telecommute				
Leave the organization permanently				
Take 6-12 weeks leave				
Take leave greater				

	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
than 12 weeks but less than one year				
Take leave longer than one year				
Move into less demanding positions				

Q18.

The strongest elements contributing to the success of working women within my organization are:

	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Being single/unmarried				
Having No children				
Having someone else care for her household				
Direct supervisor support				
Level of education				
Network contacts				
Self-promotion				
Having a flexible schedule				

Q19. In a typical week, how many hours do you devote to family tasks (child/elder care, attending events, preparing meals, providing transportation, and so on)? *

- Less than 10
- 11-25
- 26-40
- More than 40

Q20.

Please indicate the percentage of your household tasks provided by the following people. (Total must equal 100%.)

Myself

- My spouse
- Another relative
- A nanny
- Hired Services (daycare, other professional services)
- Total

Q21. How many years have you been with your current company?

- Less than 2
- 2-5
- 6-10
- 11-20
- More than 20

Q22.

How many years have you been in your current position?

- Less than 2
- 2-5
- 6-10
- 11-20
- More than 20

Q23. Do you currently work for a for-profit company? *

- Yes
- No

Q24. Which of the following were your motivations for moving your career outside of a for-profit company?

	Very True	Somewhat True	Somewhat Untrue	Very Untrue
Increasing Salary				
Increasing Flexibility of working hours				
Increasing Flexibility of working location				
Reducing work hours				
Working on Interesting /Meaningful Projects				

Very True Somewhat True Somewhat Untrue Very Untrue

Accomplishing
Personal Goals

Achieving Work-Life
Balance

Q25. Please indicate the age ranges of your children. (Select all that apply.)

- I have no children I have at least one child age 6-18
 My children are all over the age of 18 I have at least one child under the age of 6

Q26. My current work status is

- Full-time (at least 37.5 hours per week)
 Part-time (less than 37.5 hours per week)
 Temporary/Seasonal employee
 Self-employed

Q27. Which of the following best describes your employer's primary industry?

- Manufacturing Health-care
 Professional Services Government
 Nonprofit Hospitality/Entertainment
 Financial Services Retail/Commercial Sales
 Education Computer Systems/Services

Q28. Please indicate the approximate number of employees in your organization.

- Fewer than 50
 51 – 200
 201 – 500
 501 - 1,999
 More than 2000

Q29. My current employer is

- Privately held Publicly traded (stock sold on an exchange) Do not know Do not currently work for a for-profit company
-

Q30. Which of the following best describes your current organizational level?

- Senior Management
- Middle Management
- Lower Management
- Non-management

Q31. Which of the following best describes your current primary work function?

- Manufacturing/Production
- Human Resources
- Legal
- Finance/Accounting
- Marketing/Sales
- Communications/PR
- Engineering/Design
- General Administration
- General Management

Q32. Which of the following best describes the primary work function of the position you held PRIOR TO your last job change?

- Manufacturing/Production
- Human Resources
- Legal
- Finance/Accounting
- Marketing/Sales
- Communications/PR
- Engineering/Design
- General Administration
- General Management

Q33. What is your highest educational level achieved?

- High School
- Some College
- Associate Degree
- Bachelor Degree
- Master Degree
- Doctoral Degree

Q34. Which of the following best describes your age range?

- 20-30
- 31-40
- 41-50
- Over 50

Q35.

For statistical purposes only - to ensure a significant number of participating organizations - please indicate the name of your employer.

This information will be kept separate from your responses and will not be included in the survey results in any way.