WOMEN'S MOTIVATION FOR BOARDROOM WORK:

Factors that led women to refuse or accept actual requests to serve on a board of

directors

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May 2007.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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Abstract

This paper concerns the motivation of women in management for boardroom work, and the purpose was to explore factors that led women to refuse or accept actual requests to serve on a board of directors. Eleven women participated in this study: five who had refused an invitation to serve on a board; and six, who had accepted such invitations. All Participants had previously attended the Female Future Program conducted by the Norwegian Confederation of Business and Industry. Individual semi- structured interviews and a personality inventory measuring the "Big Five" traits were employed to compare the groups. The interviews were analysed using quantitative content analysis. Results showed that the theory of organizational citizenship behaviour was able to explain a difference between the two groups through its dimension of civic virtue, while the job characteristics model failed to do so. It is suggested that motivational theories concerning contextual performance may be more appropriate to explain women's motivation to serve on a company board, than are theories concerning task performance. The decisive factor of whether managerial women serve on a board seems to be organizational characteristics, indicating the necessity for organizations to reflect more on how to attract the best people.
In addition, it was found that women's "whole lives", that is life at work and also life outside of work, are of importance when they are considering an invitation to serve on a board. No differences in personality were found between the two groups.

Research in the field of work & health psychology emphasizes that managerial women face a glass ceiling that limits advancement to senior management levels and prevents women from attaining the highest positions in organizations (Burke, 2003; Powell, 1999). In addition to this, there has been a growing recognition of managerial women's lack of access to positions on corporate boards of directors (Burke & Mattis, 2000).

In 2003, the Norwegian Government proposed a new law to increase the representation of women on boards of all privately-owned public limited companies, and state-owned enterprises. This law required that both women and men should have at least 40% representation on such boards by 2005, otherwise the law would be enforced and a statutory quota would be mandated (Ot.prp.nr.97, 2002-2003).

As a response to this, The Norwegian Confederation of Business and Industry (NHO) launched their Female Future program in 2003. The purpose was to avoid gender quotas by identifying, qualifying and mobilizing female candidates, and to make these women easily accessible to organizations (Drake, 2003). By 2005, the target for gender composition on boards was not achieved, and gender quotas were, therefore, a reality at the beginning of 2006 (Regjeringen, 2006). Statistics in 2007 reveal that there was still a shortfall of 460 women needed to achieve the 40% rule (Statistics Norway, 2007).

Research concerning the advancement of women on boards of directors is in its infancy (Adams & Flynn, 2005). Until recently research has mainly been devoted to proving the presence of the glass ceiling and explaining probable causes of this phenomenon (Burke, 2003; Powell, 1999; Schein, Mueller, Lituchi & Liu, 1996). Moreover, several studies concerning women's progress into the boardroom have been reported (Dailey, Certo & Dalton, 2000; Mattis, 1993; Mattis, 2000), and there has also been increased interest in research concerning diversity, where the main purpose has been to examine the value of women on boards (Fondas, 2000). Little attention has been devoted to the motivation of women to serve on boards of directors (Burke, 2000).

Mattis (1993) has found that important considerations in accepting invitations to serve on boards are women's desires to broaden their general knowledge of business and their expertise and skills, along with interest in the company. This research conducted by Mattis, provides information regarding factors considered when accepting invitations to serve on boards, but does not indicate factors that prompt women's decisions to serve on a board or not.

The content of this study

This paper is concerned with managerial women's motivation for boardroom work, and the purpose is to explore factors decisive of whether women decide to refuse or accept an actual request to serve on a board of directors.

Eleven women, who had all attended the Female Future program conducted by NHO, participated in this study. All participants had previously received a request to serve on a board; five had decided to refuse such a request, and six to accept.

Three different approaches were applied to compare women who had refused a request to serve on a board, with those who had accepted such request. The first approach sought to discover if there were any personality differences between the two groups. A Norwegian version of the "Big Five" model (Costa & McCrae, 1992), named 5-PFs and developed by Engvik (1993), was used for this purpose.

The second approach was to interview women and ask them to reflect upon important positive and negative factors in accepting an actual request concerning a board position, and perceived opportunities and threats related to boardroom work. The well known strategic tool of SWOT analysis (Furnham, 1997) was used for this purpose.

The third approach was to ask participants in the same interviews to reflect upon changes they perceived as necessary to increase women's representation on boards of directors. The interviews have been analysed using quantitative content analysis (Krippendorff, 2004).

All three approaches had a common aim: to explore differences between the two groups that could shed light on factors guiding a final decision regarding board service, and to explore whether available motivational theories could reveal any differences between the groups. The Job Characteristics Model (Hackman & Oldham, 1976); and the Theory of Organizational Citizenship Behavior (Organ, 1988) were selected for this purpose.

Motivation.

The term motivation is important when one intends to explain people's decisions and behaviours. It is suggested that people can be motivated by factors inherent in work, where performance in itself provides pleasure and satisfaction. This satisfaction can also be related to meeting other people, forming social relationships and the like. It is also suggested that work is worthwhile because it has positive outcomes in other domains of life; it provides money for leisure or social status that may be considered important (Schrabracq, 2003a).

In accordance with this, at least two issues should be emphasized: the interaction between person and situation; and the changing nature of working life.

Person and situation. Motivation should be viewed as a psychological process resulting from the interaction between the environment and the individual (Latham & Pinder, 2005). Both personal and situational factors are known to interact and determine behaviour and decisions (Arnold, 2005), and the idea that particular personality traits can predict an individual's commitment and motivation has long attracted work psychologists. Today, assessments of personality are widely used in organizational procedures concerning selection and recruitment (Furnham, 1997).

The importance of personality is often reflected in models and theories concerning work motivation. As an example, one can mention Hackman & Oldham's (1976) Job Characteristics Model, which postulates that higher Growth Need Strengths (GNS) of individuals moderates the relationship between job characteristics and individual responses. Another example can be found in the theory of Organizational Citizenships Behaviour (OCB). The founder of this theory, Organ (1988) emphasized that individual differences would account for much of the variance in OCB.

Others claim that personality does not have a consistent or strong influence on what people look for in a job, nor on what they perceive as important in their work environment (Furnham, Petrides, Jackson & Cotter, 2002), regardless, personality along with situational factors should always be included as possible predictors of motivation.

The changing nature of working life. Work life has gone through dramatic changes the last decades (Lawler & Worley, 2006). To cover all of them is beyond the scope of this study, but three specific changes are of importance: the ongoing entry of women into work life (Geurts & Demerouti, 2003); the changes in organizational perceptions of employees from mere factors of production to whole beings and main assets for the organization (Whittington, Paulus & Quick, 2003); and the changes from strict hierarchical structures and individualized jobs towards more team-based work in autonomous groups (LePine, Erez & Johnson, 2002).

Work and non-work were for a long time considered two separate domains that did not influence one another (Geurts & Demerouti, 2003). This segregation perspective is no longer looked upon as valid, partly because of a lack of evidence, and partly because work life has changed. Women today form a substantial part of the active work force and as a consequence of this, there has been an increasing number of dual-earner couples and of employees with

care-giving responsibilities. This has increased interest in the relationship between work and non-work.

According to Levy-Leboyer (1988), most theoretical and methodological paradigms in the field of motivation only deal with variables concerning the internal environment of organizations. Variables such as family concerns, pleasure and social values in the environment are not considered as influential. The growing recognition of this interaction between work and non-work makes it difficult to believe that motivation can be fully understood by excluding people's activities outside work. Female candidates for board positions already have full-time job responsibilities, and it is, therefore, reasonable to presume that factors outside the internal work environment are considered before they make the final decision to serve on a board or not.

This view is also reflected in new perspectives in the field of work & health psychology, which increasingly recognises the importance of human capital and it is increasingly argued that employees and managers not should be looked upon as mere factors of production, but as whole beings (Whittington et al, 2003). A model that represents this view is "the whole life model" (Sherman & Hendricks, 1989), which consists of five arenas: work; community; spiritual; personal; and family. According to Whittington et al (2003), well-being is a function of commitment, balance of time, and the investment of emotional energy in each of these five arenas of life. This new perspective concerning the recognitions of employees' "whole lives", that is life at work and also life outside of work, are also included in the Norwegian working environment act (2005, section 4-3), concerning individuals' integrity and dignity.

In parallel with this, there has recently been increased interest in how to create a healthy organization. A healthy organization combines the well-being of employees and company effectiveness (Lindström, Schrey, Ahonen, & Kaleva, 2000), implying that organizational effectiveness and employee well-being can be fostered by a common set of organizational and job design characteristics (Murphy & Cooper, 2000).

Two different approaches to the topic of healthy organizations can be found in the literature. The first is in the area of work and occupational health psychology (Schrabracq, Winnubst & Cooper, 2003; Quick & Tetrick, 2003), and primarily focuses on identifying causes of distress and developing prevention strategies to deal with stressors and heal distress. Causes of eustress are given less attention (Nelson & Simmons, 2003). Nevertheless, in business research, building a case for the relationship between employee well-being and organizational effectiveness seems central (Bennet, Cook & Pelletier, 2003).

The second approach focuses more on high-performance practices, and how organizations can gain competitive advantages and organizational success by putting their people first and considering employees to be their most important asset (Pfeffer, 1998; Dive 2004). Research seems to confirm that investment in high-performance practices (performance appraisal, personnel selection, incentive compensation, job design, information sharing, attitude assessment, grievance procedures and labour-management participation) is indeed associated with greater productivity and corporate financial performance as well as lower employee turnover (Huselid, 1995). It should be emphasized that research on the relationship between investment in people and organizational effectiveness until now has been correlational in nature, and the direction of causality is often unclear (Bennet et al, 2003).

In addition, Pfeffer (1998) refers to new employment contracts, which have redefined the relationship between people and organizations. People are no longer expecting to spend their whole career with one company. Organizations, therefore, have to attract the best people by convincing them that the work and skills acquired in their organization will make them more employable when and if they have to leave. Peoples' opportunities to choose the most favourable organization increase as challenges related to the persistent shortage of skilled labour are recognized (Alvik, 2006).

Research conducted by The Great Place to Work Institute (2007a), responsible for the annual selection of the 100 best companies to work for in America, emphasize that great workplaces bring several benefits. One of especial interest to this study is related to the increased number of qualified applicants for vacant positions. This suggests a possible relationship between human resource practices and access to a wide pool of qualified candidates for vacant positions. Too little evidence on this issue has been presented, so the assumption has to be treated with caution. Nevertheless, companies and organizations should be aware that organizational procedures related to how they treat their people, can have an impact on how they are perceived by qualified candidates and influence candidates' decision on whether to work for the organization or not.

There has been a shift from the use of strict hierarchical structures and individualized jobs towards more autonomous team-based work structures (LePine et al, 2002), implying that work today is to a considerable extent designed around groups of people, instead of individuals. There is, therefore, a common belief that a full understanding of work motivation requires communal oriented motivational theories to supplement theories with an individualistic orientation, which until now have been the most common.

Borman & Motowidlo's (1993) distinction between task performance and contextual performance may shed a light on the difference between individualistic and collectivistic elements of importance in the work environment. Behaviour related to task performance bears a direct relation to the organization's technical core, by either maintaining or serving its technical requirements or by executing its technical processes. In contrast, behaviour related to contextual performance supports the broader organizational, psychological and social environment in which the technical core must function (Motowidlo &Van Scotter, 1994) , and is considered to be of increased importance as organizations become less hierarchically organized and as the importance of cooperation and individual initiative increases (Le Pine et al, 2002). Research evidence has demonstrated that both task performance and contextual performance contribute independently to overall performance (Motowidlo & Scotter, 1994). Two distinctions between contextual performance and task performance are suggested. Task activities vary across jobs, whereas contextual activities are quite similar across jobs, and while personality is considered to be the main antecedent of contextual performance, cognitive ability is the main antecedent of task performance (Borman, Penner, Allen & Motowidlo, 2001).

On the topic of healthy organizations one can also acknowledge the increased emphasises on the importance of a more collectivistic view with regard to how a work environment should be designed. The Great Place to Work Institute (2007b) mentions the importance of relationships between people and camaraderie. In the field of work and health psychology, a substantial body of research has been conducted on the topic of social support and its moderating effect on stress reactions (Schrabracq, 2003b). The National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) states that jobs should provide people with opportunities for personal interaction for the purpose of providing both emotional support and help in accomplishing assigned tasks (Sauter, Murphy & Hurrell, 1990).

The Job Characteristics Model and Organizational Citizenship Behavior. For this study, two different theories concerning work motivation were selected: the Job Characteristics Model (Hackman & Oldham, 1976); and the Theory of Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (Organ, 1988). According to the distinction made by Borman & Motowidlo (1993), the first model is concerned with task performance, while the latter is concerned with contextual performance. Both models emphasize a relationship between conditions in the work environment and organizational effectiveness.

 The Job Characteristics Model (JCM) may be considered one of the most popular approaches to task design (Roberts & Glick, 1981; Kompier, 2003). The model focuses on the

interaction between three classes of variables, and specifies the conditions under which individuals become internally motivated to perform effectively in their jobs (Hackman & Oldham, 1976).

Table 1. *Five core job characteristics according to JCM*

Job characteristics	Definition
Skill variety	Degree to which a job requires a variety of different activities to carry out the work. This involves a person's possibility to use a number of different talents and skills
Task identity	Degree to which the job requires a completion of a "whole" and identifiable piece of work, meaning doing a job from beginning to end with a visible outcome.
Task significance	Degree to which a job has substantial impact on the work or lives of other people, in the immediate organization or in the external environment.
Autonomy	Degree to which the job provides individuals with substantial freedom, discretion and independence to schedule work and to determine the procedures necessary to carry it out.
Feedback	Degree to which individuals obtain direct and clear information about the effectiveness of their performance.

These five core job dimensions (see Table 1) are seen as prompting three psychological states: experienced responsibility for outcomes; experienced meaningfulness of work; and knowledge of results. These in turn lead to a number of work and personal outcomes such as high internal work motivation, high-quality work performance, high job satisfaction and low turnover and absenteeism. The link between core job dimensions and outcomes is moderated by individual Growth Need Strength, and the model is thought to be useful only for individuals known to be high in GNS (Roberts & Glick, 1981).

This model can be considered to have an individualistic orientation. It is based on the expectancy theory of motivation (Vroom, 1964); and focuses on within person's relations, and situational and social influences on perceptions are not specified in this model. (Roberts & Glick, 1981).

One specific shortcoming of this model may be that it was developed in the 1960s, when the use of strict hierarchical structures and individualized jobs were common. The shift towards more autonomous team-based work structures (LePine et al, 2002) may have enhanced the importance of situational and social factors influence on motivation, performance and the like, suggesting that JCM may be insufficient in today's modern work life.

In addition, it may be appropriate to question whether the five core job dimensions in the JCM, are equally as important today as they were in the 1960s. The nature of individual work in developed countries has changed since then. People in managerial positions and candidates for board positions perform knowledge work, and are valued for their ability to think, analyse and solve problems. They do not perform the repetitive manual tasks that used to dominate the work environment (Lawler & Worley, 2006). This change has several consequences, and one of these is related to supervisors' opportunities to monitor employees' performance of work procedures. It follows from this that people in managerial positions are not evaluated on how they obtain certain results, but on the results they achieve. One can therefore question whether core job dimensions like task identity, autonomy and feedback are relevant constructs in designing knowledge work, or if they have become necessary for performing the work at all.

One other notion that could be mentioned is the fact that most motivational theories, and also the JCM, seem to be built on the premise; that individuals behave in ways that maximize the value of exchange with the organization (Leonard, Beauvais & Scholl, 1999). Few have suggested that people can be motivated by their opportunity to contribute to the good of the organization and the people working there. One theory that offers such a perspective is Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB: Organ, 1988).

The increased recognition of human capital as a key source of a company's competitive advantages (Lawler & Worley, 2006) has made organizations increasingly aware of their dependence on individuals willing to perform above and beyond their duty, regardless of requirements. As a result of this there has been a growing interest in the theory of Organizational Citizenship Behavior and several meta-analyses have been conducted on the topic (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Paine & Bachrach, 2000).

Organizational Citizenship Behavior was first defined by Organ (1988), as discretionary, unrewarded behaviour, performed by individuals, that in its aggregate enhances organizational effectiveness. Later, several difficulties related to the requirements in this definition were revealed. An individual's perception of behaviour as discretionary seems to vary from person to person (Kamdar, Turban & McAllister, 2006), and from situation to situation. For instance it has been found that organizational context (Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2004) and national culture (Paine & Organ, 2000) affects individuals' perceptions of whether OCBs are discretionary or not. In addition, research indicates that OCBs actually influence managers' decisions regarding reward and promotion, and OCBs should, therefore, not be considered totally unrewarded (Mackenzie, Podsakoff & Fetter, 1993). In addition, it

should be mentioned that the relationship between OCB and organizational effectiveness, is based on its conceptual plausibility rather than on empirical evidence (Podsakoff et al, 2000). Still, a few studies have shown a relationship between OCB and performance (Podsakoff, Ahearne & MacKenzie, 1997).

Organ (1997) later revised his original definition and excluded the requirements that behaviours be discretionary unrewarded by the formal reward system. OCB should now be considered behaviour important to the enhancement and maintenance of the psychological and social context that support task performance. In addition, Organ emphasized the new definition's similarity to contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993).

Organ (1988) initially assumed that individual differences would account for much of the variance in OCB, and dispensational factors like conscientiousness, agreeableness and positive affectivity have been found to have the strongest effect on OCB (Podsakoff et al, 2000). In later works, Organ has stated that while measures of contextual work attitudes like, organizational commitment, leader supportiveness and perceived fairness, demonstrate quite robust connections to OCB, dispensational measures with the exception of conscientiousness do not correlate nearly as well with OCB (Organ & Ryan, 1995).

While much of the research concerning antecedents for OCB is conducted on the individual level, others stress that OCB should also be understood as a context related phenomenon, since organizational culture clearly defines the "oughts" and "shoulds" of organizational life (Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2004; Comeau & Griffith, 2005).

Even if OCB has been given a lot of attention, one can still perceive a lot of confusion around the OCB construct and its different dimensions in the literature and research. In this study it was decided that seven dimension (see Table 2) of OCB suggested by Podsakoff et al. (2000) would be used.

Table 2. *Seven dimensions of OCB*

Dimension	Definition
Helping behaviour	Helping others with problems and also helping others in order to prevent problems.
Sportsmanship	Avoiding making complaints and having the ability to maintain a positive attitude in the face of obstacles.
Organizational Loyalty	Behaviour intended to protect the organization against external threats, and whenever possible promote it
Organizational compliance	An individual's acceptance and internalization of the organizations procedures, regulations and rules.
Individual initiative	An individual's performance in task-related behaviour that is beyond what is minimally required and includes voluntary act's of innovation and creativity with the intention of improving organizational effectiveness.
Civic virtue	A persons commitment to the organization and his or her willingness to contribute.
Self development	Voluntary behaviour that individuals engage in to improve their abilities, skills and knowledge.

SWOT analysis: some preliminary remarks

The SWOT analysis (Furnham, 1997) is presented in the method section, yet some remarks concerning this model are appropriate in the introduction. According to the theory of cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1957), people feel unpleasant psychological tension when two simultaneously accessible beliefs or thoughts are psychologically inconsistent, and to reduce psychological discomfort, adjust their thinking. When people are faced with an important decision, in which personal choice and responsibility are perceived, dissonance is produced. After making such decisions people reduce dissonance by downgrading the unchosen option and upgrading the chosen option (Myers, 2002). It follows from this that women who have refused a request to serve on a board may provide more information in response to questions concerning drawbacks and threats, while women who have accepted such a request may be more forthcoming to questions concerning advantages and opportunities.

Another theory that may be of interest is Schein`s (1996) theory concerning career anchors. Career anchors consist of a person's perceived abilities, talents and basic values. A career anchor is central to a person's self concept, and it is something that the person is not willing to abandon, even if she or he is forced to make a difficult choice. In

addition, Schein states that most people are not aware of their career anchor before they actually face a job offer. It follows from this that difference(s) between the two groups may be more likely to be found in questions related to advantages and disadvantages, related to an actual invitation, than in questions related to future opportunities and threats, concerning boardroom work in general.

Method

Participants

220 women who all previously had attended the Female Future Program received an e-mail from NHO, were they were given a brief presentation describing the study and an invitation to participate. Initially it was intended to interview women who had refused requests concerning board room attendance, but only five women volunteered. It was therefore decided to change the inclusion criteria for participation, and include women who had accepted requests concerning board room positions.

Eleven women were recruited; five who had refused an invitation to serve on a board (refusing group); and six who had accepted such invitations (accepting group). Randomization in the process of selection was preferred, but was not possible due to low response rate to the invitation letter. Selection bias, meaning that there is a probability that voluntary participants differ from non participants (Liebert & Liebert, 1995) may, therefore, be a significant threat to the validity in this study.

Participants ranged in age from 35 to 53 years and had an average age of 49.9 (SD = 6.4). They were all well educated, with 27, 3 percent of the sample members having master's degrees. Participants came from organizations in the eastern, western and southern part of Norway, representing businesses and industries in energy, financial services, IT, telecoms and research. 63.6 percent of the participants worked in public listed companies. All women had higher positions like Directors, Assistant Directors, Managers, and Senior Advisors. 72.7 % of the participants held board room positions. 72.7 percent of the women were married and 63. 6 percent had children under the age of 18.

Materials

Personality inventory. A Norwegian version of "The Big-Five" model (Costa & McCrae, 1992), named 5-PFs and developed by Engvik (1993) was used to measure personality. The 5-PFs is used for self-rating and are containing 166 items, measuring five

dimensions of personality: extraversion; agreeableness; conscientiousness; neuroticism; and openness. Nine out of eleven participants completed this inventory.

Interview. An interview guide (Appendix a) was developed for use in individual semi-structured interviews. Interviews started with questions concerning background variables like: age; marital status; children; education; career; professional position; off work activities etc.

Then six open-ended questions were asked. SWOT analysis (Furnham, 1997) has been used as a model for developing four of the interview questions. SWOT is an acronym for strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats, and is known to be a useful strategic tool both for individuals and organizations in strategic decision making. Results from a SWOT analysis give advice in regard to certain actions that should be taken, and in addition it optimally should produce a motivation to change in order to achieve a strategic fit. Weaknesses and strengths describe the competitive disadvantages and advantages of the entity being analyzed, while threats and opportunities stands for problems and chances present in the environment of the entity (Langer, Alfirevic & Pavicic, 2005)

Question number one and two in the interview referred to strengths and weaknesses, and were concerned with advantages and disadvantages participants had reflected upon, before deciding to serve the board or not. Question number three and four referred to future perceived opportunities and threats related to board room work. In addition, a question number five was asked; participants in the refusing group were asked about main reason to refuse; and participants in the accepting group were asked about main reason to accept. Information provided to this question, was later excluded from the analysis, because it was found to bias the comparison between the two groups.

In question number six, participants were asked to reflect upon changes they perceived as necessary to increase women's representation on boards of directors.

Probes were used when elaboration seemed necessary, and to assure that the content of the conversation was of value for the questions asked. Interview questions were previously pilot-tested with one Female Future participant to assure that text from the interviews would provide answers and insight of relevance to the purpose of this study. All material used in data collection were in Norwegian.

Procedure

Interviews were conducted at the women's workplace; the women's home; or in a hotel conference room. All participants signed an informed consent at arrival, where confidentiality was assured. Personality inventories were filled out in advance and received by

interviewer. Interviews were performed in an open ended conversational style with duration of approximately one hour (average time 57 min, range 36-96 min, SD 15.5 min). At the session's end, participants were thanked for their participation. All interviews were conducted in Norwegian.

Ethics

This research was planned and conducted in consistence with guidelines Norwegian authorities have instructed the University of Oslo to follow. Participation has been voluntary and confidentiality has been assured.

Data treatment and statistics.

Interview. In this study, interviews were analyzed stepwise as follows:

1. All interviews were taped and transcribed verbatim. Pauses and expressions like aha, hm, laughter and the like were not included in the transcriptions. Concerning reliability, one second judge transcribed two randomly selected interviews to assure correctness. The interviews were analyzed using quantitative content analysis.

2. In order to capture a sense of the whole, interviews were read and re- read.

3. Statements were drawn from the transcribed interviews. Statements of importance were defined as information provided by participants that clearly answered the six questions asked. A statement could be: part of a sentence; a sentence; or several sentences. Statements not answering the six questions were treated as irrelevant information and ignored. Statements containing information regarding participant's speculations of other people's feasible motivation for board room work were not drawn from the text. Statements were at this stage categorized with reference to questions asked in the interview.

4. Eight categories (see Table. 3) were formulated with precise boundaries for all important elements appearing in the statements given to the four SWOT questions: advantages; disadvantages; opportunities; and threats. Six categories (see Table. 4) were formulated with precise boundaries for all important elements appearing in the statements given to question number six concerning necessary changes to increase women's representation on boards of directors. The categories were mutually exclusive and presumed to be of scientifically interest.

5. In order to allow replication by others, a code book (Appendix b), containing definition of categories, inclusion criteria and procedure for coding was developed.

Table 3. *Categories developed to code statements given to the four SWOT questions*

Category	Definition
Competence	Individuals' perception concerning own ability, capacity, skill and knowledge
Contribution	Individuals' perception of possibility to contribute.
Organization	Individuals' perception of characteristics associated with the company/organization, where the individual is invited to serve on a board.
Commitment	Individuals' commitment and willingness to spend their time, energy and attention on board room work.
Intrinsic Motivation	Individuals' motivation related to factors inherent in board room work, where performance in itself provides pleasure and satisfaction.
Extrinsic Motivation	Individuals' motivation related to reward other than satisfaction, especially materials
Moral Motivation	Individuals' motivation to behave in a way that is considered as right or good by most people.
Self-Development	Individuals' motivation to develop by learning new skills, acquire more knowledge and work toward achieving their full potential.

Table 4. *Categories developed to code statements concerning necessary changes*

Category	Definition
Discrimination of women.	Women perceive they are held back as a result of stereotypes and bias toward women.
Recruitment for board positions.	Women are excluded from consideration in recruitment processes, partly because they lack necessary contact with decision makers, and partly because recruitment processes are happening behind closed doors. In addition, people have a tendency to recruit people similar to themselves.
Home/work interface.	Women's responsibility at home makes it difficult to deliberate time and energy for board room activities
Organizational procedures.	Organizations should focus more on women in internal processes concerning advancement and career opportunities, and make sure women are concerned equal to men in these processes.
Women's obligations.	Women are obligated to be visible, lower their threshold concerning how competent they need to be, and seek learning opportunities.
Diversity	Women's contribution to boards of directors, and the positive effect of diversity should be given more attention in media and press

6. Statements given to the four SWOT questions: advantages; disadvantages; opportunities; and threats were first categorized in accordance with these four questions. Frequencies were determined on individual level and group level, and an independent *t*-test and a mixed ANOVA were performed with the purpose to compare the two groups.

7. Statements given to the four SWOT questions were then interpreted and coded with reference to the eight categories developed (see Table 3). A second judge was used in this process of recoding, resulting in an agreement coefficient of 74.3 %. Frequencies concerning recoded advantages, recoded disadvantages, recoded opportunities and recoded threats were determined on individual level and group level. Independent *t*-tests and Mann- Whitney tests were performed with the purpose to compare the two groups.

8. Statements given to the four SWOT questions were then interpreted and coded with reference to the five job characteristics of The Job Characteristics Model (see Table. 1) and the seven dimensions of the Theory of Organizational Citizenship Behavior (see Table 2). Frequencies were determined on individual level and group level and independent *t*- test and Mann-Whitney test were applied to compare the two groups.

9. Statements provided to question six, concerning necessary changes, were interpreted and coded with reference to the six categories developed with boundaries to all important elements appearing in the statements (see Table.4). A second judge was used in this process, resulting in an agreement coefficient of 73.9 %. Frequencies were determined on individual level and group level. An independent *t*- test and a Mann-Whitney test were employed to compare the two groups.

Personality Inventory. Participants' scores on the five factors measured by 5-PFs were determined on individual level and group level. An independent *t*-test was performed to compare the two groups.

Results

Statements categorized in accordance with the SWOT model.

255 statements were given to the four SWOT questions: advantages; disadvantages; opportunities; and threats.

More statements were given to the questions concerning advantages, by the accepting group than the refusing group. The effect size was large (d =2.24), and an independent *t*-test showed that the difference between the accepting group and the refusing group was significant (see Table 5).

More statements were given, to the question concerning disadvantages, by the refusing group than the accepting group. The effect size was large (d =1.98), and an independent *t*-test showed that the difference between the accepting group and the refusing group was significant (see Table 5).

More statements were given, to the question concerning opportunities, by the accepting group than the refusing group. The effect size was large (d=1.58), and an independent *t*-test showed that the difference between the accepting group and the refusing group was significant (see Table 5). No significant differences between the groups were found in relation to threats.

Table 5. *Distribution of SWOT statements between the two groups*

SWOT question	Group	n	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig.
Advantages	**Refusing**	5	3.60	2.07	-3.60	9	.006*
	Accepting	6	9.00	2.76			
Disadvantages	**Refusing**	5	8.80	4.32	2.85▪	4.86	.037*
	Accepting	6	3.00	1.55			
Opportunities	**Refusing**	5	5.60	1.52	-2.40	9	.040*
	Accepting	6	9.17	2.99			
Threaths	**Refusing**	5	2.60	2.07	-1.37	9	.203
	Accepting	6	4.17	1.72			

▪ Equal variance not assumed
* p < .05, two tailed

The result from the independent t-test indicated existence of an interaction effect. A 2 x 4 mixed ANOVA design was employed, where group was between-subject factor and SWOT question was within-subjects factor. The main effect of SWOT questions was significant F (3, 27) = 5.24, p = .006, partial η^2 =.368, showing that number of statements given by participants were dependent on which question that was asked. The main effect of

group was not significant $F_{(1, 9)} = 2.05$, $p = .19$, partial $\eta^2 = .185$. Indicating that number of statements given to all four questions was not dependent on which group the participants belonged to. There was a significant interaction between group and type of SWOT question asked. $F_{(3, 27)} = 11.04$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .551$. This interaction is displayed in the graph below (Figure 1), showing that participants in the accepting group provided more information in response to the SWOT questions concerning advantages and opportunities, while the refusing group provided more information to the question concerning disadvantages.
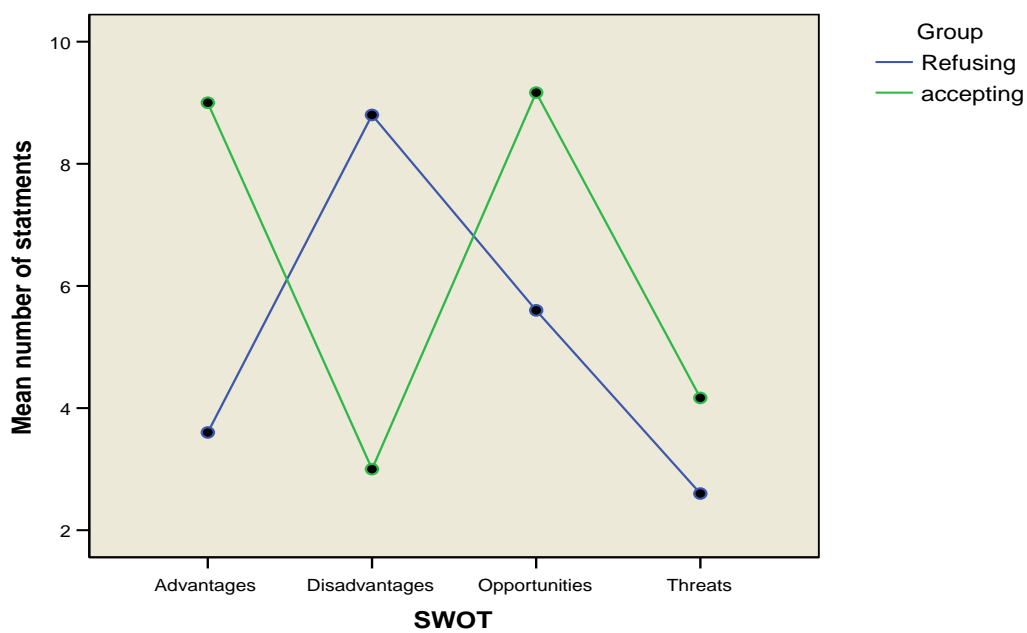
Figure 1. Interaction effect between groups and SWOT.

SWOT statements recoded.

Statements given to the four SWOT questions were interpreted and recoded with reference to eight categories developed with boundaries to all important elements appearing in the text. The results concerning recoded advantages, recoded disadvantages, recoded opportunities and recoded threats were statistically tested in order to find significant differences between the two groups. Results from these statistical tests, showed that significant differences between the two groups, only were found in relation to advantages and disadvantages, and results concerning recoded advantages and recoded disadvantages are the only results reported in this section.

Recoded advantages. The Accepting group mentioned, in relation to advantages, characteristics associated with the organization, where they were requested to serve on board, more frequently than the refusing group. The effect size was large (d = 1.9), and an independent *t*-test showed that difference between the accepting group and the refusing group was significant (see Table 6). This indicates that perception of organizational characteristics was decisive in their eventual acceptance of a board position. No other significant difference between the groups, in relation to advantages was found (see Table 6).

The significant result found by performing an independent *t*-test was confirmed by applying a Mann-Whitney Test, showing a significant difference between the accepting group and the refusing group in tendency to report organizational characteristics in relation to advantages. (U= 1.50, N_1= 5, N_2 = 6, p = .009, two-tailed).

Table 6. *Distribution of recoded Advantages into eight categories between the two groups*

Advantages	Group	n	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig
Competence	**Refusing**	5	1.40	1.14	-.78	9	.458
	Accepting	6	2.17	1.94			
Contribution	**Refusing**	5	1.00	1.22	-1.61	9	.141
	Accepting	6	2.17	1.17			
Organization	**Refusing**	5	.20	.45	-2.77▪	5.6	.035*
	Accepting	6	2.50	1.97			
Commitment	**Refusing**	5	.00	.00	-2.17▪	5	.082
	Accepting	6	1.33	1.51			
Intrinsic M.	**Refusing**	5	1.00	1.41	-.49	9	.635
	Accepting	6	1.33	.82			
Extrinsic M.	**Refusing**	5	.40	.55	.81	9	.438
	Accepting	6	.167	.41			
Moral M.	**Refusing**	5	.40	.55	-.98	9	.353
	Accepting	6	1.00	1.26			
Self-D.	**Refusing**	5	.40	.89	-1.10	9	.302
	Accepting	6	1.17	1.33			

▪ Equal variance not assumed
* p < .05, two tailed

Recoded disadvantages. Participants in the refusing group mentioned, in relation to disadvantages, characteristics associated with the organization, where they were requested to serve on board, more frequently than participants in the accepting group. The effect size was large (d = 2.14), and an independent *t*-test showed that the difference between the accepting group and the refusing group was significant (see Table 7). This indicates that perception of

organizational characteristics was decisive in refusal to serve on a board. No other significant difference between the two groups was found in relation to disadvantages (see Table 7).

The significant result found by performing an independent t-test was confirmed by applying a Mann-Whitney Test, showing a significant difference between the accepting group and the refusing group in tendency to report organizational characteristics in relation to disadvantages. (U= 2.500, N_1= 5, N_2 = 6, p = .017, two-tailed).

Table 7. *Distribution of recoded disadvantages into eight categories between the two groups*

Disadvantages	Group	n	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig
Competence	**Refusing**	5	2.20	2.68	1.83▪	4	.141
	Accepting	6	.00	.00			
Contribution	**Refusing**	5	.40	.89	.155	9	.880
	Accepting	6	.33	.52			
Organization	**Refusing**	5	3.20	1.30	3.54	9	.006*
	Accepting	6	.50	1.22			
Commitment	**Refusing**	5	4.40	4.04	1.27▪	4.8	.263
	Accepting	6	2.00	1.41			
Intrinsic M.	**Refusing**	5	.40	.89	.58	9	.579
	Accepting	6	.17	.41			
Extrinsic M.	**Refusing**	5	.20	.45	.13	9	.900
	Accepting	6	.17	.41			
Moral M.	**Refusing**	5	1.60	2.07	1.52▪	4.3	.199
	Accepting	6	.17	.41			
Self Dev.	**Refusing**	5	.00	.00			
	Accepting	6	.00	.00			

▪ Equal variance not assumed
* p < .05, two tailed

Swot statements coded with reference to OCB and JCM.

Statements given to the four SWOT questions were interpreted and coded with reference to OCB and JCM.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior. Four of OCB's seven dimensions were identified in the 255 statements given to the SWOT questions (see Table 8). The dimension of civic virtue was found to explain a difference between the two groups, meaning that the participants in the accepting group reported significantly more often, than the refusing group, their commitment to the organization and their willingness to contribute. The effect size was large (d = 2.34), and an independent t-test showed that the difference between the accepting group and the refusing group was significant (see Table 8.).

Table 8. *Distribution of statement coded with reference to OCB between the two groups*

OCB dimension	Group	n	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig
Civic virtue	**Refusing**	5	1.60	1.14	-3.53	9	.006*
	Accepting	6	5.67	2.34			
Self Development	**Refusing**	5	2.60	1.14	-1.08	9	.308
	Accepting	6	3.83	2.32			
Helping behaviour	**Refusing**	5	.00	.00	-2.02	9	.074
	Accepting	6	.50	.55			
Org. Compliance	**Refusing**	5	1.40	2.07	.598	9	.565
	Accepting	6	.83	.98			

* p < .05, two tailed

None of the other OCB dimensions were able to explain differences between the two groups (see Table 8).

The significant result found in the independent *t*-test was confirmed by applying a Mann-Whitney Test, showing a significant difference between the accepting group and the refusing group in tendency to report civic virtue. (U= .00, N_1= 5, N_2 = 6, p = .004, two-tailed).

Job Characteristics Model. Three of five core job characteristics in JCM were identified in the 255 statements. None of the core-job dimensions were able to explain any difference between the two groups. An independent *t*-test revealed no significant differences between the two groups (see Table 9), and a Mann-Whitney test confirmed this finding.

Table 9. *Distribution of statement coded with reference to JCM between the two groups*

Core Job Characteristics	Group	n	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig
Skill variety	**Refusing**	5	1.20	1.79	-1.31	9	.224
	Accepting	6	2.50	1.52			
Task significance	**Refusing**	5	.60	.89	-.89	9	.395
	Accepting	6	1.33	1.63			
Feedback	**Refusing**	5	.40	.55	-.30	9	.770
	Accepting	6	.50	.55			

Changes necessary to increase women's representation on boards of directors.

A total of 90 statements were given to question 6; concerning necessary changes to increase women's representation on boards. It was found that participants who had refused invitations to serve on a board reported problems associated with the home/work interface more frequently, than those who had accepted such invitations.

The effect size was large (d = 1.72), and an independent *t*-test revealed that the difference between the accepting group and the refusing group was significant (see Table 10). No other significant differences between the two groups were found in relation to necessary changes.

The significant result found in the independent *t*-test was not confirmed by applying a Mann-Whitney Test, showing no significant difference between the accepting group and the refusing group in tendency to report problems associated with the home work interface. (U= 4.00, N_1= 5, N_2 = 6, p = .052, two-tailed). Since the result could be considered as minor significant, and significant result in the independent t- test was found, the relationship was considered significant and discussed in accordance with this.

Table 10. *Distribution of coded statements concerning changes between the two groups*

Necessary changes	Group	n	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig
Discrimination of women	**Refusing**	5	.60	.89	-1.21	9	.258
	Accepting	6	2.50	3.40			
Recruitment to boards	**Refusing**	5	2.20	2.28	.389	9	.706
	Accepting	6	1.67	2.25			
Home/work interface	**Refusing**	5	1.80	1.48	2.61	9	.028*
	Accepting	6	.17	.41			
Organizational procedure	**Refusing**	5	.40	.55	-2.21▪	6.6	.065
	Accepting	6	1.83	1.47			
Women's obligations	**Refusing**	5	2.60	1.95	1.32	9	.219
	Accepting	6	1.33	1.21			
Diversity	**Refusing**	5	1.00	1.22	.214	9	.835
	Accepting	6	.83	1.33			

▪ Equal variance not assumed
* p < .05, two tailed

Personality.

The result from the personality inventory, 5-PFs, is presented in Figure 2. Both groups mean scores are above average. It should be noted that high scores on neuroticism in this inventory, indicate absence of feelings related to neuroticism.
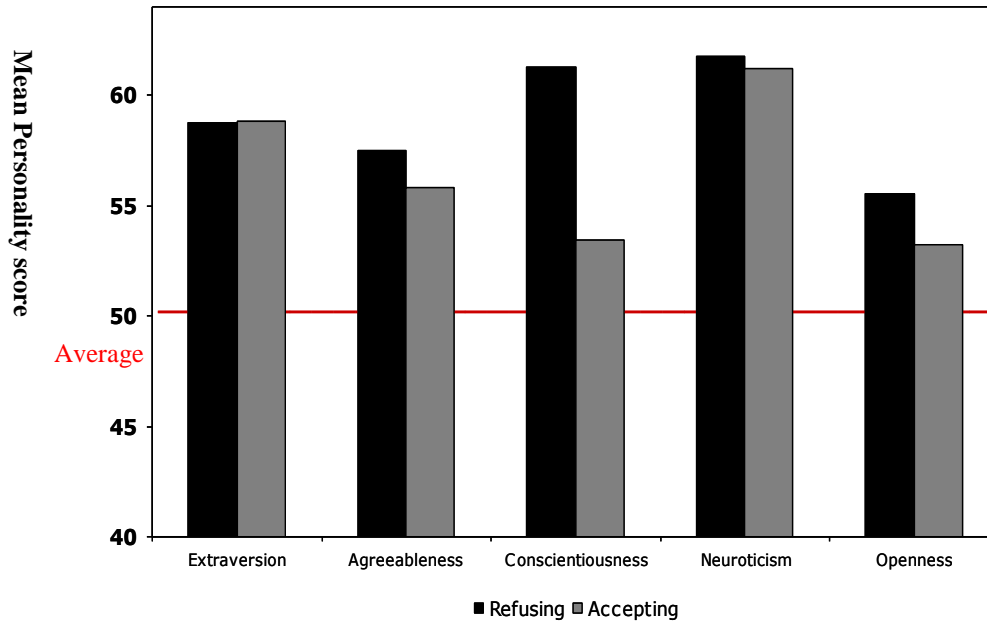
Figure 2. Mean personality scores in refusing and accepting group.

The largest difference in mean between the two groups, were found in relation to conscientiousness, however, when performing an independent *t*-test, no significant differences between the two groups were found (See Table 11).

Table 11. *Distribution of personality scores between the two groups*

Personality trait	Group	n	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig
Extraversion	**Refusing**	5	58.75	6.24	-.014	7	.989
	Accepting	6	58.80	4.55			
Agreeableness	**Refusing**	5	57.50	2.38	1.09	7	.312
	Accepting	6	55.80	2.28			
Conscientiousness	**Refusing**	5	61.25	3.59	1.75	7	.124
	Accepting	6	53.40	8.29			
Neuroticism	**Refusing**	5	61.75	6.65	.12	7	.910
	Accepting	6	61.20	7.22			
Openness	**Refusing**	5	55.50	5.07	.61	7	.563
	Accepting	6	53.20	6.06			

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to explore factors guiding women's decisions to either accept or refuse invitations to serve on a board of directors. After comparing participants who had accepted requests to serve on a board with those who had refused, six findings of interest were reported.

1. Participants in the accepting group provided significantly more information in response to the SWOT questions concerning advantages and opportunities than did participants in the refusing group, while participants in the refusing group provided significantly more information in response to the SWOT question concerning disadvantages. An interaction effect between the questions asked and the decision taken was found. No difference between the two groups was found in relation to threats.

2. It was found that women who had accepted invitations to serve on a board reported characteristics associated with the organization significantly more frequently in relation to the question concerning advantages, than did women who had refused such invitations. This indicates that perception of organizational characteristics was decisive in their eventual acceptance of a board position.

3. It was found that women who had refused invitations to serve on a board reported characteristics associated with the organization significantly more often in response to the question concerning disadvantages than the women who had accepted such requests. This indicates that perception of organizational characteristics was decisive in refusal to serve on the board.

4. It was found that the Theory of Organizational Citizenship Behavior (Organ, 1988) was able to explain a difference between the two groups through the dimension of civic virtue, which refers to an interest in, or a commitment to, the organization as a whole, and a willingness to contribute (Podsakoff et al, 2000). The Job Characteristic Model (Hackman & Oldham, 1976) failed to explain any difference between the two groups.

5. It was found that participants in the refusing group reported problems associated with the home/work interface significantly more frequently than the accepting group.

6. No significant personality difference between the two groups was found.

The refusing group provided more information in response to the question concerning disadvantages, whereas the accepting group provided more information in response to questions concerning advantages and opportunities. The theory of cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1957) provides a suitable explanation for these findings. When people are faced with an important decision, in which personal choice and responsibility are perceived, dissonance is produced. After making such decisions, people reduce dissonance by downgrading the unchosen option and upgrading the chosen option (Myers, 2002).

Overall, it seems that the SWOT analysis can be a useful tool when one aims to explore factors important and decisive for making choices. In addition, it should be mentioned that the questions concerning advantages and disadvantages related to an actual invitation to serve on a board, seemed more appropriate for exploring differences between the two groups, than those related to future opportunities and threats, especially when statements given to the four SWOT questions were recoded into eight categories. According to Schein's (1996) theory concerning career anchors, people are not aware of their career anchors before they actually face a job offer. When exploring people's motivations concerning careers one should, therefore, concentrate on actual invitations, or at least acknowledge that real-life situations may be more reliable and provide more accurate information; than questions concerning hypothetical opportunities and threats.

The Job Characteristics Model (Hackman & Oldham, 1976) failed to reveal any differences between the two groups. This model was developed several decades ago, at a time when the use of strict hierarchical structures and individualized jobs were more common (LePine et al, 2002). Boardroom work is organized around an autonomous group of knowledge workers responsible for the company's future, and the theoretical background of the model and its individualistic perspective may not be appropriate to explain women's motives for choosing boardroom work, and especially not when the work is of a voluntary nature. It seems that the five core job characteristics proposed in this model are of minor importance when women are considering serving on a board.

An additional explanation may be that this model concerns task performance (Borman et al, 2001). Task activities vary from job to job, and are presumably invisible to people outside the organization, who are considering an invitation to serve on the board, if so, it may be that the JCM remains useful as a design theory, at least for individualized jobs, where the purpose is to enhance internal motivation, performance and satisfaction, but not sufficient to explain motivational factors important in attracting candidates for board positions.

The theory of Organizational Citizenship Behavior (Organ, 1988) explained a difference between the two groups through its dimension of civic virtue, which refers to an interest or a commitment to the organization as a whole and willingness to contribute (Podsakoff et al, 2000). It seems that this theory's collectivistic orientation is better suited to explain motivational factors related to female candidates for board positions, where perceived opportunity to contribute is more important than individuals' expectations of rewards. One explanation for this may be that OCB was initially defined as discretionary behavior, not necessarily part of an individual's job description. This seems to fit the characteristics of boardroom work, which in most cases would be considered voluntary. Even if Organ (1997) excluded the requirements concerning discretionary behaviour from the definition of OCB; and stated that it did not seem fruitful to regard OCB as an extra role, one should realize that people's perception of whether behaviour is discretionary or not, may be twofold. When female candidates for board positions receive an invitation to serve on a board, it is more than likely to presume that they perceive boardroom work as an extra- role, in which they can voluntarily engage in addition to their regular job. However if they decide to serve the board, they will most likely enlarge their job description and perceive the boardroom work as a part of their work obligations. This distinction concerning discretionary behaviour is already suggested in research, where it is found that people engage in OCB as a form of reciprocity; based on how the organizations treat them. Individuals then enlarge their job description by incorporating OCBs into their job (Jacqueline, Shapiro, Kessler & Purcell, 2004).

    An additional explanation can be that OCB is concerned with contextual performance, which is similar from job to job, and the theory consists of dimensions that people can relate to even if they not are a part of the organization, or are familiar with the organization's internal operations and work conditions. Motivational theories concerning contextual performance may, therefore, be more appropriate to explain people's motivation and decisions to work for one specific organization than theories concerning task performance.

    Since OCB was proposed, there has been an ongoing discussion concerning its antecedents, and both personality factors and situational factors have been suggested as important determinants of OCB (Podsakoff et al, 2000). This study found no difference in personality between the two groups. Nevertheless, it is beyond the scope of this study to conclude that personality is not a potential predictor of OCB, since both groups scored higher than average on personality traits such as agreeableness and conscientiousness, which are known to be central to OCB (Podsakoff et al, 2000). However, it seems appropriate to

presume that situational factors are stronger determinants of women's behaviour and decisions regarding board attendance, than personality traits.

Significant findings show that managerial women's perceptions of organizational characteristics are decisive in their choices of whether to serve on a board, indicating that some organizations are perceived as more favourable to work for than others. Of course, preferences for one organization over another may vary from person to person and can be dependent on for, instance, women's perceptions of their own skills and competences and the relationship between the organization where women work daily and the organization that invites them to serve on a board. It may still be true that some organizations are overall more favourable than others, and that certain characteristics associated with organizations are equally valued by most people.

This leads us to the topic of healthy organizations (Murphy & Cooper, 2000), which may serve as an appropriate theoretical reference to explain why some organizations are more favourable to work for than others. However research evidence on this topic is not yet sufficient, to draw any conclusions. Even if there seems to be a link between investments in people and their well-being and organizational effectiveness (Huselid, 1995; Bennet et al, 2003), most of these studies are correlational by nature and the direction of causality is often unclear (Bennet et al, 2003). Whether healthy organizations also are able to attract more skilled applicants for vacant positions is even more speculative, even if this is suggested by research conducted by the Great Place to Work Institute (2007a). More studies need to be conducted on these issues, and it is especially necessary to explore motivational factors influencing people's preferences for specific organizations. Organizations should also focus on their ability to attract skilled and competent people, especially at time typified by challenges related to shortages of skilled labour.

When participants were asked about necessary changes to increase women's attendance on boards of directors, it was found that the refusing group mentioned problems associated with work/family interface significantly more frequently than participants in the accepting group. This could indicate that a conflict between work and non-work is a substantial hindrance for women's commitment to serve on a board. However, no significant differences concerning these issues were found between the groups in relation to the SWOT questions. It is, therefore, more likely that perceptions of organizational characteristics are decisive of whether women are willing to divert time, energy and attention from activities in other life domains, which they appreciate and perceive as important in their lives.

People's lives are filled with obligations both at and outside work. It follows from this that people's whole lives are of interest, and influence their motivations and decisions. Motivational theories concerning factors important in attracting suitable people to organizations should, therefore, always include factors outside the work domain, especially when organizations intend to attract board members, who already have work responsibilities. This issue concerns people's integrity (Schrabracq, 2003a). To work for a non-appreciated organization and divert time and energy from other domains in life, hurts an individual's integrity and can be harmful to their well being, seen as a function of commitment, balance of time, and the investment of emotional energy in different arenas in life (Whittington et al, 2003). In order to accept and be willing to divert time and energy from other domains in life, it seems that women have to appreciate the organization they are asked to serve.

Practical implications and suggestions for future research.

Kochan et al (2003) provides several arguments for why organizations should invest in diversity. Regarding the inclusion of women on boards of directors, the emphasis has been on proving women's contribution in the boardroom (Fondas, 2000), which could be considered as discriminatory by nature. Managerial women and men should be recognized as equals, and women should not be forced to prove a genuine contribution based on gender in order to be considered for board positions.

Instead of focusing on women's contribution to boards, and seeking conclusive evidence of contribution, organizations should shift their focus towards another important argument in the "business case" of diversity, and recognize possible challenges related to the shortage of skilled and competent board members. By excluding women as candidates for company boards, organizations automatically rule out a large pool of qualified potential board members that could represent future competitive advantages for the company.

Organizations should recognize that how they are perceived by female board candidates is decisive in whether these women decide to accept or refuse a request to serve on their boards. Organizations should, therefore, consider how attractive they are to skilled and competent people, and make adjustments if necessary. Why people perceive some organizations as attractive and others unattractive should be further explored.

More research is needed on the topic of healthy organizations and especially on the relationship between health and the ability to attract the best people. If investments in people inside the organization have a positive effect on their ability to attract the best people for open positions, the business case for creating a healthy organization would be strengthened. More

research concerning OCB as an appropriate motivational theory to incorporate in the model of healthy organizations should also be explored, especially because of its collectivistic orientation which may be appropriate to modern work life.

Limitations.

It should be noted that this study is concerned with correlational relationships only, and no causal evidence is provided. Another limitation is the lack of randomization of participants selected for this study. Randomization was preferred, but was not possible due to low response rate to the invitation letter. Selection bias may, therefore, be a significant threat to the validity of this study. In addition, a rather small sample is used, which may reduce the statistical power of the analysis.

This study is concerned with female candidates for board positions, and the results are only intended as valid for this group. Nevertheless, challenges related to a persistent shortage of skilled labour; may cause problems for all kinds of organizations in attracting all kinds of necessary workers, so the necessity of focusing on organizational attractiveness should be taken seriously by most companies.

Conclusion.

In this study, it was found that factors guiding women's decisions to serve on boards could be explained by the motivational theory of organizational citizenship behavior. This theory has a collectivistic orientation and concerns people's motivations to contribute to a larger whole, rather than to obtain reward. The model's initially assumption concerning discretionary behaviour seems to fit the description of boardroom work as voluntary work. In addition, it is suggested that motivational theories concerning contextual performance may be more adequate to explain people's motivations and decisions to work for an organization or not, than theories concerning task performance.

The most important factor in managerial women's decisions concerning board attendance seems to be organizational characteristics, and, more specifically, the candidate's perception of an organization's attractiveness. In addition, it was found that women's whole lives are of importance when they are considering an offer, and the individual's appreciation of an organization seems to be a prerequisite before she is willing to divert time, energy and attention from other domains in life.

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Interview guide

Deltager nr:………..

Bakgrunnsvariabler:

1. Alder:

2. Stilling:

3. Bosted:

4. Sivil status:

5. Barn:

6. Mors yrke:

7. Fars yrke

8. Utdanning (etter videregående):

9. Ansettelse forhold etter endt utdanning:

10. Faglige interesseområder:

11. Hobby

12. Frivillig arbeid:

13: styreverv i dag:

SWOT:

Innledning til SWOT: til de som har takket nei til styreverv: Dersom du tenker tilbake til da du fikk tilbud om styrevervet som du valgte å takke nei til. Du gjorde sikkert en vurdering av argumenter for og imot før du tok beslutningen:

Innledning til SWOT: til de som har takket ja til styreverv: Dersom du tenker tilbake til da du fikk tilbud om styrevervet som du valgte å takke ja til. Du gjorde sikkert en vurdering av argumenter for og imot før du tok beslutningen

1. Hva talte for at du skulle takke ja?

2. Hva talte mot at du skulle takke ja?

3. Dersom du tenker fremover, hvilke muligheter ville styreverv kunne gi deg?

4. Hvilke risiko er det forbundet med å ta styreverv?

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5. Til Nei: Hva tror du var den avgjørende årsaken til at du takka nei?

   Til Ja: Hva tror du var den avgjørende årsaken til at du takka ja?

6. Hvilke endringer ved nåværende situasjon mener du er nødvendige, eller ønskelige for at du og andre kvinner skal takke ja til styreverv og at andelen av kvinner i norske styrer skal øke?

Code book

Interpretations and coding of SWOT statements.

Eight categories (competence, contribution, organization, commitment, intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, moral motivation and self- development) were developed to interpret and code all important elements mentioned in relation to the four SWOT questions concerning: advantages; disadvantages; opportunities; and threats. The eight categories are mutually exclusive. Inclusion criteria are not necessary mutually exclusive, but intended to be helpful in the process of coding. Since interviews were conducted in Norwegian, the examples of statements used in this appendix are not fully identical with actual statements drawn from the interview text.

Procedure:

1. It is important to study the categories and the inclusion criteria before interpretation and coding of statements.
2. Read statement.

3. Think: what is she referring to? Which of the elements (categories) are mentioned? Example: *"it was obvious that I could not accept, because it was a totally different type of business, and I was asked to serve as the head of the board, without having relevant experience".* Interpretation: the participant is referring to type of business which she is unfamiliar with, and she is not competent because of lack of experience for the specific role she is requested for. Solution: category **3** (organization, inclusion criterion: characteristics concerning type of business), and category **1** (competence, inclusion criterion: individuals' perception of not being the right person and/or not being competent). Mark of 1 and 3.

4. One statement can be interpreted using several categories, but if participants mention one category several times in one statement it should only be counted once. Example: *"I was not competent; one has to be competent in order to accept invitations to serve on boards".* Competence, category 1, should only be counted once.

5. In regard to inter-rate reliability, it is important to use a second judge in the process of coding. An agreement coefficient should be calculated, this is done by dividing the total number of agreement by the total number of coding decisions (Kolbe & Burnett, 1991).

1. Competence

Competence: "the fact of having the ability or skill that is needed for something" (Waters, 2004, p. 133).

Definition: Individuals' perceptions concerning own ability, capacity, skills and knowledge.

Elaboration: Individuals considering a board position, reflect upon their own competence; if they are competent for the position or not. In addition, they reflect on others perception of their competence.

Inclusion criteria:
- Individuals perceive their competence is asked for.
- Individuals' perception of being qualified for the board room position.
- Individuals' perception of being the right person.
- Individuals' perceptions of being wanted for the job, because of their competence. Includes perceived support from the organization that has invited them.
- Individuals are insecure about having the right competence
- Individuals perceive a possibility to use their competence.
- Individuals' perception of not being the right person and/or not being competent

2. Contribution.

Contribution: "to give a part of the total, together with others" (Waters, 2004, p. 145).

Definition: Individuals' perception of possibility to contribute**.**

Elaboration: the category does only include a perceived possibility to contribute, not a willingness to contribute. Even if individuals perceive a possibility to contribute, they may still be uncommitted to do so, for several other reasons. Contribution seems also similar to

moral motivation, but statements concerning contribution do not provide information concerning doing the best for the organization and its people.

Inclusion criteria:
- Individuals perceive they have a possibility to contribute
- Individuals perceive they don't have a possibility to contribute
- Individuals are insecure concerning their possibility to contribute.

3. Organization.

Organization: "A group of people who form a business, club etc. together in order to achieve a particular aim" (Waters, 2004, p. 454).

Definition: Individuals' perceptions of characteristics associated with the company/organization where the individual is invited to serve on a board.

Elaboration: individuals are evaluating the company, reflecting on type of business, financial standing, board composition, and if there is any indication of conflict between the organizations they work in daily and the organization that invites them to serve on a board.

Inclusion criteria:
- Characteristics concerning type of business, financial standing, leadership, board room composition.
- Match between person and organization concerning type of business, interest and values.
- Mismatch between person and organization concerning type of business, interests and values.
- Match between the organization they work in daily and the organization that invites them to serve on a board.
- Mismatch between the organization they work in daily and the organization that invites them to serve on a board (legal competence, ethical questions, not receiving support from work etc.).

4. Commitment.

Commitment: "Being prepared to give a lot of your time and attention to do something because you believe it is right or important" (Waters, 2004, p. 131).

Definition: Individuals' commitment and willingness to spend time, energy and attention on board room work.

Elaboration: individuals have a certain time and energy to use in different arenas in life. This often involves prioritizing. Individuals reflect on their willingness to divert time and energy from other domains in life.

Inclusion criteria:
- Individuals' willingness to be a part of a larger whole
- Individuals' willingness to use of their time and energy
- Individuals' unwillingness to spend time and energy on board room work, because it takes time and energy from leisure.
- Individuals' unwillingness to spend time and energy on board room work, because it takes time and energy from family.
- Individuals' unwillingness to spend time and energy on board room work, because it takes time and energy from their work.
- Individuals' insecurity concerning willingness to contribute

5. Intrinsic Motivation:

Intrinsic: "Belonging to something as part of its nature" (Waters, 2004, p. 352).
Motivation: "A driving force or forces responsible for the initiation, persistence, direction, and vigour of goal- directed behaviour" (Colman, 2003, p. 464).

Definition: Individuals' motivation related to factors inherent in board room work, where performance in itself provides pleasure and satisfaction.

Elaboration: Satisfaction and pleasure are experienced here and now. Individuals reflect on how much they enjoy the work and all the activities associated with it.

Inclusion criteria:

- Individuals find board room activities interesting, fun and exciting
- Individuals find satisfaction in forming social relationships and working with other people, including helping other people
- Individuals find satisfaction in variety, doing something different from what they are doing in their daily work.
- Individuals find satisfaction in seeking, accepting and overcoming challenges.

6. Extrinsic motivation:

Extrinsic: "on the outside" (Colman, 2003, p. 262).

Motivation:" a driving force or forces responsible for the initiation, persistence, direction, and vigour of goal directed behaviour" (Colman, 2003, p. 464).

Definition: Individuals' motivation related to reward other than satisfaction, especially materials.

*Elaboration***:** includes often a calculative involvement. Individuals reflect on reward outside the work itself, and work is worthwhile because it has positive outcomes in other domains of life.

*Inclusion Criteria***:**

- Individuals perceive that board attendance will have positive effect on social status, recognition, visibility and opportunities for network.
- Individuals perceive that board attendance will be rewarded with compensation/money.
- Individuals perceive that board attendance will provide them with future career opportunities.
- Individuals perceive that board attendance may harm their reputation and future career opportunities.

7. Moral Motivation:

Moral: "Having a high standard of behaviour that is considered good or right by most people" (Waters, 2004, p. 421).

Motivation: a driving force or forces responsible for the initiation, persistence, direction, and vigour of goal- directed behaviour" (Colman, 2003, p. 464).

Definition: Individuals' motivation to behave in a way that is considered as right or good by most people.

Elaboration: refers in general to motivation from doing what's right and includes the individual's commitment to do what's best for the organization and the people working there.

Inclusion criteria:
- Individuals' perception of their obligation and responsibility to do their best for the organization and its people, including knowledge of results.
- Individuals' perception of their responsibility related to formalities, organizational procedures, regulations and rules (including economic, legal and ethical issues).
- Individuals' perception of their responsibility associated with doing a good job and reach the right decisions
- Individuals' perception of not being motivated or competent to handle the responsibility associated with the board room position.
- Individuals' feels obligated to accept board positions after attending Female Future.

8. Self- development

Self: "a persons own nature and qualities" (Waters, 2004, p. 575).

Development: "the process of becoming bigger, stronger, better etc**.**" (Waters, 2004, p. 182).

Definition: Individuals' motivation to develop by learning new skills, acquire more knowledge and work toward achieving their full potential.

Elaboration: learning is a key word. When individuals receive an invitation to serve on a board, they reflect on their possibility to improve their competences, skills and abilities.

- Possibility to improve knowledge, skills, abilities and competence in general, including possibility to learn from others.

- Possibility to keep abreast of the latest developments in one's field and area

- Insight into other type of businesses.

- Possibility to use competence and develop and learn.

Interpretation and coding of statements given to question six, concerning necessary changes.

In order to interpret and code all important elements mentioned in statements provided to question six, six mutually exclusive categories were developed. Inclusion criteria are not necessary mutually exclusive but intended to be helpful in the process of interpretation and coding. Follow the same procedure as given in relation to coding of the four SWOT questions.

1. Discrimination of women.

Discrimination: "treating one person or group of people worse than other" (Waters, 2004, p. 189).

Definition: Women perceive they are held back as a result of stereotypes and bias towards women.

Inclusion criteria:

- Women should be perceived as equal to men, concerning competence

- Men's attitude towards women is a problem

- Men and women are treated differently

- Men seems unwilling to share power with women

- Men (and organizations) do not realize that women represent resources beneficial to organizations.

2. Recruitment for board positions.

Recruit: "to find new people to join a company, an organization, the armed force, etc"
(Waters, 2004, p. 531).

Definition: Women are excluded from consideration in recruitment processes, partly because they lack necessary contact with decision makers, and partly because recruitment processes are happening behind closed door. In addition people have a tendency to recruit people similar to themselves.

Inclusion criteria:

- NHO have listed all Female Future candidates, and made them easy accessible on internet. Participants emphasises that this is not sufficient in order to establish contact with recruiters. Network and personal recommendations are crucial in this process.
- Decision makers recruit people who are similar to themselves
- Selection processes are happening behind closed door, making it possible for decision makers to bias the process.

3. Home/work interface.

Interface: "the point where two subjects, systems, etc meet and affect each other"
(Waters, p. 350).

Definition: Women's responsibility at home makes it difficult to deliberate time and energy for board room activities.

Inclusion criteria:
- Women are still responsible for home and family, giving them less time and energy for board room activities.
- Men have to take more responsibility at home, and men's responsibility should be more recognized.

4. Organizational procedures.

Procedures: "the usual or correct way for doing something". (Waters, 2004, p. 505).

Definition: organizations should focus more on women in internal processes concerning advancement and career opportunities, and make sure women are considered equal as men in these processes.

Inclusion criteria:

- It is important to give extra attention to women in internal processes concerning advancement and career opportunities.
- Women must be given the opportunities and positions necessary for future board room positions.
- Organizations should make it possible for women to engage in board room work, by deliberating time and energy from other work activities.

5. Women's obligations.

Obligation: "the state of having to do something, because it is a law or duty, or because you have promised". (Waters, 2004, p. 444).

Definition: Women are obligated to be visible, lower their threshold concerning how competent they need to be, and seek learning opportunities.

Inclusion criteria:

- Women need to be visible
- Women need to seek and accept opportunities
- Women must believe in themselves and lower their threshold concerning how competent they need to be, in order to perceive themselves as competent
- Women should seek learning opportunities.

6. Diversity.

Diversity: "the wide variety of something" (Waters, 2004, p. 195).

Definition: Women's contribution to boards of directors and the positive effect of diversity should be given more attention in media and press.

Inclusion criteria:

- Women's contribution to boards should be emphasized and given attention.
- The positive effect of diversity should be used in argumentation to increase women's representation on boards.

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