

Understanding Women's Experiences with Women-Only Leadership Development Programs in Higher Education: A Mixed Methods Approach

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UNDERSTANDING WOMEN'S EXPERIENCES WITH WOMEN-ONLY
LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS IN
HIGHER EDUCATION: A MIXED
METHODS APPROACH

by:

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ABSTRACT
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Previous research indicated that women’s advancement into the leadership and administrative ranks in higher education has stalled over the past twenty years. Studies highlighted the socio-cultural and structural barriers that create challenges for women’s advancement in the academy. This study focused on the use of women-only leadership development programs (WLDPs) as a potential resource for women in the pursuit of advancing their careers. Few research studies to date assess the outcome for women who have attended WLDPs.

This study was an in-depth case study of the Women in Higher Education Leadership Summit (WHELS) held at the University of San Diego, School of Leadership and Education Studies. Using a sequential transformative mixed methods design, 95 WHELS alumnae were contacted to answer the research question “How do women from various social locations understand the influence of WHELS on their career plan/trajectory?” Using a quantitative survey (37% response rate), followed by qualitative interviews, five main hypotheses were tested to determine if WHELS alumnae reported improved leadership identity, improved leadership ability, improved understanding of effective leadership styles, whether they had advanced in their career, and if alumnae attributed WHELS to their advancement.

Based upon the findings all five hypotheses were supported by the quantitative data. Qualitative data also supported the quantitative findings, but it provided clarification into how women experienced WHELS. The qualitative findings revealed that women reported benefitting from attending WHELS, it confirmed the leadership ability and style the women already possessed. WHELS built women’s self-awareness and self-confidence, allowing women to adopt a leadership identity. Women benefitted from this leadership identity as it built their self-efficacy and agency.

This study confirmed that women do face socio-cultural and structural barriers in institutions of higher education, which create barriers to their advancement into leadership roles. However, through the completion of WHELS, the participants of this study built self-confidence in their leadership abilities, adopting a leadership identity. Through this process the women in this study returned to their institutions with self-efficacy and agency. The study concludes with a discussion of the findings, limitations, recommended future research, and implications for action.

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Chapter 1:

Introduction

Higher education has a responsibility to promote women's career development due to its role in creating and disseminating knowledge and educating future leaders. Universities need to 'look' more like the student population, which is over 50% female and increasingly racially and ethnically diverse. To that end, higher education must create a culture and infrastructure supportive of women...This means that the culture structure, policies and rewards must be consistent with promoting diversity and women in the organization. (Thomas, Bierema, & Landau, 2004, p. 70)

In the United States, “women make up more than 40% of the professorate, 40% of Chief Academic Officers and senior administrators, and 23% of the highest academic position of college or university president” (de Wet, 2010). Despite the growing representation of women faculty, there continues to be issues of gender inequity among the faculty ranks. Women increasingly are assigned to adjunct and non-tenure track positions, receive less pay at all faculty ranks, and continue to face discrimination due to additional burdens of family responsibility, resulting in greater numbers of women leaving academia completely (de Wet, 2010; Schneider, Carden, Fransisco, & Jones Jr., 2011). Tessens, White, and Web (2011) argued that the evidence is clear, “gender pay gap in universities, combined with the under-representation of senior academic professional women, suggest continuing systemic and cultural barriers to women’s progress within the higher education sector” (p. 653).

Extensive research on women’s experiences in higher education utilizes metaphors such as the “glass ceiling” and “sticky floors” to demonstrate the challenges women face. Glass ceilings, coined by Berheide (1992), represent the invisible barriers that prevent a qualified person from advancing. According to Iverson (2011), this phenomena has many variations to reflect the intersection of gender with other dimensions of identity, “such as Latina administrator’s encounter with the adobe ceiling,

lesbian administrators' bump into the lavender ceiling...the concrete ceiling that will not break for women of color, and the Plexiglas room in which female tenured faculty are placed" (p. 83).

A more recent adaptation of glass ceilings is sticky floors. This means women are not ascending high enough to even reach the glass ceiling, they are stuck on the ground floors of low-paying, lower ranked positions. Reichman and Sterling (2004) noted that simply being a woman continues to be a factor in advancement decisions that leave women systematically disadvantaged, resulting in pay and promotion differences that keep women stuck on the ground floor.

Women do not share the same mobility as many men (Dahlvig & Longman, 2010). Even if women advance to positions that open up pathways to administration, many women are not able to pursue administrative positions (Dahlvig & Longman, 2010), as the demands of academic and home life are difficult to balance. For others, pursuing leadership roles requires moving to a different institution, which many women are unable to do because of a partner's employment. The glass ceiling is prominent in higher education, women may advance to mid-level administrative roles such as Associate Dean or Dean, but as the rank of the administrative position increases, fewer women are present due to structural and sociocultural barriers (Samble, 2008).

However, as Myerson and Fletcher (2000) argued, "it's not the glass ceiling that's holding women back; it's the whole structure of the organizations in which we work" (p. 136). Rather than acknowledging and addressing structures of embedded male hegemony within higher education systems as problematic for the advancement and attraction of women into leadership, higher education institutions have historically attempted overly

simplistic solutions, which focused on the perceived inadequacies of women. These approaches included, “add women and stir” and “fix the women” (Ely et al., 2011, p. 475). The first approach was to simply hire more faculty women. By having more women in academe, it was assumed that they would begin to fill the “pipeline” to leadership positions. This focused on making women fit into leadership roles within the institutional culture in its existing masculine form.

As this approach did not result in more women advancing into leadership, a second approach, “fix the women,” focused on socializing women to be successful in the world of masculinized higher education. This tactic acknowledged that women and men’s style of leadership was different and urged women to balance their feminine identity while adopting a masculine identity in order to “fit” within the male culture of higher education (Ely, Ibarra Insead, & Kolb, 2011). Clearly, neither approach benefited women’s advancement as they continue to be underrepresented in academic leadership positions, or leave administrative positions due to conflicts between their feminine identity and expectations for fulfilling management roles (Jo, 2008).

If institutions of higher education are actively seeking to become more diverse organizations, then it is imperative for women to advance into roles of leadership (de Wet, 2010). Cornell Higher Education Research Institute determined that “institutions with female presidents, female provosts and more women on boards of trustees had larger increases in the share of female faculty members than did other institutions” (de Wet, 2010, p. 3). Institutions that had reached a critical mass of female faculty reported a more “positive professional experience than their colleagues at colleges where women were a very small percentage of the faculty” (de Wet, 2010, p. 9). Increasing the representation

of women in higher education not only benefits the faculty, it is also in the best interest of higher education institutions to develop and promote women in both faculty and administrative careers in their pursuit of diversity and equity (Thomas et al., 2004).

Research continues to reveal that women are not advancing at rates similar to men, and finds a broad gamut of barriers and challenges for women's advancement from structural and societal barriers, to low self-confidence and personal choices (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Hoyt, 2005; O'Brien & Janssen, 2005). In an attempt to assist women desiring advancement, scholars have conducted research to determine ways to assist women in overcoming barriers. The preponderance of research can be categorized into three main categories: 1. bolstering mentoring experiences; 2. sparking institutional cultural change; and 3. women-only leadership development programs (Eliasson, Berggren, & Bondestam, 2000; O'Brien & Janssen, 2005; Vinnicombe & Singh, 2003). Each of these areas provide women with potential resources to utilize in their attempts to remove barriers, confront patriarchy, and build their own leadership skills for advancement.

On the surface, mentoring relationships are important to establish as they provide communication regarding the values, attitudes, and culture of the organization and organizational members. Gibson (2006) argued that it is important to recognize mentoring experience in its context, as it is important to understand the attributes that characterize this experience. This allows researchers to determine actions that would best facilitate these relationships. Research examining women in mentoring relationships reveals that women do not benefit from mentoring the way that men do (Mason & Goulden, 2002). Gibson (2006) noted that for women, "There is often no one readily

available to assist them in gaining access to the informational networks and organizational systems that are required for success” (p. 63). Further mentoring relationships of this type perpetuate the embedded male hegemony present in higher education through the transmission of culture, values, and attitudes.

In efforts to break the cycle of male privilege and patriarchy in higher education, the second category prevalent in the research was making institutional cultural change. Albeit a needed effort, the criticism is that this approach takes a prodigious amount of time, as it has to take root and spread throughout an organization in order to make meaningful change. Kezar and Eckel (2002) detailed five core categories for change each with subsets, revealing a very complicated and intricate process toward institutional change. Although changing the culture of higher education to be more equitable and open to diversity would benefit women and women’s advancement, due to the length of time to make an impact it would be best suited as a method that runs concurrently with other efforts.

As institutional change is progressing, opportunities for women to prepare themselves to take on leadership roles within their organizations have emerged. One such method for preparation is the third category, and the focus of the remainder of this study, women-only leadership development programs (WLDPs). The next section will provide an introduction to WLDPs.

Utilizing Women-Only Leadership Development Programs

It is imperative that women are aware of discrimination, unequal pay, disparate treatment, sexual harassment, university culture, and how to connect with mentors and other allies. Bierema (2001) found that women are either unaware, or in denial about,

discrimination in their own career experience. Further, Wentling (1996) stated that women lack access to mentorship, which provides pivotal, inside institutional knowledge and insights to necessary political knowledge. If women do not understand the environment, or are limited from accessing this knowledge, it negatively impacts women's access to advancement, ultimately hindering career development and career trajectory.

Within higher education, providing women opportunities to attend leadership development programs is of critical importance in order to develop women leaders and position them to take on important administrative roles (Madsen, 2012). Women also benefit by sharing their career stories with each other to establish that they are not alone in the struggles of managing careers (Thomas et al., 2004). One way for women to take responsibility for their own career development is through Women-Only Leadership Development Programs (WLDPs). Rather than allowing a career to happen haphazardly, women need to create career strategies through the collaboration with other women in higher education. These programs provide women the opportunity to think strategically about how they want to balance work and family responsibilities.

Women Leadership Development Programs (WLDPs) began as women entered higher education in greater numbers in the 1970s. Various programs developed as part of college and university programs, while other programs were developed by leadership organizations. Programs based in higher education are aimed at "expanding the collective capacity of organizational members to engage effectively in leadership roles and processes" (Hopkins et al., 2008, p. 351). These programs, usually connected with a college or university, developed to assist women faculty in building social capital through

professional networking. Various methods are used in different programs, Hopkins et al. (2008) identified the main components of WLDPs to include: assessment, training and education, coaching, mentoring, networking, experiential learning and career planning (p. 352).

WLDPs aim to build leader identities through exploration of personality and style. These trainings help redefine the meaning of leadership, moving it out of the masculinized context in order to help women see their own behaviors and identity as those of a leader (Dahlvig & Longman, 2010). Additionally, women are provided guidance discussing career aspirations. Through exploring women's experiences in higher education, as well as their career goals, women gain a better understanding of the institutional context in which they work (Alfred & Nanton, 2009).

Although numerous WLDPs exist across the U.S., surprisingly little research exists that examines the outcomes for women who attend these programs. As will be presented in the review of the literature, only six studies examine the outcomes for women that complete WLDPs. As WLDPs are now being recommended to women in order to improve their chances of securing administrative positions in higher education, it is necessary to further this knowledge base by examining WLDPs and the reported experiences of women that attend such programming.

Along with the limited number of studies that examine the outcomes of WLDPs, another limitation of the current knowledge base is the focus on the female experience, without consideration of a woman's social location. In answer to such discrepancies, I have chosen critical race feminism (CRF), due to the particular importance placed upon the lived experiences of women from a variety of social locations, i.e. race, ethnicity,

sexual orientation, age, etc. Prior studies completed on WLDPs have ignored the potential differences that exist between women's social locations; rather, they have essentialized women's experiences into a single voice. This study aims to provide women from various social locations the opportunity to tell the story of their experiences of attending a WLDP, capturing the voices of women from a variety of backgrounds and personal experiences. This study aims to fill a gap in the knowledge base, recognizing the need to expand the knowledge base, and the need to capture the voices of women from multiple social locations (i.e. race, social class, sexual orientation, etc.).

Research Questions

The primary research question is: how do women from various social locations understand the influence of women's leadership development programs (WLDPs) on their career plan/trajectory? By better understanding the experiences of WLDP alumnae, key elements in WLDPs can be identified that prepare and support women for potential advancement in higher education. As it is necessary to set each participant's experience in the context of participant's identities, participant's backgrounds and self-identified social locations will be explored.

Theoretical Rationale

Critical race feminism (CRF) was used as the conceptual framework. This section provides a brief overview of the framework for this study. As CRF was not developed until 1989 and its use is relatively new, a more comprehensive explanation of the framework is presented in Chapter 3 and Appendix A.

Critical race feminism. Traditionally, feminist theory has been used as the theoretical lens for studies involving the experiences of women; however, this lens

exclusively considers identities of women solely through the common experience of being female. Critical race feminism (CRF) considers intersectionality, examining women through multiple identities that intersect with their sex (Wing, 2003). For example, a woman faculty member may be a person of color, may identify as LGBTQ, or may have grown up in a low-income household. Rather than collapse these identities into the singular identity of women, CRF places an emphasis in understanding how the various social locations impact women's understanding and interpretation of their world.

Additionally, it is important to note that the foundation of CRF adopts a social constructionist view of meaning making. This means individuals develop their reality and ability to make meaning of their world through social, historical, and cultural contexts (Guba & Lincoln, 1989). Sometimes called interpretive, this framework states that individuals construct their own perceptions of their reality and that there is no one, right way of meaning making (Glesne, 2006).

Critical race feminism provided the framework in data collection and analysis; the data collection method was sequential transformative mixed methods. This method consisted of a quantitative phase, in which alumnae from a WLDP participated in a survey. Data from this phase were analyzed to inform the second phase of the study, qualitative interviews. This second phase provided women the opportunity to share their stories through interviews, which captured their reality and understanding of their world. Through my interpretation of their stories, along with my own interpretations of reality, I constructed knowledge that detailed how these women experienced their leadership development program as part of their journey into their current leadership position. Finally, the findings of the quantitative phase were integrated with the qualitative phase

resulting in the outcome of the study. As this study utilized a transformative mixed methods design, the conclusion of this study offers implications for action for individuals, future WLDPs, and institutions of higher education.

Summary

In this chapter I provided an overview of the topic of women's current status in higher education and the lack of women in academic leadership. The purpose of this study is to gain a better understanding of how women from various social locations understand the influence of women-only leadership development programs on their career path/trajectory. In order to properly address issues of equity associated with women in the academe, critical race feminism was utilized as the conceptual framework as it brings together the experiences of women while examining the diversity of their social locations, and fits well with the transformative mixed methods design of this study. This approach allows better recognition of women's range of experiences, which lends significance to the study as it informs and broadens the definition of being a woman in academe.

In Chapter 2 the literature pertaining to the topic of women's leadership development is reviewed. The literature review addresses four main content areas: gendering of the workforce and the impact on women, gendering of the work place specifically in higher education, barriers/obstacles for women's advancement due to the masculinized structure of higher education, and additional barriers/obstacles specific for women faculty of color. This chapter also presents and critiques research regarding Women-Only Leadership Development Programs (WLDPs) and the need for continued research on the impact and outcomes of WLDPs.

Chapter 3 provides the conceptual framework, methods, design, and analysis plan for this study. Further, this chapter provides information regarding the population and data collection procedures.

In Chapter 4 findings of the study are presented. Chapter 5 summarizes the findings in context of the literature, discusses limitations, recommendations for future research, and implications for action.

Chapter 2

Review of the Literature

In this chapter I review five primary areas of the literature necessary for understanding problems in the advancement of women into higher education leadership. First, literature regarding the gendering of the workforce and the impact on women is reviewed. Second, gendering of the work place, specifically in higher education, is established. Third, the barriers/obstacles for women's advancement, due to the masculinized structure of higher education, are discussed. Fourth, literature specific to the challenges/barriers for women faculty of color is addressed. Finally, the focus on one particular solution, research regarding Women-Only Leadership Development Programs (WLDPs) is presented and critiqued.

The challenges women faculty face in their efforts to advance into positions of administration and leadership may be rooted in the historical foundation of higher education. The institution was not only founded and created according to men's experiences, but also focused on the education of men. The culture of higher education is "one sphere in which men and masculinity are locked into one another in ways that, whether or not by intention, exclude or marginalize women and femininity" (Kjeldal, Rindfleish, & Sheridan, 2005, p. 439). Despite institutions of higher education opening up to women and minorities, the culture of higher education institutions remains incredibly hierarchical and male-preferential, creating an institutional culture and work environment, which challenges women in their efforts to break into positions of leadership (Tessens et al., 2011).

Higher education institutions are not unique; the workplace across labor markets was formed from the male experience. The historical foundation of gender inequity in work and leadership is important to understand, as it is also at the root of the higher education's male privileged culture.

Historical Origins of Gender Inequity in Work and Leadership

Women's participation in the labor market increased steadily during the twentieth century. In the 1930s, only 18.8% of U.S. women worked outside of their home (Bureau of Labor Statistics [BLS], 2009). However, during World War II, "as 16 million men mobilized to serve in the Armed Forces, 73% deploying overseas," women were called into the workforce (Acemoglu, Autor, and Lyle, 2004, p.499). The 1940s saw the largest proportional rise in women in the workplace during the 20th Century (Acemoglu et al., 2004). By 1950, the number of women gainfully employed jumped 15% to 33.9% (BLS, 2009). By 1970, 38% of women worked outside of the home (The United States Census Bureau, 2014). These numbers are in stark contrast to the number of men working outside the home, which during the 1970s was 71% of men (BLS, 2009). Due to the concentration of men in the labor force and the gradual addition of women into the workplace, organizational structures developed prior to women's presence.

As the workplace was predominantly male, jobs were considered to be genderless (Eddy & Cox, 2008). However, assumptions of genderlessness were not accurate, jobs were created according to masculine norms of the time. This meant that jobs were developed around an assumed generic man, whose "whole life centers on his full time job while a women takes care of his personal needs" and childrearing responsibilities (Eddy and Cox, 2008, p. 70).

The façade of a genderless worker disadvantaged women from the beginning of their entrance into the workforce. They struggled to “fit” into the concept of the ideal worker, as the ideal worker fit the historical male experience. As women were deemed unable to meet demands of physical labor, male managers and business owners devalued women in the workforce (Acker, 1990).

As WWII began the surge of women entering the workforce during the last half of the 20th century, it became evident that the jobs themselves were not the only part of an organization that was gendered. In 1990, Acker published a pivotal article exploring and establishing the concept of a “gendered organization.” This idea revealed the advantages men experienced due to the gender-biased construction of the workplace and in the unequal distribution of power (Acker, 1990).

Acker (1990) used the concept of “hegemonic masculinity,” to explain how male norms and standards in organizational power had been legitimized over time. Acker defined hegemonic masculinity as a “certain kind of male heterosexual sexuality that plays an important part in legitimizing organizational power” (p. 153). Currently, hegemonic masculinity is typified by the image of the strong, technically competent, authoritative leader who is sexually potent and attractive, has a family, and has his emotions under control. Images of male sexual function and patriarchal paternalism may also be embedded in notions of what the manager does when he leads an organization. Acker argues that “women’s bodies cannot be adapted to hegemonic masculinity; to function at the top of male hierarchies requires that women render irrelevant everything that makes them women” (p. 153).

Acker (1990) argued that these masculine behaviors led to the creation of institutions that unconsciously, or perhaps unintentionally, perpetuated hegemonic masculinity, producing workplaces with masculinized expectations and preferences. Due to the social construction of the workplace that affords preference to masculine traits, “it has been difficult for women to get on—and stay on—the course to leadership” (Ely et al., 2011, p. 478). Accordingly, the workplace environment produces barriers and obstacles that women must overcome in order to participate in the workforce.

The Impact of a Gendered Workforce on Women

Due to the failure of organizations to examine their workplace cultures, which reinforced masculine hegemony, Ballenger (2010) argued these traditions continue. These traditions continue to impact women, despite women making up 47% of the current workforce (Department of Labor, 2010). Without conscious intention, organizations may maintain a gender bias through hiring and promoting those with masculine traits to be successful in their organizations. This masks the embedded, privileged positions men hold in the workplace and society (Gresham, 2009). As men remain in power, they “retain their influence over institutional and departmental rewards, resources and decision-making” (Burghardt & Colbeck, 2005, p. 302). Acker (1990) argued,

The positing of a job as an abstract category, separate from the worker, is an essential move in creating jobs as mechanism of compulsion and control over the work processes...control systems are built upon and conceal a gendered substructure in which men’s bodies fill the abstract jobs. Use of such abstract systems continually reproduces the underlying gender assumption, and...subordinate[s] or exclude[s] places for women (p. 154).

The result is a vicious cycle. Society sees men as better suited for leadership roles partly because the paths to such roles were designed with men in mind; “the belief that men are

a better fit propels more men into leadership roles, which in turn reinforces the perception that men are a better fit, leaving gendered practices intact” (Ely et al., 2011, p. 478). The structures by which leadership positions are filled are biased toward men and masculine traits. As candidates for administrative positions, women are potentially disregarded or overlooked; their style of leadership and gender stereotypes do not match the embedded idea of the ideal masculine leader.

As Glazer-Raymo (1999) argued, when viewed through a feminist lens, it is quite apparent that the general foundation of higher education has resulted from doctrine written by, and implemented by, men without any regard to gender, race, social class or other differentiating characteristic. Thus problems raised by adhering to gender-biased, hierarchical cultural norms are many, but an issue of particular importance is that professional institutions are not self-correcting. Leadership preferences will foster the continuation of the status quo unless they are challenged and changed. Thus, it is necessary to reveal the entrenched masculine hegemony so as to elicit organizational motivation for change. It must be exposed before it can be modified (Glazer-Raymo, 1999).

Despite the passing of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, Title VII, which prohibits discrimination against workers because of race, color, national origin, religion, and sex, examination of the labor market continues to reveal inequity. Though it may be argued that Title VII remedied gender discrimination in the United States work place, Ely et al. (2001) argued that new forms of gender bias developed, continuing the impediments for women in their work, thus maintaining the status quo of male preference and domination. Termed “second-generation biases,” these are the powerful (and often unseen) barriers to

women's advancement created around organizational beliefs about gender, workplace structures, practices and patterns that inadvertently favor men and disadvantage women. Second-generation biases in the work place harken back to the entrenched masculinity in the formation of hierarchies, promotion, and hiring. Though laws may have changed to prevent discrimination in the workforce, they do not erase the cultures of organizations that maintain masculine hegemony.

Barriers And Obstacles For Women In Higher Education

According to the 2011 report by the Association for the Study of Higher Education (ASHE), "women continue to report working and studying in climates that privilege masculine perspectives and approaches to organizing and leading that tend to disadvantage women" (p. 2). Maher and Thompson Tetreault (2011) reported that, "Academic women are consistently and globally reporting discrimination and male privilege in knowledge constructs, professional development, and management. Sometimes discrimination is overt and easily identifiable. Other times, it is abstract, nebulous, and difficult to read and contest" (p. 283). As Ely et al. (2001) argued, the second-generation gender bias is present in higher education and it is embedded into the workplace's culture and systems.

According to Samble (2008), the challenges women face as faculty in higher education are actually more prominent and oppressive than if they worked as managers and directors in corporate America. Higher education lags behind business when it comes to taking a proactive role in women's career development "by providing training and support in career development, creating a culture and infrastructure supportive of women's career development, and expanding evaluative measure for faculty and

administrators” (Thomas et al., 2004, p. 70). The lack of women’s leadership development and advancement can be readily observed in the academic position of college/university president. As Ballenger (2010) detailed,

In 2006, the percentage of college presidents who were women represented 23%, which more than doubled the 10% of college presidents in 1986. However, the rate of change has slowed since the late 1990s. These trends suggest that higher education institutions have been slow to expand opportunities for women to enter senior leadership (p. 1).

The picture becomes even more bleak when statistics are broken down into types of institutions women lead: “Only 14% of the public doctoral universities and 7% of private doctoral universities nationwide are currently led by women” (Longman & Lafreniere, 2012, p. 46). Most women holding presidencies serve in institutions of less than 3,000 students and in community colleges (Longman & Lafreniere, 2012). In higher education, prejudice toward female leadership and gender stereotyping sustains a glass ceiling for women faculty and explains why so few women are able to break through (Gallant, 2014).

Barriers reported by academic women can be divided into two categories, structural and sociocultural. Structural barriers are those that are institutionalized through policies and regulations. These include hiring and initial wage/position, tenure and promotion policies, service, teaching and research requirements. Sociocultural barriers include care giving responsibilities in the household, additional roles within the institution, networking and mentoring, and leadership development.

Structural policies. Structural policies are the result of day-to-day administrative decision-making (Airini et al., 2011). According to Burghardt and Colbeck (2005),

A university exercises formal control over faculty through structures, such as departments and programs, and by providing incentives such as human and

material resources, tenure, and promotion so faculty will produce work that supports the institution's mission. Authority is assigned to people who set standards and evaluate outcomes through a hierarchical management (p. 305).

Structural policies affecting women in higher education include 1) hiring and initial wage/positions, 2) tenure and promotions, and 3) inequitable demands related to research, teaching, and service.

Hiring and initial wage/rank. As Thomas et al. (2004) noted, “pay is one way in which universities demonstrate their support and acknowledgement of a faculty member's work and worth” (p. 65). Throughout the research, it is clear that women at all ranks within the ivory tower are paid less and appointed at lower academic ranks (de Wet, 2010). Official statistics from the National Center for Education Statistics reported women made up 51 percent of all adjunct faculty in 2009; by 2012, however, the Coalition on the Academic Workforce, which asked faculty directly about their employment status, reported the proportion of female adjunct faculty at 61 percent. For the purpose of comparison, the American Association of University Professors estimated full-time tenured faculty are 59 percent male.

In fact, the adjunct faculty positions, which are often without benefits, and little job security, are the newest addition to the “pink collar” workforce (The Nation, 2013). Writer and social critic Louise Kapp Howe popularized the term “pink-collar” in the late 1990s. She used the term to describe women consigned to working as nurses, secretaries, and elementary school teachers (Wickman, 2012). Originally describing women working in service sector positions, the term has been expanded to capture any job category in which women dominate the field. For example, social workers, schoolteachers, and clerical staff are all considered pink-collared jobs, as employees in these positions are

predominately women. Unfortunately, as adjunct faculty positions meet the qualifications of a pink collared job, a side effect of this categorization is lower pay. Thus, adjunct faculty experience lack of adequate compensation. A key finding of the 2012 report from the Coalition of the Academic Workforce was

The median pay per course, standardized to a three-credit course, was \$2,700 in fall 2010 and ranged in the aggregate from a low of \$2,235 at two-year colleges to a high of \$3,400 at four-year doctoral or research universities...part-time faculty respondents report low compensation rates per course across all institutional categories (p. 2).

Though women dominate the position of adjunct faculty, they are also found in greater numbers within non-tenure positions. These contract faculty positions do not have the job security of tenure-track or tenured positions and are often paid at lower rates. In the 2012-2013 Annual Report on the Economic Status of the Profession, women in non-tenure track positions made a median income of \$46,350, whereas men in the same positions made \$49,000, this equates to a women making 9.5% less in the same job category (AAUP, 2013).

The pay inequity does not end with non-tenure track positions. As noted in the introduction, even when controlling for other variables such as career, age, rank, discipline and institutional type, all ranked women professors make an average of 5.32% less than men (August & Waltman, 2004; Schneider et al., 2011); women who have attained the rank of full professor make \$12,740 less on average than their male colleagues (Dominici et al., 2009). The structural barrier for women in higher education is they are hired at lower ranks and receive lesser pay than male colleagues throughout their career.

Promotion and tenure. For those that are hired in a tenure-tracked position, a major source of inequity for women within the structure of higher education is the process of promotion and tenure. Around the nation, the tenure rate for women has remained under 50%, while the rate for men is above 70% (Cooper & Stevens, 2002). Mason and Wolfinger (2013) reported “at the end of the day, women are less likely to get tenure than are men...women are 21% less likely to get tenure than their male colleagues” (p. 48). Though one may assume this difference is linked to the caretaking responsibility women shoulder, Mason and Wolfinger (2013) revealed that this result does not vary by either marital status or the presence of young children. Their finding indicated that, “Married women fare no better or worse than do single women. The mothers of young children are no less likely to get tenure than are childless women. In all cases, women do worse than men” (Mason & Wolfinger, 2013, p. 48).

This trend signifies that there is something about the tenure process itself that has created a gender barrier for women’s advancement. Schneider et al. (2002) stated that the tenure process is often an unspoken code for how well a faculty member “fits” into the college or university culture. As established, women simply do not fit these preconceived notions of who belongs and may in fact be seen as a threat to the norms preferred by male colleagues. When women do not fit the characteristics of belonging, it creates, “a dissonance among their male peers, threatening their sense of what constitutes good academic citizenship” (Schneider et al., 2001, p. 6). This dissonance is captured by the lower rate of women achieving tenure, as well as by the greater number of women (than men) who leave before obtaining tenure.

The tenure process presents a major obstacle for women's advancement in higher education, as it was developed using the masculine system for career development, not the lived experiences of women academics. Acker and Armenti (2004) noted that women's tenure clock often clashes with their biological clock. It fails to take into account that women academics have additional familial responsibilities. Often, women delay marriage, child bearing, or forego the family life due to the work demands, in their pursuit to be the "ideal worker."

The "ideal worker" in higher education is the "internally and externally held expectations that employees will be committed to the job for long hours, with only minimal breaks, and for periods of years or decades at a stretch" (Drago et al., 2006, p. 1124). Although historically applied to professional and managerial men, the norm is now applied to women in academic careers. Given the ideal worker norm in the academy, signs of nonwork commitments, such as caregiving or family-life responsibilities, may be viewed as symptomatic of low commitment and poor job performance" (Drago et al., 2006, p. 1124).

As the structure of tenure is based upon the male career experience and notions of the ideal worker, women do not meet the expectations that only workers without caregiving responsibilities can fulfill. Thus, many women's attempts for advancement are thwarted (Grummell, Devine, & Lynch, 2009, p. 192). Grummell et al. (2009) argued, "If a candidate took time out from work for children, this implied a lack of commitment to the profession" (p. 197). The tenure process has embedded normative systems that place a profound limitation on the advancement of women in higher education. The majority of administrative positions within higher education require the status of tenure, or full

professor ranking. If women are not achieving tenure at the same rates as men, or are not hired into the academic ranks of tenure track, fewer women are available to enter the pipeline to leadership.

Traditionally, there are three main areas under consideration during the tenure process: research, teaching, and service. The academic work completed in each of these areas determines if a candidate is awarded tenure. For women, the triad of responsibilities looks vastly different than for men. The next section will address differences in research, teaching, and service between women and men faculty.

Research, teaching, and service. Deemed the three primary areas of academic life, research, teaching, and service are the key components under consideration for the advancement to a tenured faculty position. Although, each of the triad is an important function of academic work, the weight placed upon research in the tenure process far outweighs the candidate's teaching and service record. This creates an inequity for women academics. As presented in this section, women faculty spend less time on research endeavors than male academics, and additional time spent teaching (or spent with students), or in their extra service responsibilities to their institution. The gender inequity of time spent between the triad of responsibilities impacts the rate at which women receive tenure. Structurally, it is necessary for an academic become a tenured faculty member before it is possible to be considered for administrative and leadership positions.

Research. Although faculty need to be competent teachers, and provide adequate service to their institution, the primary measure under tenure review is the number of published articles. However, the experience of women in the area of research differs from

men. Women report having access to fewer grants, less start up funds for research, and less access to start up equipment; these challenges result in decreased motivation and commitment of time to research (Bain & Cummings, 2000; August & Waltman, 2004).

In their study, Bellas and Toutkoushian (1999) analyzed data from the 1993 National Survey of Postsecondary Faculty (NSOPF-93) to examine the differences in time allocation and research productivity with regard to gender, race and family composition. Their study revealed that, “On average men devoted 6% more work time than women to research, mainly at the expense of teaching” (p. 371). Further, their study detailed gender differences in research output. Their findings suggested that women may work at a slightly slower pace than men due to the perceived additional scrutiny women believed their research product would undergo in the publishing process (p. 379).

Bellas and Toutkoushian (1999) also noted that women might face greater obstacles in publishing in traditional outlets because their research may challenge existing paradigms (p. 381). Additionally, they argued women and men may differ on average in how they spend their summer months. Due to domestic responsibilities, women may be more likely to stay at home with children during the summer while men work on campus, a difference that could contribute to gender differences in research output (Bellas & Toutkoushian, 1999).

Sax, Hagedorn, and Dicris III (2002) expanded upon Bellas and Toutkoushian’s (1999) study, and highlighted differences in their findings. They argued that women increased their research productivity since the 1980s (Sax et al., 2002). Research productivity increased among both men and women faculty. Simply put, significantly fewer faculty are producing zero publications over a 2-year period, while many more are

publishing three, four, or even five or more articles. Although women are publishing more, there remains an unchanged gender gap among highly productive faculty (those producing five or more publications within a two-year period) (Sax et al., 2002, p. 428).

Whereas Bellas and Toutkoushian (1999) attributed differences in productivity to women's greater domestic responsibility, Sax et al. (2002) refuted family variables as a significant predictor of faculty research productivity. In their study of 8,544 full-time university teaching faculty at 57 universities nationwide (2,384 women and 6,160 men) they found that the more important professional variables to predict research productivity were academic rank, salary, orientation toward research, and desire for recognition.

Additionally Sax et al. (2002) found a significant difference in their definition of an academic career; they found that "women are more likely than men to view an academic career as an opportunity to influence social change" (p. 436). Thus, it is quite possible that many women are spending time on projects or activities they perceive to have a more direct societal impact rather than spending time on publishing research (Sax et al., 2002).

Teaching. Within the triad of scholarly activity, research confirms that women and men's activities differ, which ultimately impacts the success of their tenure review. Probert (2005) examined the comparative teaching loads of men and women, which were traditionally thought to be significantly higher, and hence disproportionately burdensome for women. Her research found that there was negligible gendered difference in undergraduate hours taught per semester (Probert, 2005). However, she revealed evidence that women spent more time than men on student welfare and pastoral care. Demonstrating their warm and nurturing role with students, however, may not benefit

women in the view of their administrators. Williams (2004) reported that colleagues often saw women who spent a disproportionate time with student advising as exercising their “maternal instinct.” By categorizing the behavior as feminine or motherly, women were seen as merely expressing their desire to mother, and their department may not count the involvement with students for what it is—a disproportionate load of professional service (Williams, 2004). Whereas women’s greater time expenditures in teaching and in student welfare may better reflect, “their disproportionate representation at teaching-oriented institutions, within the lower ranks, and in the humanities—all factors that increase time spent in teaching activities” (Bellas & Toutkoushian, 1999, p. 373).

Service. Women faculty are not just spending more time with students, they are also spending more time than male faculty in service to their institutions. Mirsa (2011) found that women are often taxed to do more service in academia, especially as they climb the academic ranks. Link, Swann, and Bozeman (2008) had a similar conclusion, “women work slightly more hours than men, and they spend more time on teaching, grant writing, and service but less time on research” (p. 366).

Although overall differences in committee participation is small, “Female faculty at doctoral universities report serving on...about one half more total committees than males...females at doctoral institutions spend 15% more hours on committee work than males” (Porter, 2007, p. 532-534). Similar patterns are uncovered in studies examining participation by faculty on university-wide committees, “An analysis of academic governance in the California university system found that female faculty were more likely than male faculty to have positions on university-wide committees” (Porter, 2007, p. 527). Porter’s (2007) findings supported an earlier study by Turk (1981) that analyzed

faculty participation on university committees for 19 California schools. She found a consistent pattern demonstrating the over participation of faculty women in service to the university system (Turk, 1981).

Mitchell and Hesli (2013) analyzed 1,399 respondents in a 2009 Academic Support Program for Student Athletes (ASPSA) survey of political science faculty members to determine if differences existed between the service participation between male and female faculty. Their results found evidence to support the claim that

female faculty are asked to provide more service and that they engage in more service than male faculty. These differences are strongest at the local, university level, whereas women's disciplinary service is larger for only some categories of service (e.g., professional committees)" (Mitchell & Hesli, 2013, p. 362).

Further, they found that women engage in less-prestigious service than men; the service that women are engaging in was not helping with career advancement. Thus, although women are doing more service, it is not translating into the type of prestigious service that may advance their career (Mitchell & Hesli, 2013).

As described in this section, the structural barriers embedded within the hiring practices, ranking, pay, tenure process, and triad of faculty responsibilities, create substantial barriers for women in higher education. The hindrance of women's advancement due to the structural practices are not the only impediments women face in the academy, there are also sociocultural norms within institutions (the unwritten cultural norms), which create further hurdles for women's advancement in higher education.

Sociocultural norms. As higher education institutions are organizations of masculine hegemony, a culture or set of social mores develops into sociocultural norms. These include perceptions of colleagues, normative behaviors of the institution, and unspoken expectations or understandings. Sociocultural norms are not written down in a

process or procedure, they are the adherence to the norms or status quo of an institution's culture and history.

Four main areas exist where women academics may experience bias or barriers in the academic setting. First, bias against caregivers is an obstacle for many women to overcome. The term, maternal wall, is used to describe the barriers for women whose institutions are not flexible workplaces. Second, administrators appoint women to additional roles that include further responsibilities, such as department chair, which impact women's ability to fully participate in the expectations of the general work culture. They may spend extraordinary time doing administrative assistant type work without the ability to request accommodations to fit in their normal workload. Third, barriers exist in women accessing formal and informal networks, and mentoring relationships, in the workplace. This impedes their insider perspective into institutional cultural norms, behavioral expectations, and promotion processes that are often unwritten. Finally, leadership development is an obstacle for women as they are unable to claim a leader identity if they cannot model, shadow, or mentor with higher education leaders.

Caregiving bias/maternal wall. Although child caring responsibility may create strain on the career trajectory for women academics, it does not impede their ability to successfully teach, serve their institutions, and publish research. It does not explain why women lag behind men in the academic ranks and leadership positions. As research suggests, children are not responsible for the gender gap in academic leadership; there are other factors at work (Mason & Goulden, 2002). Sociocultural norms, such as

institutional biases against caregiving, impact the career trajectory and success of women academics, creating a maternal wall.

The bias against care giving responsibilities impacts the career success and trajectory of academic women. In their analysis of the available longitudinal employment database on Ph.D. recipients, Mason and Goulden (2002) used the Survey of Doctorate Recipients (SDR) to determine if academics in sciences, social sciences, and the humanities were impacted by having children. Their findings were clear, “babies do matter—they matter a great deal” with regard to the treatment of academics (Mason & Goulden, 2002, p. 4). Despite small differences between large research universities and small liberal arts colleges the “baby gap” was consistent and strong. Their findings revealed an overall 24% gap between men and women’s rates of having achieved tenure 12-14 years after receiving their Ph.D. when there were children in the home. Due to the strain of work/life balance and the caregiving bias experienced by academic women, 59% of married women with children indicated that they are considering leaving academia, citing experiences with caregiver bias as one of the reasons for departing academia.

Child rearing stressors are not present at the same level for many of the male faculty. As the academic career, time line, and social structures are designed by, and for, male academics with wives, women face incredible challenges as they make meaning of their careers. Montas-Hunter (2012) stated, “women have to scramble to maintain a home, succeed in their role as mother and/or wife, and at the same time take on every project, work 12-hour days and volunteer on every committee to succeed in the workplace” (p. 318). As the expectations of academic performance reflect the social status of men, “women are constantly forced to choose family over work in a culture

where only work is measured” (Collay, 2002, p. 96). Women have to work even harder than men to achieve similar outcomes in institutional recognition.

Even when an institution has policies that support work/life balance, women often do not take advantage of them. Samble (2008) noted women are reluctant to take advantage of policies that support caregiving because they do not want to draw attention to the caregiving role, subjecting themselves to the “maternal wall.” In fact, to avoid the dual challenge of work and family more women faculty are deciding not to have children. In their attempts to become the “ideal worker” women faculty are foregoing a family at greater rates than men, as it is viewed by the institution as an impediment to the commitment they need to make to their academic career (Samble, 2008).

Women attempt to balance the high expectation of academic work and progress toward promotion, while simultaneously trying to keep up their home life responsibilities. However, the bias against women, particularly mothers, remains. Due to this bias, women silence themselves regarding the challenges of work/life balance out of fear of harming their careers (Acker & Armenti, 2004). The joys and problems of motherhood are suppressed, as women fear that if they are believed to not be coping they will be seen as not being an acceptable academic (Acker & Armenti, 2004). In their qualitative study of women academics, Acker and Armenti (2004) interviewed women during the course of tenure review. Commentary from a senior professor on the younger female professors working toward tenure captured the struggle of women:

I feel [the pressure] on a personal level, but I can see for young professors who have young families, young children, they are completely overwhelmed by the effort they have to make. They do it, they do it very well, except that they suffer from stress, from exhaustion which is really dangerous in my opinion to keep up for many years...The women in the departments do not seem to be in good health as a general rule. I look around me and I find that worrisome to see the fragility of

health that comes with this type of double role, especially with young ones (Acker & Armenti, 2004, p. 14).

Women face the delicate balance of demonstrating their commitment to their academic field and institution, while simultaneously providing the majority of caregiving and household management.

Although highly educated fathers provide a greater amount of child caring and household assistance than the average male partner, women still provide significantly more childcare (Drago et al., 2006). Due to the caregiving bias they have witnessed in their institution, “large numbers of young female professors put off marriage and children until after they receive tenure and that family responsibilities lead more women than men to leave academe or choose nontenure track positions” (Sax et al., 2002, p. 438).

Additional roles. A particular area of second-generation gender discrimination may be the subset of women faculty who face additional attitudinal barriers in their service as department chairs. Mullen (2009) noted that untenured, female faculty felt pressured by their administration to serve as department chairs, and they felt that their gender had been a factor in being selected.

Although serving as the chair of a department may equate as service to the institution, and to their department, it is not often the type of position that leads to the higher academic positions that are considered academic administration and formal roles of leadership. More commonly, department chair positions are seen as the rotating position that each member of a department must serve. However, when faculty do not step forward to serve in this capacity (or take their turn), research indicated that administration asks untenured women to step into this role (Mullen, 2009).

The appointment as department chair is an additional barrier for women, as it limits their time for scholarly work, pursuing administrative roles within their institution, or participating in mentoring. Female department chairs describe the daily work of the department chair as a glorified administrative assistant, caretaker, mother, and housekeeper, and that it compromises their potential for making an impact in their field (Mullen, 2009). Further, female department chairs report the additional challenges of male faculty challenging their authority, direct exposure to the culture of institutional gender discrimination, as well as experience the stereotyped gender division between service and research. Women do service to the college; men do research in their fields (Mullen, 2009). However, if their male administrators are appointing women to department chairships, the status quo of women providing the preponderance of service is maintained and perpetuated by men.

Networking. It is clear that an individual plays only a part in developing her career in higher education, as other people, university structures, and processes help and/or hinder a woman's advancement into leadership roles (Airini et al., 2011). In higher education developing a network is crucial for learning the culture of the organization, gaining sponsorship by higher administrators, and gaining insights into processes, like tenure, which tend to be vaguely documented in written form.

Unfortunately, due to the hegemonic male culture of higher education, networking is, "commonly associated with an 'old boys' network, an invisible network of sponsorship by which novice male professionals have greater access to opportunities by way of their relationship with well connected male veterans" (Burgess, 2009, p. 64). Women report feeling left out of male networks and feeling isolated from male

colleagues (August & Waltman, 2004). They believe they are treated differently from their male counterparts, getting less support and approval from senior colleagues and chairpersons, and less information about tenure (August and Waltman, 2004).

Not only do women find it difficult to break into these male operated networks (Wang, 2009), but women are also reluctant to engage in networking for at least two reasons (Ely et al., 2011). Women experience networking as inauthentic, as it feels like using people. Also women report their belief that it will involve activities (like playing golf) that either do not interest them or are difficult to schedule given constraints in women's lives outside of work (Ely et al., 2011).

In her study, Ballenger (2010) captured women's lived experiences with the "good old boys network." One woman stated, "The good old boy's club is a limited circle where decisions on person and positions are made." Another woman reported, "This is a very male-dominated society. Many of the men go to lunch together and share information that the females are not exposed to until after the fact." Yet another woman felt, "The good old boys networks are not welcoming and/or inviting to women, e.g. going out for drinks, golfing, hunting, fishing, etc. I don't play golf or watch football and don't intend to" (Ballenger, 2010, p. 12).

Wang (2009) captured the outcome of this social network isolation, "The cumulative effect of lack of informal networks, low status, low level of centrality, and less power restrains females intrapersonal, interpersonal, and relational network formation, thereby reducing the significant opportunities for major leadership development for women" (p.38). In addition to lacking networking opportunities, women also did not have easy access to mentors, male or female (Wang, 2009).

Mentoring. Mentoring relationships can significantly enhance a faculty person's access to promotion possibilities and can reduce barriers to women's career advancement, tenure and pay (Cullen & Gaye, 1993). However, Wang (2009) found that when "a mentoring relationship is established for women, it was found to generate fewer personal and career benefits compared to those for men" (p. 37). Cullen and Gaye (1993) noted this might involve too few women available to mentor other women, or too few women in upper levels of higher education. Also, women faced the challenge of balancing career and caretaking, leaving little time to engage as a mentor or mentee. Additionally, some mentors may lack understanding of mentoring and institutional resources or organizational culture, which may result in a less than beneficial experience for women. Mason and Goulden (2002) stated that women expressed concerns about mentoring, and 32% of women report dissatisfaction with their relationship with mentors in comparison to 18% of men.

Barriers to networks and mentors are particularly troubling as these are sources for social capital in the workforce. Social capital is the means by which a worker can access support, sponsorship, promotion, and success. Alfred and Nanton (2009) defined social capital as a "human and economic value engagement to the membership to reinforce or confirm a person's identity, influence and social credentials beyond their own capability and the information that is necessary for goal achievement" (p. 84). They stressed the importance of social capital networks as it, "appears that individuals, and women in particular, cannot survive successfully in contemporary [work] society without various forms of social capital networks" (Alfred & Nanton, 2009, p. 86). The current barriers from formal and informal networking and mentoring decrease the social capital

available to women in academe. As the higher education culture stands, the diversity of groups, whether gender-based or otherwise, is subsumed under policies and business practices based on assumptions of homogeneity, which are particularly damaging to women (Burgess, Campbell, & May, 2008).

Due to the lack of mentorship, “aspiring women leaders have less social support for learning how to claim a leader identity” (Ely et al., 2011, p. 477). People learn new roles by identifying with role models, experimenting with provisional identities and evaluating experiments against internal standards and external feedback. As women lack this mentorship and network support they receive “less latitude for making mistakes in the learning process, they may be more risk adverse, further curtailing experimentation” (Ely et al., 2011, p. 477). Glazer-Raymo (1999) reported her findings that, “Those without informal networks of support often find themselves stymied as they near the top of the administrative hierarchy, where promotions are more likely to be based on trust than on performance” (p. 154).

Leadership. The culmination of the experiences women have in higher education impacts their interest in, and identity with, leadership. In a comparison of leadership aspirations between sexes, “women are less likely to aspire to leadership roles than their male counterparts” (Dahlvig & Longman, 2010, p. 241). In their analysis of transcripts from interviews with 16 participants in a Women’s Leadership Development Institute, many women cited their internalized beliefs regarding bureaucratic leadership (egotism, selfishness, and self aggrandizement) as reasons for not considering leader roles (Dahlvig & Longman, 2010). As women have not had experience with women in positions of leadership, who used transformational styles of leadership, women have limited access

and understanding of how their personality and characteristics fit into leadership positions (Dahlvig & Longman, 2010). As Wassermann (1986) noted, “we behave in ways that tend to confirm our beliefs about self, if we don’t see ourselves as having the power or confidence to lead, we may not pursue those roles” (p. 69)

Even when women advance into positions of leadership, the structure of the system makes it challenging to remain. In her research examining the reasons why women mid-level administrators leave their positions in higher education, Jo (2008) found the top three reasons were conflicts with supervisors, inadequate advancement opportunities, and incompatible work schedule. An implication of Jo’s (2008) study was the need to better understand the effectiveness of work/life policies in supporting female employees who are juggling work and family. At \$68 billion per year in turnover costs, just among women administrators who leave higher education, it is imperative to better understand how the work environment may be modified to better suit the needs of women and caregivers (Jo, 2008).

As this section detailed, women face structural and sociocultural barriers in higher education that impact their career advancement into leadership and administrative positions. Though caregiving responsibilities are a factor in the differences experienced by academic women, it is not the determining factor. Women faculty, with or without children, married or unmarried, experience slower rates of promotion, fewer receive tenure, and many leave academia due to the frustrations and stress of work/life imbalance. The challenges and barriers for women working in academia are clear.

However, women’s identities are not solely their gender. Women from differing social locations, such as race/ethnicity, face additional challenges and hurdles within the

structure and sociocultural norms of higher education. The next section will detail the literature related to the experiences of faculty women of color in higher education, and the additional challenges they face.

Faculty Women of Color: At the Intersection of Gender and Race

In the previous section, the challenges and barriers for women in higher education were highlighted. As Chan (2010) noted, “We know that women have been marginalized historically through patriarchy. Marginality is made more complex with the intersection of race” (p. 4). These challenges and barriers are built into the higher education institution through policies and procedures (structures) and through the culture of the institution (sociocultural norms). In this section, the additional hurdles present for women faculty of color, those at the intersection of gender and race, are addressed.

Critical race feminism (CRF) guides this study. It provides the ability to make visible the “complicated discourses that women of color faculty negotiated with White faculty, discourses that normalize Whiteness as an invisible norm and standard” (Turner, Gonzalez, and Wong (Lau), 2011, p. 209). The invisible Whiteness as the norm, Chan (2010) noted, “silences the discourses of higher education” that pertain to issues of race and gender, “because they are seen as issues that do not count” (p. 1). Those who use CRF seek to disrupt this silence, by bringing directly into the discourse the experiences of women faculty from various social locations.

When reviewing the literature regarding the lived experiences of faculty women of color in the academy, Turner, Gonzalez and Wood (2008), did a meta-analysis of 300 studies published between 1988-2007. The finding of their work was that the stories of women faculty of color remain consistent throughout the decades under review, telling

stories of isolation, frustration, and resistance (Turner et al., 2008; Chan, 2010). This section examines the experiences of women of color, as their multiple social locations (gender and race) place them at a farther distance from the “norm” among the professoriate (Turner et al., 2011).

Presence of women of color in the academy. As Agathangelou and Ling (2002) captured in their critique of women of color’s acceptance in the higher education classroom, the U.S. academy falls short of its liberal promise of multiculturalism. Although over the past twenty years, institutions of higher education have publically claimed to adopt the value of multiculturalism, and have attempted to diversify faculty and curricula, its actions beyond public statements are truly lacking. Specifically, despite the claimed value of diversification, the U.S. academy has an “abysmal record of tenure for its least represented yet most crucial faculty for multicultural learning: women of color” (Agathangelou & Ling, 2002, p. 369).

Women of color may have more access to faculty positions presently than in past decades, Croom and Patton (2011, 2012) argued, however, simply being present in a college or university does not mean one is welcomed, provided support, achieves promotion and tenure, or is “paid equally for equal work” (p. 231). In fact, although there are more Black women faculty today, “their concentration in the lower ranks, likelihood of being in part-time, untenured positions, and slower promotions rates indicate that their faculty status has not significantly changed in the academy” (Croom & Patton, 2012, p. 15).

The official numbers support Croom and Patton’s assessment, structurally higher education institutions represent environments where women of color are numerical

tokens (Glazer-Raymo, 1999; Turner et al., 2011). The Chronicle of Higher Education Almanac from 2010 reported “that of all faculty positions held by women, American Indian women held .6%, Latinas held 4%, Asian American women held 6.7%, and African American women held 7%, compared with 78.2% held by White women” (Turner et al., 2011, p. 199). As the professional rank increases, data showed the representation of faculty of color decreases. For full professors, the number of women of color was dismal, “in 2005, only 1%...were Black, 1% Asian American, .6% Hispanic, and .1% American Indian.” (Turner et al., 2008, p. 140). Turner, Gonzalez and Wong (Lau) (2011) reported that due to such low numbers of women of color present among faculty ranks, they become

more visible and on display, feeling more pressure to conform, needing to make fewer mistakes, finding it harder to gain credibility, being more isolated and peripheral, having fewer opportunities to be sponsored, facing misconceptions about their identity and role in the organization, being stereotyped, and facing more stress (p. 200).

As will be demonstrated in the next section, women of color face additional barriers and challenges within the structural and sociocultural systems of higher education.

Structural and sociocultural norms of higher education. Whereas, White women face the challenges/barriers previously discussed, women of color face not only gendered assumptions, but additionally face racialized “assumptions of intellectual and professional competency, and superiority automatically assigned to White men and women” (Turner et al., 2011, p. 203). A consistent theme within the literature is that women faculty of color are aware that they live within a professional context that promotes the socially constructed, multiple myths of White male superiority.

Tenure and promotion. As noted in the previous section, faculty women of color are scarcely represented among the rank of full professor, again highlighting the structural challenges present within the tenure and promotion process. Agathangelou and Ling (2002) proposed that tenure reflects a

narrative of institutional power...[a] series of private rules and power relations operating behind the public rhetoric of tolerance and diversity. These rationalize racism, sexism, and classism in order to screen out person's who do not fit the academy's designation of who and what the faculty of color should be (p. 370).

Curry (2002) supported this view of the tenure process. She noted, "the greater the perceived distance between the individual being assessed and those responsible for making judgments about the value of her work, the more likely a decision not to support promotion and tenure will result" (p. 122). Distance means difference and diversity, which includes race, ethnicity, and the type of research and scholarship completed. The structure of the tenure process impacts non-mainstream faculty, "those deemed Others usually face exile from or marginalization in the academy on the grounds of 'disloyalty,' 'inadequacy,' or 'incompatibility'" (Agathangelou & Ling, 2002, p. 370).

Research, teaching, and service. As the criteria for assessing promotion and tenure are based upon research, teaching, and service, it is important to examine the structural challenges/barriers present for women of color in this arena. As Turner et al. (2011) detailed, "African American women assume a heavy role in service, teaching and research as a direct result of being highly tokenized numerical minorities in predominately White institutions" (p. 200). In terms of their research, Croom and Patton (2011 & 2012) found that "Black women faculty members are often engaged in research that examines and illuminates social issues in their communities, and they use non-traditional epistemological, methodological, and theoretical paradigms" (p. 18). As this

scholarship is deemed different than the standard, faculty women of color are again at the margins, as those making promotion and tenure decisions also get to define what constitutes meritorious work (Turner et al., 2011).

As with research, women faculty of color experience harsher critique: however, this critique is not only from the promotion and tenure committees, it also comes from their students in the classrooms. Turner, Gonzalez, and Wong (Lau) (2011) reported that “the literature on teaching evaluations consistently shows that compared to men, women often receive lower teaching evaluations. In this same vein, scholars of color receive lower teaching evaluation scores than whites” (p. 201). Turner et al. (2011) captured this trend in their study of women faculty of color, they found that “women faculty of color mentioned hostile, racist, sexist classrooms, despite their field of study, types of institutions, and faculty ranks” (p. 205).

Differing measures of success are used not only for research and teaching evaluations. The time spent on service and the type of service provided to the institutions is also judged differently for faculty women of color. Two main challenges for faculty women of color exist in terms of their service to their institution. Collay (2002) found that minority women are “frequently sensitive to their communities because they are the beneficiaries of their communities support” (p.97). Due to this connection many women faculty of color provide a great deal of service to their communities of origin. This type of service is not viewed by the institution as a valuable or productive use of an academic’s time, especially in consideration for promotion and tenure (Collay, 2002).

Additionally, due to the “token” status of many faculty women of color, they are often asked to serve on departmental, divisional, and institutional committees related to

gender and racial diversity (Croom & Patton, 2011 & 2012). This creates time constraints and overloading of responsibilities, taking valuable time away from the most important activity needed for promotion and tenure success, and research (Croom & Patton, 2011 & 2012).

Mentorship. Due to their experiences with tokenism, the isolation experienced by faculty women of color is also relevant in terms of their access to mentorship. Turner et al. (2008) found that this lack of mentorship reinforced women faculty of color's feelings of isolation, segregation and exclusion. Croom and Patton (2011 & 2012) argued that access to mentorship was "of particular importance, mentors can assist Black women in their resistance to institutional and organizational barriers by illuminating the unwritten rules often present in academe" (p. 17). In their extensive review of the literature, Croom and Patton (2011 & 2012) revealed that "lack of mentoring, sense of isolation, and endurance of racially and gender based occupational stressors that challenge them on a daily basis, limit their authority and influence as full fledged members of the professoriate and academy" (p. 17).

Leadership. Along with the lack of mentorship relations comes the lack of opportunity for shadowing organizational leaders. This may limit faculty women of color's experimentation with a leadership identity. In fact, the literature falls short in the examination of diversity and leadership. For example, Airini et al. (2011) discussed a limitation of their own study regarding women in higher education leadership. They argued that despite their own research on the topic,

What are yet to be told in full are the diverse stories within and between population groups' experiences associated with learning to be leaders in higher education, for example how the stories of university women from different age groups, disciplines, nations, or ethnicities might interrelate or vary (p. 60).

Research regarding the experiences of faculty women from a variety of social locations is necessary to fully understand the diverse realities present within higher education.

Women faculty of color experience additional challenges within the academy, as “women of color fit both racial/ethnic and gender categories, inhabit multiple marginality, and their stories are often masked within these contexts” (Turner et al., 2011, p. 200). The review of the literature captures the descriptions of the lack of resources, information, support, and respect for their scholarship and contributions. Additionally, women faculty of color described the lack of consistent policies and practices pertaining to promotion and tenure, along with a lack of collegial community (Turner et al., 2011). As Croom and Patton (2011 & 2012) argued, there is a “hegemonic atmosphere of Whiteness and maleness” that not only “permeates the professoriate, but the broader context of higher education including the curriculum and policies that dictate tenure and promotion to the rank of full professor” (p. 15). This racialized and gendered hegemony “exists to maintain the status quo in the professorial and the academy” (Croom & Patton, 2011 & 2012, p. 13). Using CRF as the framework, one can assert that “because of the social location of these women, their individual experiences can provide insights into the greater social and political landscapes, of education for example, and their collective experiences can help to unveil the systemic effects of racism and sexism” (Croom and Patton, 2011 & 2012, p. 22).

Developing Women Leaders: Women in the Pipeline to Leadership

Despite the obstacles present within the current institution of higher education, women academics still aspire to the role of academic leadership (Garrett, 2015). In fact, research indicates that women are working to overcome sociocultural and structural

barriers within their organizations. This section discusses three main areas utilized by women in attempt to break into the ranks of higher education administration: mentorship programs, starting institutional cultural change, and women-only leadership development programs.

First, formal mentorship programs developed in order to better acclimate women into the culture of higher education and positions of leadership. Formal mentorship provides women with the opportunity to better understand how the structures of higher education work, as well as to reveal the sociocultural behaviors present in their institution. Mentoring relationships, however, are shown not to provide women with the type of in-group networking they hoped to produce (Wang, 2009).

Wang (2009) revealed that mentoring relationship did not necessarily open the sort of pathways to career success and networks for advancement. Mason and Goulden (2002) reported that women were less satisfied with their mentoring relationship than were their male colleagues. Mentoring through formal programs did not meet many of the needs identified by women as imperative to career success (i.e. inside understanding of policies, institutional cultural understanding, or having the opportunity to try leadership styles and shadow administrators).

Rather than teach women how to function within white male hegemonic structure and culture of higher education, the second model, making institutional cultural change, introduces a method to advance women by exposing and changing second-generation biases. Schein (1985) defined organizational culture as “a pattern of basic assumptions— invented, discovered or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration—that has worked well enough to be

considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems” (p. 9). Institutional cultural change, though necessary in higher education, is a slow process.

Maher and Thompson Tetreault (2011) presented a theoretical framework that charts an institution’s movement from accepting “exceptional” women on male terms, to measureable changes in overly rigid structures and institution-wide policies, expanded visions and boundaries in traditional disciplines, interdisciplinary as a mark of the university, and finally, transformed scholarly research in selected disciplines. Institutional cultural change requires a paradigmatic shift from male privilege in knowledge construction, professional development, and management, to an explicit shift to embracing and honoring diversity in teaching, service, and research (Maher & Thompson Tetreault, 2011).

Although institutional cultural change is needed within higher education institutions, the method for change may run concurrently to other ideas that will build up women to enter the ranks of academic leadership. The final method under review, and the focus of the remainder of this literature review is women-only leadership development programs (WLDPs).

Creating Formal Networks: Women-Only Leadership Development Programs

Throughout this literature review, the institutional culture of higher education is cited as an impediment to women’s advancement and general growth in numbers of female faculty. The foundation of male hegemony embeds privileges for male faculty and creates significant barriers for women to overcome. Women-only leadership development

programs (WLDPs) are regarded as a pivotal tool for women who are considering leadership, or for those motivated to pursue administrative positions.

WLDPs began as women entered higher education in greater numbers in the 1970s. Various programs developed as part of college and university programs, while other programs were developed by leadership organizations. The former were aimed at “expanding the collective capacity of organizational members to engage effectively in leadership roles and processes” (Hopkins et al., p. 351). These programs, usually connected with a college or university, developed to assist women faculty in building social capital through professional networking. Various methods were used in different programs, Hopkins et al. (2008) identified the main components of WLDPs to include: assessment, training and education, coaching, mentoring, networking, experiential learning and career planning (p. 352).

WLDPs aim to build leader identities through exploration of personality and style. These trainings help redefine the meaning of leadership, moving it out of the masculinized context in order to help women see their own behaviors and identity as a leader (Dahlvig & Longman, 2010). Women are provided guidance discussing career aspirations. Through exploring women’s experiences in higher education, as well as their career goals, women gain a better understanding of the institutional context in which they work (Alfred & Nanton, 2009).

There have been criticisms as to why women need, or seek out, separate leadership training programs in higher education. Hopkins et al. (2008) responded, noting that women have varied conceptions of success and different “experiences with competing priority and value orientation than men” (p. 349). These differences require a

different approach to leadership development. Women-only leadership programs provide a learning environment that places women in a majority position, a stark contrast with the more familiar male dominated work context (Ely et al., 2011). Further, women report that they appreciate women-only leadership training as it provides women a “safe space” in which they can conceptualize leadership traits differently and increase their belief in their leadership capacity. It is in this safe space, or free space, that women come to understand not only the ways society works to keep women oppressed, but also ways to overcome that oppression, psychologically and socially (Bonebright, Cottledge, & Lonquist, 2012).

Unfortunately, the literature on WLDPs is very limited. Academic research relevant to leadership development for women is scattered across a variety of fields, including management, business and psychology. This diffusion of literature “dilutes cumulative knowledge making it difficult to derive an overarching framework” (Hopkins et al., 2008, p. 350). Few studies have examined the outcomes, successes, or experiences of women who participated in these programs. There are only a handful of studies that review the outcomes for women’s attendance in a WLDP. In comparing these studies’ findings, common themes developed. Extant research on WLDP outcomes found that building women’s self-efficacy, networking, and career planning were significant with regard to improving women participants of WLDPs (Harris & Leberman, 2012; Hornsby, Morrow-Jones, & Ballam, 2012; Longman & Lafreniere, 2012; O’Bannon, Garavalia, Renz, & McCarther, 2010; Hawthorne Calizo, 2011).

Self-efficacy is defined as one’s belief in one’s capabilities to succeed in a particular situation (Hawthorne Calizo, 2011). This includes building women’s personal

assessment of their skills, building confidence in their leadership identity, and developing women's self-esteem in speaking, negotiating, and management skills. Networking and meeting other women were also shown to be important in the development of formal and informal networks (Harris & Leberman, 2012; Longman & Lafreniere, 2012; Hawthorne Calizo, 2011). A third theme, though less prevalent, was career planning and development of career aspirations (Longman & Lafreniere, 2012; O'Bannon et al., 2010).

O'Bannon et al. (2010) focused their research on preparing more women in science, technology, engineering and math (STEM) to be academic leaders. Using a 360-degree feedback assessment (a tool which provides both external and internal feedback), the authors assessed women faculty who participated in a WLDP over a period of five years. At years three and five, the participants completed additional 360-degree feedback assessments to track if women were identifying and recognizing their own leadership potential. The findings suggested that during the five years of observation, women showed significant movement from traditional faculty roles into named leadership positions, such as Deans, Associate Provosts, and Provosts. However, the authors pointed out that women who participated in their WLDP and completed the assessments were highly motivated women. Thus, they could not say the WLDP caused their advancement, only that it was related to it.

Longman and Lafreniere (2012) review the outcomes for women who participated in a WLDP through the Council for Christian Colleges and University (CCCU) from 1998-2008. This study sought to determine the outcome and value of a WLDP with specific women's leadership network, referred to as Women's Leadership Development Institute (WLDI). Their goal was, "to examine the extent to which [the] program has met

its desired outcomes” (p. 52). Using a survey with 44 Likert scale question and one open ended question, data was collected from participants that had completed the specific WLDI. The authors were unclear how many respondents they had; they reported a 79% response rate, but did not give any indication how many women responded and did not capture any demographic characteristics of the respondents. The outcome of their survey revealed that respondents did believe that the WLDI built networking channels, helped develop mentoring relationships, and built women’s self-confidence and identity as leaders. As the study was done almost an entire year after completing the WLDI, women reported on whether their completion of the program prompted any advancement in leadership roles. They found “60% of the respondents indicated they had moved into a new position that reflected increased leadership responsibilities since participating in the WLDI” (p. 54).

Although Longman and Lafreniere’s study provided support for the development of WLDPs and provided insights into how the participants in the WLDI rated their experiences with the program, the study lacked clarity in terms of who the respondents were and their individual experiences. The data collection was a survey with Likert rated responses, it did not include any in-depth narrative or explanation of their responses. As women’s experiences reflect their individual realities, it is important to examine not only how they rated their experiences, but also what aspects of the WLDP were most helpful in developing their leader identity and career pathways.

Whereas Longman and LaFreniere (2013) missed the opportunity to collect narrative from their study participants, Harris and Leberman (2011) combined quantitative and qualitative methods in their research regarding a WLDP in New Zealand.

Harris and Leberman (2011) studied the outcome of a New Zealand Women's Institute of Leadership (NZWIL) during the program's fifth year of operation. Using interviews, phone calls and surveys to contact the alumni of the program, the authors had a 54% response rate (N=76). Two major findings were noted, NZWIL alumni felt that the program increased their self-confidence, translating into taking action on career direction. Of the respondents, 75% had taken on a leadership role since participating in the program. The second finding was the importance of networking for the women. The respondents discussed the formal and informal relationships that developed due to their participation in NZWIL. The support offered through these networks was noted as instrumental in women achieving their career aspirations. The authors noted that the formal network of alumni participants led to the development of an alumni conference. Harris and Leberman (2011) concluded that WLDPs were critically important, and that they needed to be a visible presence on campuses and recognized by senior organizational leaders.

Hornsby et al. (2012) reviewed a much more selective leadership program, called the President and Provost's Leadership Institute (PPLI) for faculty women at Ohio State University. Only faculty on tenure or clinical track were eligible to participate. The authors set out to share what they had learned through the development, implementation and evaluation of the PPLI to contribute to the practice of leadership development. In their evaluation of the program, the authors conducted an online survey of PPLI alumni. With a 63% response rate, the authors received feedback from 57 alumni; however, they did not break down any demographic information regarding their participants. It should be noted that the PPLI focuses on underrepresented groups, women and minorities;

however, they do allow white men into the program (15% of the participants). The finding of their survey noted that participants felt the program built their confidence and that this assisted in their decision to pursue leadership positions. A comment from one alumna noted the need to better orient faculty with values of the institution, their membership and responsibility to departments, and institutional communities. A further critique made by respondents was that PPLI should be available to all faculty interested in developing leadership skills.

Finally, Hawthorne Calizo (2011) explored the leadership development experiences of professional women who participated in a cohort-based leadership program at the University of Cincinnati (U.C.). Her goal was to understand how the program shaped leadership, self-efficacy, career aspirations and career paths of academic women. Using qualitative methods and grounded theory, the author interviewed six women alumnae of the program. Her findings resulted in four main areas of perceived personal leadership development. The women interviewed noted the importance of relationship building and networking that transpired as a result of the WLDP. They reported having an enhanced understanding of how U.C. operated and that it led to greater networking and collaboration across the university campus. Women also reported that the program built self-efficacy, or their belief in their capabilities to succeed in a particular situation, in this case, in a leadership position. As the participants reported being highly motivated in their career goals, the program did not change their career aspirations, but rather confirmed their career goals and plans. Finally, women reported that they had either achieved career advancement since completing the WLDP, or took on more responsibilities in their current position.

Absent from all of the studies are findings that discussed the role of women as change agents. Tessens et al. (2011) criticized WLDPs, in that they focused on women as the problem, needing to build their confidence and teaching women how to “play the game” of higher education administration (p. 654). WLDPs often involve, “helping participants build their networks by increasing networking opportunities, expanding the depth and range of developmental relationships and highlighting the benefits of networking (Ely et al., 2011, p. 482). However, a missing component of WLDP curriculum is the focus on providing women strategies for how they can revision their work cultures and become agents of institutional cultural change (Tessens et al., 2011).

Gangone (2009) asserted a similar call for women to become a driving force for institutional cultural change. She argued that “until women achieve true parity in the academy” women’s leadership programs will,

need to serve a dual purpose, to move, with intentionality, women into leadership roles and to empower all women, as tempered radicals to lead from wherever they are in the institution, understanding that social change is not a luxury but an imperative (p. 62).

Ely et al. (2011) supported this view; leadership development must move beyond identity work and take on a “radically different perspective on what women need to learn to be effective leaders. When women consider the dynamics of gender in their organization and connect to purposes larger than themselves, they are better prepared to take up, and take in, the leadership role” (p. 489).

As noted in this section, research evaluating the experiences of participants in WLDPs is limited. Further lacking in these research studies is the identification of women’s social locations. Women from varied social locations, particularly women faculty of color, experience additional hurdles and institutional challenges that impacts

their success in achieving promotion to higher ranked faculty positions and/or into administrative positions. It is important for the perspective of women from differing social locations to be examined and assessed. However, the limited studies available for review on this topic failed to identify or address the experiences of women beyond their identity as female. None of the studies relevant to this area of research (Harris & Leberman, 2012; Hawthorne Calizo, 2011; Hornsby et al., 2012; Longman & Lafreniere, 2012; and O'Bannon et al., 2010) took into consideration the social identities of their participants beyond their gender, which essentialized women's experiences.

As critical race feminism (CRF) is the conceptual framework for this study, it is necessary to detail the participants' varied social locations. The perspective taken by CRF is an "anti-essentialist premise," meaning that identity is not additive, for example Black women are not White women plus color, or Black men plus gender (Wing, 2003, p. 7). Thus, the experiences of women that are essentialized do not capture the true lived experiences of women from a variety of social locations. It is necessary to study the experiences of women from a variety of social locations to determine their individual experiences with completing a WLDP. As Croom and Patton (2011 & 2012) noted, "A CRF perspective recognizes that institutions of higher education are both racialized and gendered...CRF acknowledges there is no one way that any particular minoritized group or individual will experience this process, but that there may be common experiences that manifest in diverse ways" (p. 26). It is the intention of this study to capture the lived experiences of women from these minoritized groups and how they experienced and interpreted their completion of a WLDP in terms of their career path/trajectory.

Conclusion

This chapter placed the issue of women's advancement in higher education administration within the context of history and research. The chapter established the historical foundations of the workplace as male dominated and how it impacts women's navigation of their workplace, even today. Further, this chapter connected the historical roots of higher education with the general work force, and established the roots within higher education that create a hegemonic male organization. Due to the culture that developed from this origin, men receive embedded privileges to which women are commonly denied. This is reflected in the structural, as well as sociocultural, norms of the institutions, which creates barriers and obstacles for women that limit their access to administrative leadership roles. As women possess identities beyond their gender, it is important to note that further limitations exist for women from various social locations, particularly for women of color.

Although mentoring relationships are attempted, and instigating institutional change is necessary but time consuming, women's leadership development programs are a potentially beneficial option for women who desire a career path into higher education leadership. However, with the limited research available regarding the outcomes and benefits of such programs, it is difficult to determine the impact, if any, WLDPs have breaking women into higher education leadership. This study is needed to address an important gap in the current knowledge base.

In Chapter 3 the research design, method, and plan for data collection and analysis is detailed, as well as the background information regarding the selection of the site and participants, and bias of the researcher.

Chapter 3

Research Design

As noted in Chapter 2, the focus of this study is the experiences of women alumnae of a women-only leadership development program (WLDP). As women face significant structural and sociocultural barriers, it is critical to better understand how women might overcome these obstacles as they pursue positions of leadership in the academy.

As this study relates to a marginalized or underrepresented population, and there were specific issues (oppression/power) that the current study aimed to address, the research design of this study was sequential transformative mixed methods. This chapter provides the history, relevance, and use of this method. Additionally, the research methods, design, and data collection and analysis plan are presented. Finally, the background information regarding the selection of the WLDP site and selection criteria for participants is provided, as is the background of the researcher.

Purpose of the Study

As stated in Chapter 2, the review of the literature revealed that few studies existed that detail the experiences of women in such programs. In the studies that did examine WLDPs, the results essentialized women's voices (Wing, 2003). The results addressed women as a homogeneous group, rather than acknowledging that women have multiple identities that might influence how they experience higher education and the leadership development program itself.

The overarching research question of this study sought to fill gaps in the existing literature by asking the question: How do women, *in their varying social locations (race, gender, sexual orientation, age, etc.)*, understand the influence of WLDPs on their career plan/trajectory? Further, the study sought to better understand how women experience leadership within their institutions, and define their own leadership.

As mixed methods, particularly transformative mixed methods, are a relatively new research design, the next section provides a thorough examination of the history and development of mixed methods, the transformative perspective of mixed methods, and the philosophical assumptions of transformative mixed methods.

History and Definition of Sequential Transformative Mixed Methods

Mixed Methods. Historically, research designs were constrained as monomethod (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Qualitative and quantitative methods were separated, seen as different “camps” with research purists that viewed their paradigms incapable of being mixed. This resulted in two research cultures, “one professing the superiority of deep, rich observational data and the other the virtues of hard, generalizable...data” (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 14).

However, the complex and dynamic issues of today's research world calls for a more flexible and interdisciplinary approach to research (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Many researchers began using methods that complemented one another, leading to the development of mixed methods research. Although a mixed method is still evolving as a research design (Tashakkori & Creswell, 2007; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009), it has become increasingly popular and may be considered a stand-alone research design (Hanson, Creswell, Plano Clark, Petska, & Creswell, 2005; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009).

The thing that distinguishes mixed methods from either of the other research paradigms is that it involves integrating both types of data into a single study (Hansen et al., 2005). The goal is not to replace quantitative or qualitative studies, but to use the strengths of one method to balance out the weaknesses of the other method (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). As Bazely (2005) noted in the development of mixed method designs, “pragmatism increasingly overruled purity” (p. 143), and the perceived benefits of mixing methods to answer complex research question was held as more important than the philosophical differences that might arise from their use. Thus, in mixed methods research investigators are more likely to select their methods based upon which best addresses the research questions, not based upon the preconceived biases about research paradigms (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

Mixed method designs are the inclusion of a quantitative phase and a qualitative phase in an overall research study (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). The formal definition of mixed methods for the purpose of this study is a “class of research where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, or approaches, concepts, or language into a single study” (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 17). This research designed allows the researcher to pose multiple research questions each rooted in a distinct paradigm (Green & Caracelli, 1997).

Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) present five major purposes or rationales for conducting mixed methods research. Table 3.1 presents each rationale. As the authors note, “the bottom line is that research approaches should be mixed in ways that offer the best opportunities for answering important research questions” (p. 16). When examining the development of mixed methods research, it is important to understand strengths and

weaknesses of these designs (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 21). One of the greatest strengths of integrating the findings of qualitative and quantitative research is that words, pictures, and narratives can be used to add meaning to numbers and vice versa. Mixed method designs can answer a broader and more complex range of research

Table 3.1: Rationales for Selecting Mixed Method Research Designs.
(Adapted from Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 21-22)

| Rationale | Definition of Rationale |
|------------------|--|
| Triangulation | Seeking convergence or corroboration of results from different methods and designs studying the same phenomenon. |
| Complementarity | Seeking elaboration, enhancement, illustration, and clarification of the results from one method with the results of another method. |
| Initiation | Seeking the discovery of paradoxes and contradictions that lead to a re-framing of the research question. |
| Development | Seeking the use of the findings from one method to help inform the other method. |
| Expansion | Seeking to expand the breadth and range of research by using different methods for different inquiry components. |

questions because the researcher is not confined to a single method or approach. When quantitative and qualitative designs are used together it can produce more complete knowledge necessary to inform the development of theory and practice (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

While all of the strengths presented provide a strong argument for using mixed method designs, it is important to note the challenges associated with such research (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). First, mixed methods are a more time consuming type of research. It requires researchers to be well versed on multiple methods and approaches, and an understanding of how to mix them appropriately. As this is a

relatively new model, some of the details remain to be worked out by research methodologists. Due to the limited studies that utilize mixed methods, there is little guidance on how to best execute mixed method studies (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

One type of mixed methods research is called sequential mixed methods. As noted in Figure 3.1, sequential mixed methods does one type of data collection first and then uses the data analysis to inform the second type of data collection (Mertens, 2005). The inferences/findings of the study are based on the analysis of both types of data (Mertens, 2005).

Transformative mixed method research design. The transformative perspective within mixed methods research arose during the 1980s and 1990s (Mertens, 2005). The development of this perspective came out of the “dissatisfaction with the existing and dominant research paradigms and practices but also because of a realization [sic] that...the dominant perspectives had been developed from the white, able bodied male perspective and was based on the study of male subjects” (Mertens, 2005, p. 17). The transformative perspective is a theoretical lens; it guides the researcher and influences the research process (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The use of the transformative mixed method design comes out of an existing need in the literature to hear from multiple perspectives, use data to call for action, challenging injustices using evidence from the stakeholders (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). According to Mertens (2013), it is a “philosophical framework that helps to organize thinking about how evaluation can serve the interests of social justice through the production of credible evidence that is responsive to the needs of marginalized communities” (p. 28). Prioritizing human rights

and issues of social justice, the transformative perspective focuses on issues of power and addressing inequities (Mertens, 2013).

Mertens (2009) detailed three reasons for using transformative mixed methods. First, as there are ongoing challenges in the world, the transformative mixed method design focuses on social justice and human rights issues within those challenges. Second, there is a key role in addressing inequities is through the recognition of oppression, discrimination, and power (Mertens, 2009). Finally, when researchers use the evidence from transformative mixed method studies, there is the potential to ignite social change. If the researcher is working with a marginalized group and seeks to address inequities and make social change, the transformative mixed methods design is appropriate (Mertens, 2009). The selection of the transformative mixed method design, “involves the researcher taking a position, being sensitive to the needs of the population being studied, and recommending specific changes as a result of the research to improve social justice for the population under study” (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011, p. 96).

As with any design, there are challenges. In addition to the challenges of the mixed method design, noted in the section above, the transformative mixed method design has additional hurdles. First, there is little guidance in the literature to assist researchers using this design as this is a recent development and it has rarely been used. Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) also noted that a challenge of using this design is the need to justify its use by explicitly discussing the philosophical and theoretical foundations as part of the study. In Table 3.2 below, the philosophical assumptions of the transformative mixed method design are presented and defined. The final challenge of the transformative mixed method design is the time necessary to develop trust with the

participants and to be able to conduct research in a culturally sensitive way. Despite the challenges of this design, Creswell and Plano Clark (2006) specifically called for more research using the transformative perspective.

Table 3.2: Basic Beliefs of the Transformative Paradigm
(Mertens, 2009; Mertens, 2010a)

| | |
|--|--|
| Axiology: assumptions about ethics | Ethical considerations include respect for cultural norms of interaction; beneficence, the promotion of human rights, & increase in social justice. |
| Ontology: assumptions about the nature of what exists; what is reality | Rejects cultural relativism & recognizes influence of privilege in sensing what is real & consequences of accepting versions of reality. Multiple realities are shaped by social, political, cultural, economic, ethnic, gender, disability & other values. |
| Epistemology: assumptions about the nature of knowledge and the relationship between the researcher & the stakeholders needed to achieve accurate knowledge | Interactive link between researcher and participants/co-researchers/evaluators; knowledge is socially and historically situated; power and privilege are explicitly addressed; development of a trusting relationship is critical. |
| Methodology: assumptions about appropriate methods of systemic inquiry | Inclusion of qualitative methods (dialogic) are critical; quantitative & mixed methods can be used; interactive link between the researcher/evaluator & participants in the definition of the focus & questions; methods would be adjusted to accommodate cultural complexity; power issues would be explicitly addressed; & contextual and historic factors are acknowledged, especially as they relate to discrimination and oppression. |

Mertens (2007) stated that the central tenet of the transformative paradigm is that at each stage of the research study, power must be examined. This paradigm has relevance for people that historically have experienced oppression and discrimination and who have less access to social justice. It is the paradigm used for the “study of the power structures that perpetuate social inequities” (Mertens, 2010b, p. 474).

Transformative mixed methods and critical race feminism. There is no one conceptual framework associated with the transformative paradigm (Mertens, 2010a). The transformative paradigm has been connected with frameworks such as feminist, critical race theory, praxis-oriented, Frierian, participatory or action research, gay and

lesbian theory, critical ethnography, emancipatory, empowerment, human-rights based, anti-discriminatory, advocacy, responsive, and democratic theories (Mertens, 2003; Mertens, 2005). For this study, the framework used is critical race feminism (CRF). This framework combines feminist theory with critical race theory.

Critical race feminism provides a voice for women and people of color who felt their gendered, classed, sexuality, gender identity, immigrant and language experiences, and histories have been previously ignored or silenced (Yosso, 2005). CRF highlights three primary components that are necessary to address in the research study: anti-essentialism, intersectionality, and agency. Anti-essentialism means that there is not an essential female voice, that not all women feel one way on a subject (Wing, 2003). It highlights the situations of women of color whose lives may not conform to an essentialist norm (Wing, 2003).

The second component of CRF is intersectionality (Crenshaw, 1993), which is defined as understanding the antiessentialist plight of women of color, needing to look at the intersection of their race and gender identities to fully understand their life experiences (Wing, 2003). Intersectionality assumes that “inequity is predicated upon differential valuation of identity categories such as male versus female (Sulé, 2014, p. 436). This component provides the necessary recognition of power hierarchies that affect individual agency and access to resources.

The third component is agency¹. Agency explains the interconnectedness between social identity and social structures, emphasizing how structures affect an individual (Sulé, 2014). CRF uses the component of agency to allow more emphasis “on how

¹ Agency is defined as the capacity, condition, or state of acting or exerting power

² * Identifying information has been removed to protect the confidentiality of participants.

groups that exist on the periphery...perceive their ability to fit in and contribute to the scholarly community” (Sulé, 2014, p. 436). CRF calls for researchers to recognize the complex social identities of women, as it is impossible to separate the multiple identities of women (Hill Collins, 1991; hooks, 1989). Further, it allows for an analysis that “encompasses how institutional norms affect historically marginalized groups as well as how these groups navigate potentially hostile terrain (Sulé, 2014, p. 436). Using CRF as the conceptual framework for the current study, purposeful efforts were made to identify women participants from a variety of social locations and to tell their stories using their voices. See Appendix A for a detailed history, background, and definition of CRF.

This unique framework has not been utilized in prior studies involving WLDPs referenced in the literature review. The purpose of selecting this framework was to give a voice to women from varied backgrounds, giving a more powerful voice to the diversity of gender inequalities present in higher education institutions. Using CRF as the guiding theoretical framework led to the selection of a sequential transformative mixed methods design. The theoretical framework of the transformative paradigm fits with the tenets of CRF (as outlined in Appendix A). A visual model is presented below that illustrates the research design and strategy, Figure 3.1 (Creswell, 2003).

As CRF seeks to better understand women’s lived experiences from their various intersections of identities, the transformative paradigm as the research design was a natural fit. As Mertens (2009) noted, “The transformative paradigm emerged in response to individuals who have been pushed to the societal margins throughout history and who were finding a means to bring their voices into the world of research (p. 3). This research design was developed to counteract the marginalization and underrepresentation of

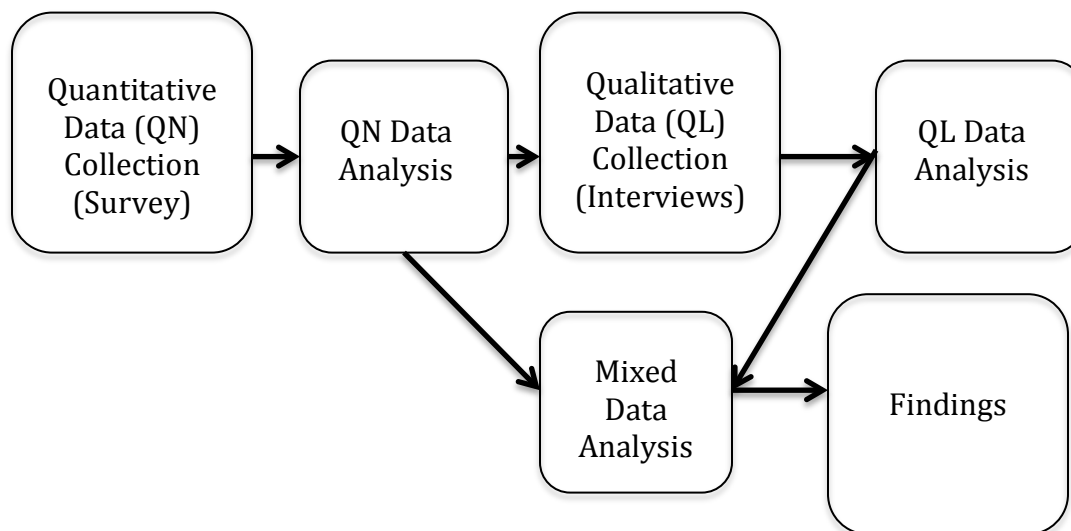


Figure 3.1: Sequential Transformative Mixed Methods Research Design
(Adapted from Creswell, 2009; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011)

women, minorities, and LGBT persons (Mertens, 2009). Both CRF and the transformative paradigm provide, “a framework of belief systems that directly engages members of culturally diverse groups with a focus on increasing social justice” (Mertens, 2010, p. 10). The transformative paradigm embedded into the sequential mixed methods design of this study allows for challenging the status quo and better understanding the dynamics of privilege and power (Mertens, 2009).

The selection of CRF as the framework, and transformative paradigm as the research design, shaped all phases of the research process. In review of the existing literature and examination of the complexity of this social problem, the use of qualitative or quantitative data collection singularity was not enough (Creswell, 2009). Mertens (2007) argues that,

the use of a single method to determine the need for social change can yield misleading results...by carefully devising mixed methods to obtain input in to the conditions that warrant the context of research, opportunities are opened for those whose voices have been traditionally excluded. Hence, the reason we need good

mixed methods research is that there are real lives at stake that are being determined by those in power (p. 214).

Through the lens of CRF and the transformative paradigm, a mixed methods research design creates the opportunity for “equity and justice and policies, as to create a personal, societal, institutional, and/or organizational impact” (Creswell, Plano Clark, Gutmann, & Hanson, 2003, p. 223).

As noted in Figure 3.1, the design of this study was sequential transformative mixed methods. The first phase of the study was quantitative; a survey gathered data regarding women’s experiences of a particular national WLDP, Women in Higher Education Leadership Summit (WHELDS). Data were analyzed and results guided the selection of participants and the interview protocols in the qualitative phase (Mertens, 2003; Creswell et al., 2003). After interviews were complete, data were analyzed. Finally, data from the quantitative and qualitative phases were integrated in a mixed methods analysis, resulting in the findings of the study (presented in Chapter 4). Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) supported this type of research strategy, as the mixture of methods is likely to result in “complementary strengths and nonoverlapping weaknesses” (p. 18). This design produced the most comprehensive and complete research possible (Morse, 2003) to study the complex nature of women’s experiences with leadership development programs, and their own experiences of leadership within higher education institutions.

Research Design, Data Collection, and Analysis Plan

As noted in the previous section, this study is a sequential transformative mixed methods design. As Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) explained, the purpose of transformative mixed methods is to conduct research that seeks to advance change and address social injustices by empowering people and systems. The selection of

transformative mixed methods was based upon what was best suited for advancing the transformative goals of challenging the status quo and developing solutions (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). This research design provides the structure for examining women's experiences in higher education, and their experiences of a women-only leadership development program.

Site Location. The University of San Diego's (USD) Women in Higher Education Leadership Summit (WHELS) was the site selected for this study. USD is at the forefront of leadership education. In 1980, it founded the first doctoral program of leadership in the United States. WHELS is staffed by professors from USD's School of Leadership and Educational Sciences with research expertise in women's leadership and higher education issues, as well as established experts in leadership development who have many years of practical expertise in the field. WHELS is housed within the Leadership Institute (the Institute). The Institute's mission is to:

improve the study and practice of leadership so that individuals, organizations, and communities can better meet the adaptive challenges facing them. The Institute will accomplish this mission by promoting: (1) significant innovative research aimed at enhancing the understanding of the dynamics of leadership and authority in groups as well as research into effective ways of teaching and learning leadership capability; (2) engaging the field of practice by providing an integrated set of educational offerings including undergraduate and graduate courses, conferences and executive programs for practitioners.

The WHELS conference is one of the programs offered at the Institute. Originally part of the Community College Leadership Development Initiative, WHELS expanded in 2012 with the goal of meeting leadership development needs across higher education, with a focus on specific leadership issues facing women. It is a yearly program, held for 4 days during the summer months. Average group size is approximately 25-30 women, all working in higher education in some facet (faculty, staff, administration).

As outlined on their website, WHEELS purpose is two fold: (1) provide higher education leaders with tools and education to meet the challenges that they face in the workplace; (2) to address the issues specific to women and leadership and develop women's individual leadership capacity. Types of activities used to fulfill this purpose include values exercises, self assessments, group dialogues, motivational speakers, Leadership Circle™ 360° survey, Meyers-Briggs Type indicator, and personal coaching.

The reason for selecting this women's leadership development program is due to my personal familiarity with the curriculum and alumnae network. I completed WHEELS in June 2014. My experience at WHEELS developed my interest in the use of WLDPs as a tool for women's advancement into higher education administration. As my own experience with WHEELS was beneficial to my development as a leader in higher education, I wanted to learn how other women from other social locations experienced WHEELS and how it influenced their career path/trajectory.

Further, WHEELS attracts faculty, staff, and graduate students from across the United States, providing a vast array of social locations and backgrounds. As critical race feminism dictates, it is necessary to hear the stories of women from various social locations and backgrounds. Each woman gives an insight into her experience, which is individual to her own understanding of self, giving voice to her experiences and understanding.

Research Design. After IRB approval, the study began with a quantitative data collection phase. Once quantitative data were collected and analyzed, the findings informed the development of the selection criteria for participants contacted for interviews and the interview protocols for the second phase, the qualitative portion of the

study. Once interviews were complete, interviews were transcribed, coded, themed, and analyzed. The findings of the qualitative phase were then combined with the data from the quantitative phase for further analysis. This integrated mixed methods analysis resulted in the findings of the study presented in Chapter 4.

Data Collection of the Quantitative Phase. The quantitative research questions guiding this phase of the investigation were:

1. What are the demographics of women alumnae of WHELs?
2. Did women increase their perception of leadership skills as a result of completing WHELs?
3. Did alumnae change how they perceived gender dynamics in their home institution due to what they learned at WHELs?
4. Did women experience WHELs as beneficial to their career path/trajectory?

These research questions led to the formation of five main hypotheses tested in the quantitative phase of the study:

H1. Women that completed WHELs reported improved leadership identity.

H1₀. Women that completed WHELs did not change their leadership identity.

H2. Women that completed WHELs reported improved leadership abilities.

H2₀. Women that completed WHELs did not change their leadership abilities.

H3. Women that completed WHELs reported improved understanding of effective leadership styles.

H3₀. Women that completed WHELs had no change in their understanding of effective leadership styles.

H4. Women that completed WHELs advanced their career, taking on a leadership role.

H4₀. Women that completed WHELs did not change their position.

H5. Women that advanced their career after completing WHELs attributed their advancement to what they learned at WHELs.

H5₀. Women that advanced their career after completing WHELs did not attribute their advancement to what they learned at WHELs.

Sample. The data collection method for the quantitative phase of the study consisted of an online survey (See Appendix B). A link to the survey was sent via email to the alumnae of WHELS. As Bartel Sheehan (2001) noted email surveys have shown a better response speed than mailed surveys, and were much more cost effective.

Prior to sending the survey to the WHELS alumnae, a pilot study was completed. Pilot studies are used to establish content validity and to improve the instrument before use (Creswell, 2009). The survey was reviewed by four academics with extensive experience with developing survey tools; modifications were made based on their review. The edited survey was then sent to five WHELS alumnae, pilot study participants were contacted directly, as they attended WHELS in 2014 with me I had their contact information. Four of the five alumnae contacted agreed to participate in the pilot study. They agreed to complete the survey, as well as provide their analysis of the survey as a measurement tool. Based upon their feedback the structure of several questions was modified. Overall, pilot study participants stated that the survey was easy to read and that it accurately reflected WHELS curriculum and provided adequate space for individual responses and experiences.

The finalized survey was sent to all of the alumnae of WHELS from 2012-2015 (N=101), via the email address on record with the program director. Of the 101 alumnae emailed, 6 messages were returned as undeliverable, leaving 95 alumnae contacted requesting participation in the quantitative phase of the study. This is another benefit of using email to contact potential participants; email provides immediate notification of the number of undeliverable messages (Bartel Sheehan, 2001).

The WHELS program director sent an email correspondence, written by the researcher, on three dates: March 14th, March 23rd, and April 11th, 2016 (see Appendix C). The introductory page of the online survey included the details of the procedures, confidentiality, and the participant's rights; by completing the survey participants were giving their informed consent. After the closing of the survey on April 15th, 2016, a total of 36 responses were collected via Survey Monkey, the website used to administer the survey, of the 36 responses 34 were complete, 2 were incomplete. This yielded a response rate of 35.7%. An acceptable response rate for online surveys is 30% (average) and for email 40% is average. The response to the survey fell within an acceptable range.

Demographics of Survey Respondents. In Table 3.3 below, demographic information regarding the year of attending WHELS, how they heard about WHELS, respondents' age, number years working in higher education, social location, and position held at time of attending WHELS are presented. Data was collected from participants in WHELS cohorts from 2012-2015. Survey responses indicated that the majority of the

Table 3.3: Demographic Characteristics of Survey Respondents

| Demographic Category: | Percentage of Respondents: |
|---|-----------------------------------|
| <i>Year of WHELS Attendance</i> | |
| 2012 | 2.76% |
| 2013 | 19.44% |
| 2014 | 47.22% |
| 2015 | 30.56% |
| <i>How respondent heard about WHELS</i> | |
| Online | 36.1% |
| USD Campus Member | 25% |
| Colleague | 19.44% |
| Administrator | 16.67% |
| Email from WHELS | 8.33% |
| WHELS Alumnae | 5.56% |
| Other | 5.5% |
| <i>Age of Survey Respondent</i> | |
| >61 years | 7.58% |
| 51-60 years | 30.30% |
| 41-50 years | 27.27% |
| 31-50 years | 27.27% |
| 21-30 years | 7.58% |
| <i>Number of Years Working in Higher Education</i> | |
| >21 years | 15.15% |
| 16-20 years | 27.27% |
| 11-15 years | 15.15% |
| 6-10 years | 30.30% |
| 0-5 years | 3.03% |
| Not in Higher Education | 9.09% |
| <i>Reported Social Location (can select more than one category)</i> | |
| Woman of Color | 27.27% |
| Religious Minority | 12.12% |
| LGBTQ | 6.06% |
| None of the above | 60.61% |
| <i>Position Held at Time of Attending WHELS</i> | |
| Administrator (Dean, Provost, President) | 9.09% |
| Faculty with Admin. Duties | 24.24% |
| Faculty | 6.06% |
| Staff with Admin. Duties | 45.05% |
| Staff | 6.06% |
| Graduate Student | 6.06% |
| Not in Higher Education | 3.03% |

survey respondents (47.22%) completed WHELS in 2014, 30.56% of respondents attended in 2015, 19.44% in 2013, and finally 2.76% in 2012 (see Table 3.3). When asked how they heard about WHELS, 36.1% responded that they did an online search for

leadership development programs, 25% of respondents were part of the University of San Diego campus, the remaining respondents heard about WHELS from a colleague (19.44%), from an administrator (16.67%), had received an email from WHELS advertising their program (8.33%), had spoken to a WHELS alumnae (5.56%), or learned about WHELS from their HR Department or as part of a list serve email (5.5%) (See Table 3.3) The age of participants varied. Women from ages 51-60 years old (30.30%), 41-50 years old (27.27%), and 31-40 years old (27.27%) represented the majority of respondents (see Table 3.3). The response to how many years they had worked in higher education also captured that participants were in varied stages of their career (see Table 3.3). Women that worked in higher education for 6-10 years were the largest group with 30.30% of the respondents. Closely behind were women that worked 16-20 years in the field with 27.27% of respondents. Finally women with 11-15 years experience and over 21 years of experience each represented 15.15% of the respondents (see Table 3.3).

Participants were also from varied social locations (see Table 3.3). The Chronicle of Higher Education Almanac from 2010 reports “that of all faculty positions held by women, American Indian women held .6%, Latinas held 4%, Asian American women held 6.7%, and African American women held 7%, compared with 78.2% held by White women” (Turner et al., 2011, p. 199). According to the survey respondents, 27.27% identified as women of color. Additionally, 12.12% reported being religious minorities, and 6.06% identified as LGBTQ. The remaining 60.61% were white women.

Respondents were able to select more than one demographic group, 2 respondents identified as both women of color and religious minorities. Thus, the survey respondents represented more racial diversity than present in higher education institutions.

At the time of attending WHELS, the types of positions participants held varied, however, the majority held staff positions with administrative duties (45.05%) or faculty with administrative duties (24.24%). The remaining survey respondents were graduate students (6.06%), staff (6.06%), faculty (6.06%), administration (9.09%), or were not working in higher education (3.03%) (See Table 3.3).

Analysis of Quantitative Data. As this study used sequential mixed methods, the analysis was done independently at each stage of the research process (Creswell et al., 2003). Data collected in the survey were broken down into the independent and dependent variables for analysis. Only the close-ended questions were included in the quantitative analysis. Open-ended questions were included in the qualitative data analysis.

A path diagram, Figure 3.2 below, details the breakdown of the questions into independent and dependent variables. Independent variables included: components of the training, number of years in higher education (Question 28), number of years since completing WHELS (Question 1), Age of the participant (Question 33), Demographic group (Question 29), Current Position (Question 24), and whether participants sought out a women-only leadership program (Question 10).

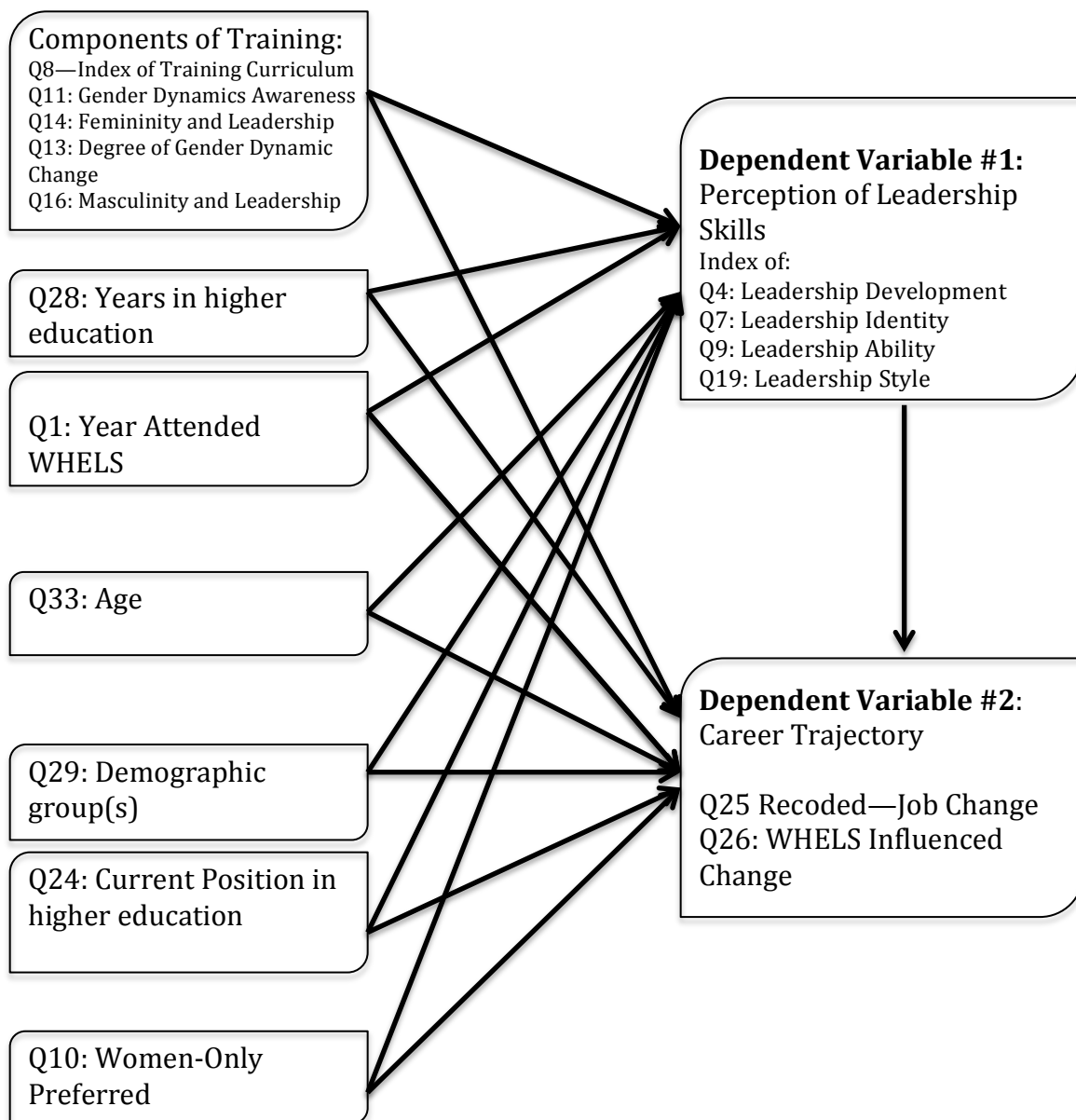


Figure 3.2 PATH Diagram of Independent and Dependent Variables

Independent Variables. As question 8 assessed the 18 items of the WHELS curriculum, the individual items were subjected to a principal components analysis (PCA) using SPSS version 23. Prior to performing PCA, the suitability of data for factor analysis was assessed. Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of many coefficients of .3 or above. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value was .607, meeting the

recommended value of .6 (Kaiser 1970, 1974) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) reached statistical significance, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix.

Principal components analysis revealed the presence of five components with eigenvalues exceeding 1, explaining 33.2%, 12.9%, 9.9%, 7.7%, and 5.9% of the variance respectively. An inspection of the screeplot revealed a clear break after the second component. Using Catell's (1966) scree test, it was decided to retain two components for further investigation. In examining the two components the variables with the strongest correlation to the components were subjected to further testing.

Variables correlated most strongly with the first component (Q8E: Conscious Leading, Q8M: Personality Awareness, Q8K: Adaptive Challenges, Q8G: Systems Theory, Q8H: Stress Reduction, Q8R: Branding and Action Planning, Q8N: Structure and Communication, Q8P: Team Solutions, Q8Q: Lead and Follow, Q8O: Hot Topics in Higher Education) were further analyzed with a reliability analysis. The Cronbach's Alpha was .891. This finding supported the factor analysis of retaining this component. An index of the variables correlated to the first component was then created (Q8: Index Training Curriculum).

The second component was also subjected to further testing. The variables correlated most strongly with the second component (Q8C: Leadership Circle, Q8F: Meaning Making of Leadership Circle, Q8D: One-on-one coaching) were analyzed with a reliability analysis. The Cronbach's Alpha was .454. As this result did not meet the preferable Cronbach's Alpha of .5, it was determined that the second component of the principle component analysis would be excluded.

The principal component analysis resulted in the use of one primary component, explaining 33.2% of the variance. This led to the creation of an index of the variables from Q8: Training Curriculum that most strongly correlated to the primary component.

Dependent Variables. The dependent variables identified in the survey were broken into two groups: perceived leadership skills (hypotheses H₁, H₂, H₃) and career trajectory (hypotheses H₄ and H₅). Survey questions related to perceived leadership skills (PLS) included questions Q4: Leadership Development, Q7: Leadership Identity, Q9: Leadership Ability, and Q19: Leadership Style. Questions related to career trajectory were question Q25: Advanced Since WHELS (recoded in SPSS to Job Change), and question 26: WHELS Influenced Position Change.

The four identified dependent variables that related to perception of leadership skills (PLS) were subjected to principal component analysis using SPSS version 23. Prior to performing PCA, the suitability of data for factor analysis was assessed. Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of many coefficients of .3 and above. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value was .677, exceeding the recommended value of .6 (Kaiser, 1970, 1974) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) reached statistical significance, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix.

Principal components analysis revealed the presence of one component with eigenvalues exceeding 1, explaining 57% of the variance. An inspection of the screeplot revealed a clear break after the first component. Using Catell's (1966) scree test, it was decided to retain one component for further investigation.

As demonstrated in the component matrix, the variables (Q4: Leadership Development, Q7: Leadership Identity, Q9: Leadership Ability, and Q19: Leadership

Style) were strongly correlated to the primary component. A reliability analysis was then performed on the primary component correlates, resulting in a Cronbach's Alpha of .657. An index of the variables was then created, named Perception of Leadership Skills (PLS).

The dependent variables, Job Change (Q25 recoded) and Q26: WHELS Influenced Position Change were tested independently of one another with the independent variables. The findings of the correlation testing are presented in chapter 4.

Addressing Validity and Reliability of Quantitative Data. Efforts were made to assure validity and reliability of the quantitative data. Validity is how effective the measurement tool captures the data needed to address the research questions (Creswell, 2008). For this study several steps were taken to verify that the quantitative survey was measuring what it needed to measure for meaningful outcomes. First, drafts of the survey were provided to four experienced sociologists with extensive history with survey development. Through conversation, their guidance helped me to fine-tune questions, and the type of responses provided. This established face validity of the measure. Several examiners agreed that at face value the survey measured what it was intended to measure.

Second, content validity was achieved through the piloting of the study. After establishing face validity, the survey was sent to five alumnae of WHELS that the researcher knows personally. They were asked to complete the survey and provide written feedback as to needed changes, questions, or concerns. Through this feedback, the survey was further fine-tuned. According to Creswell (2008), validity "means that individual's scores from an instrument make sense, are meaningful, and enable you, as the researcher, to draw good conclusions from the sample you are studying to the population" (p. 169). Examination of this study's survey data meets Creswell's (2008)

standards; data made sense and respondents were consistent throughout the measure. Survey data were further confirmed as valid through the triangulation of methods, as the data of the qualitative phase confirmed the survey findings.

Reliability simply means consistency of the measure, whether the survey consistently measures what it is intended to measure. Through the examination of the survey by experienced researchers, and the piloting of the study a baseline of consistency was achieved. Upon data analysis reliability of the measure was further confirmed. As presented above, the internal consistency of reliability for the dependent variable, the Perception of Leadership Skills (PLS) had a Cronbach's Alpha of .657, which meets the requirement of .6. The independent variable of the training curriculum (Question 8) had a Cronbach's Alpha of .891. This indicates that the respondents were consistent with their responses, providing confirmation of the survey measure's reliability.

Data Collection in the Qualitative Phase. As this study utilized sequential methods, the findings of the quantitative phase provided the foundation upon which the qualitative phase of the study was built (Mertens, 2005). The research questions developed for the qualitative phase were influenced by the findings of the quantitative phase (Creswell, 2003). In addition, the literature review and the conceptual framework, critical race feminism, guided the formation of the research questions posed to participants (See Appendix D).

The purpose of qualitative questions was to better understand the personal experiences of the alumnae of WHELs. Further, it was to give voice to the individual woman's perceptions of WHELs through the lens of her social location (i.e. race, gender, age, sexual orientation). The use of interviews with the alumnae allowed for deeper,

richer understandings of women's experiences with WHELs, as well as their experiences within higher education. The research questions for the qualitative phase included:

1. How do women from various social locations describe their experiences with WHELs?
2. Did attending WHELs influence women's pursuit of leadership positions within the academy?
3. How do women from various social locations describe their experiences within higher education?
4. How do women from various social locations define leadership?

Sample. At the end of the survey, the final question asked if the survey respondent was willing to participate in an interview (the qualitative phase of the study). Only survey respondents that provided their contact information were eligible for the qualitative phase of the study. Of the 36 survey respondents, 27 women provided their email addresses indicating their interest in participating in the interview portion of the study.

The qualitative phase of this study used purposive, or theoretical, sampling (Mertens, 2005). As critical race feminism details the importance of selecting voices from a variety of social locations, so as not to essentialize women's experiences, women from a variety of social locations (age, race, and sexual orientation) were contacted to participate in the qualitative phase of the study.

In addition, Mertens (2005) recommends extreme or deviant case sampling, "The criterion for selection of cases might be to choose individuals or sites that are unusual or special in some way" (p. 317). As only two respondents in the quantitative phase had

negative experiences with the WLDP, the respondent that provided her contact information was selected as an interview participant.

Initial contact with potential participants began on April 30, 2016. An email request for interview participation was sent to the email addresses provided in the survey (See Appendix E). An initial pool of 10 potential participants was selected based upon the survey responses and demographics of the participants. As purposive sampling was used, the initial pool were women from a variety of social locations, one woman identified as LGBT, four women identified as women of color, one woman under the age of 30, one woman resided outside of the United States, two white women of advanced age, and finally, one woman that responded negatively to the questions in the survey. A second email requesting participation was sent on May 31, 2016. Of the initial pool of potential participants six women agreed to participate, and one woman declined the request. The remaining three women did not respond to either email.

Rather than aiming for a specific number of participants, data collection of the qualitative phase was based upon saturational sufficiency. As responses of the first pool of participants were complete, initial assessment showed that more interviews were needed, thus, a second pool of participants was selected and contacted. The second pool consisted of seven women, two women of color, one woman over the age of 61, two white women 51-60 years old, one newer faculty member (<6 years in higher education), and one woman that identified as a religious minority. An initial email requesting participation in the qualitative phase was sent on June 13, 2016, and again on July 6, 2016. Of the seven women contacted, five women responded and scheduled interviews.

Table 3.4:
Demographic Characteristics of Interview Participants

| Name of Participant* | Year Attended WHELS | Current Position | Position Change or Increase in Leadership Role | Number of Years in Higher Education | Social Location | Age Range |
|----------------------|---------------------|---------------------------|--|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|-----------------|
| Johanna | 2014 | Dean/Provost or CAO | Increase in leadership role | 16-20 years | Religious Minority | >61 years |
| Alexis | 2014 | Staff with Admin Duties | Increase in leadership role | 6-10 years | Woman of Color | 31-40 years old |
| Sandra | 2014 | Faculty with Admin Duties | None | 11-15 years | Not from U.S. | 41-50 years old |
| Jennifer | 2014 | Faculty with Admin Duties | Position Change | 16-20 years | None | 51-60 years old |
| Desiree | 2015 | Staff with Admin Duties | Increase in leadership role | 16-20 years | Religious Minority | 41-50 years old |
| Maria | 2014 | Staff with Admin Duties | Increase in leadership role | >21 years | Woman of Color & Religious Minority | 51-60 years old |
| Michelle | 2014 | Staff with Admin Duties | Increase in leadership role | 11-15 years | LGBTQ | 31-40 years old |
| Adrianna | 2013 | Associate Dean | Position Change | 16-20 years | Woman of Color & Religious Minority | 41-50 years old |
| Colleen | 2014 | Staff with Admin Duties | Increase in leadership role | 6-10 years | Woman of color | 51-60 years old |
| Rachel | 2015 | Faculty with Admin Duties | None | 6-10 years | None | 51-60 years old |
| Justine | 2014 | Staff with Admin Duties | None | >21 years | None | >61 years old |

*Names were changed to protect confidentiality.

One woman did not respond to either request, and one woman did respond but did not follow through in scheduling an interview. The demographic information regarding interview participants is provided in Table 3.4, above.

Interviews were conducted via telephone or Skype. The average length of the interviews was forty minutes. Using the interview protocol provided in Appendix D, each interview was semi-structured, allowing for further questioning and follow-up questions during the interview. The completed interviews were digitally recorded and transcribed. Interview transcription included specific notations of emphasis, tone, or hesitation. A challenge to transcribing interview recordings is that recorded interactions are unable to detail other forms of communication, such as body language. However, it is understood in narrative inquiry that even with great care, transcriptions are “incomplete, partial, and selective” as they are part of an interpretive practice (Reissman, 1993, p. 11).

In effort to address the potential incomplete, partial or selective nature of transcriptions, field notes were taken by the researcher during and after the interviews. This allowed for the researcher to capture any hesitations, questions to reflect upon, or areas to examine with the participant either during the interview or as a follow up to the interview. The field notes were also used to process the effectiveness of interview questions, and provide guidance as to any modifications of the questions over the course of the interviews.

Analysis of the Qualitative Data. Completion of the interview and transcription process began the analysis of collected data. The data for this phase of the study were the interviews with participants, the transcription of those interviews, and the qualitative questions from the survey.

Once transcriptions of the interviews were complete, the participants were provided with a copy. By completing member checks, participants can edit, clarify or contest the transcribed interviews, as well as the analysis of the researcher (Reissman,

1993). In addition to member checks, peer examination was also used (Merriam, 1998). Peer examination consisted of a colleague familiar with the area of research to examine the findings to determine if they seemed logical (Merriam, 1998).

By fully capturing the stories, experiences, and realities of these women through qualitative interviews, data collected were then open-coded. Mertens (2005) stated that open coding is completed in sequential mixed methods analysis in order to name and categorize the data, “During this phase, the data are broken down into discrete parts, closely examined, compared for similarities and differences, and questions are asked about the phenomena as reflected in the data” (p. 424). The labels that are assigned as part of the coding process are the result of “in-depth detailed analysis of the data” (Strauss and Corbin, 1998).

As this study utilizes sequential transformative mixed methods, the quantitative findings informed the development of the qualitative interview questions, as well as the coding structure of the qualitative data analysis. As Saldaña (2009) stated, a priori coding is a helpful analysis tool in mixed method designs. Based upon those hypotheses and findings of the quantitative phase, five codes were developed to guide the first cycle of data analysis:

- *Comments related to leadership, definitions, and personal style:* guided by qualitative research question #4 (How did women from various social locations define leadership?) and quantitative hypotheses H1, H2, and H3 (Women that completed WHELs reported improved leadership identity; Women that completed WHELs reported improved leadership abilities; and Women that completed WHELs reported improved understanding of effective leadership styles.)

- *Experiences in higher education specific to the woman's social location:* guided by qualitative research question #3 (How do women from various social locations describe their experiences within higher education?) and quantitative research question #2 (Did alumnae report change in how they perceived gender dynamics?)
- *References to mentors, sponsors, or developing networks:* guided by the existing literature that indicated women have less access, or experience with mentors, sponsors, or networks; as well as qualitative research question #1 (How did women describe their experiences with WHELs?)
- *References to self-esteem, self-confidence, or self-awareness:* guided by the open-ended narrative responses from the survey, as well as quantitative research question #1 (Did women report increased perception in leadership skills?)
- *References to the personal experience with WHELs, suggestions or feedback for WHELs:* guided by the quantitative research question #3 (Did women experience WHELs as beneficial to their career path/trajectory), quantitative hypotheses H4 and H5 (Women that completed WHELs reported advancing their career, taking on a leadership role; Women that advanced their career after completing WHELs attributed their advancement to what they learned at WHELs.) The qualitative research questions also attributed to this code, research question #1 and #2 (How did women from various social locations describe their experiences with WHELs; Did attending WHELs influence women's pursuits of leadership positions within the academy?)

The first cycle of qualitative data analysis utilized a structural and evaluative coding process. Saldaña (2009) defined structural coding as “question based code that acts as a

labeling and indexing device” (p. 67). As part of this data analysis process, participants’ responses were assessed individually, highlighting any of the a priori codes. The highlighted responses were then reorganized by code, providing all responses pertaining to each code in one location.

During the first cycle of coding, evaluation coding was also utilized. As one of the a priori codes, all references made to the participant’s experiences with WHELCS, or her feedback on the program, were highlighted. Saldaña (2009) noted that the use of evaluation coding could identify, “shifts in participant skills, attitudes, feelings, behaviors, and knowledge” (p. 99). As the method of this study incorporated a transformative component, and was guided by critical race feminism, evaluative coding was selected as this type of analysis can extend to the macro level. Evaluation coding utilizes grounded theory coding to explore how systems may or may not be serving the needs of the population. In terms of the current study, it can assist in determining if WHELCS has or has not met the needs of women, and how women’s career paths/trajectories were influenced by WHELCS (Saldaña, 2009).

Once the first cycle of data analysis was completed and data were reorganized by a priori codes, the second cycle of data analysis began. This cycle utilized hypothesis coding (Weber, 1990; Saldaña, 2009). Saldaña (2009) noted hypothesis coding is a mixed-methods approach to data analysis most often applied to content analysis but with some transferability to other qualitative studies. Hypothesis coding is the “application of a researcher-generated, pre-determined list of codes onto qualitative data specifically to assess a researcher-generated hypothesis. The codes are developed from a

theory/prediction about what will be found in the data before they have been collected or analyzed” (Saldaña, 2009, p. 123).

As the quantitative findings supported the hypothesis being tested, hypothesis coding provided data analysis review that sought to determine if the hypotheses could also be supported by the qualitative data obtained through interview with WHELS participants. True to the mixed methods design, the findings of the quantitative phase and the qualitative phase were then analyzed together to determine if the research question guiding the study could be answered.

As the qualitative phase utilized data coding by the researcher, which is an interpretive method, it is important to note that the experiences and biases of the researcher do impact the analysis of data. Due to this subjectivity, this chapter includes a section on the qualifications and background of the researcher.

Addressing Transferability and Trustworthiness of the Qualitative Data. A key criterion for evaluating work of qualitative inquiry is the ability of the researcher to relate findings to the existing body of knowledge (Silverman, 2000). In Chapter 5, the findings of the current study are examined and evaluated through the lens of existing research.

In addition to this method, this section details the other measures undertaken to increase the trustworthiness and transferability of the current study. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), four main areas should be examined in order to establish trustworthiness: credibility, dependability, confirmability, and transferability.

The efforts taken to establish credibility were seen throughout the research design and research decisions. First, I developed an early familiarity with the site location, Women in Higher Education Leadership Summit (WHELS), and attended the conference

getting insight into the culture of the organization (Shenton, 2004). This familiarity did not become prolonged engagement, so I was not so immersed in the culture that it influenced my professional judgments (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). I have detailed my own personal and professional information in this chapter that details relevant information to my involvement with the WHELS program (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994).

Second, efforts were made with the interview participants in order to bolster the credibility of this study (Shenton, 1994). All participants were made aware of their right to refuse to participate. They were guaranteed confidentiality so as not to worry about losing credibility with this organization. This allowed participants to speak freely and honestly. During the interview, time was taken to build rapport with the participants, to ease any anxiety and build trust with the interviewer. Participants were also informed of the right to withdraw from the study at any time without penalty (Shenton, 2004).

Once the transcriptions of interview were complete, participants completed member checks. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985) this is the single most important provision that can be made to bolster credibility. Participants reviewed their transcripts to verify that their words matched what they had intended. They were able to make corrections, clarifications, and add onto their responses.

Finally, triangulation of methods was used to enhance the study's credibility (Shenton, 2004). The quantitative survey included open-ended questions, providing narrative from survey respondents. The data were triangulated with data gathered during the qualitative phase of the study. The responses of the survey qualitative questions were congruent with the findings of the qualitative interview findings. Another form of triangulation involves data collection from a wide range of informants (Shenton, 2004).

As CRF guided the study, participants from varied social locations (race, age, sexual orientation, nationality) were selected purposefully for participation in this study.

In addition to the described efforts to establish credibility, research decisions were also made to establish dependability, confirmability, and transferability. The use of mixed methods and use of overlapping methods added to the dependability of the study.

Through the use of qualitative questions in the quantitative phase, followed by the qualitative phase, data reflected consistency in the respondents/participants responses. As the responses were coded and themed by the researcher, it is necessary to admit to my own bias and my own predispositions. Again this is why a section of this chapter details my background experiences, personal and professional. According to Shenton (2004) the intrusion of research bias in qualitative data analysis is inevitable. In efforts to limit the influence of researcher bias on the interpretation of findings, a peer check was completed. A peer with understanding of the topic reviewed the findings and conclusion, providing confirmation that the bias of the researcher did not contaminate the study's findings or the conclusions presented.

Finally, considerations must be made as to whether or not the study achieves transferability. Simply stated transferability is the alignment between the findings of this study with similar projects evaluating women-only leadership development programs (WLDPs). A challenge, however, is that this is an exploratory study with few previous works to build off. Shenton (2004) argued that, "it should be questioned whether the notion of producing truly transferable results from a single study is a realistic aim or whether it disregard the importance of context which forms such a key factor on qualitative research" (p. 71). As not all WLDPs utilize the same curriculum, or have the

same mission, it is important to exercise awareness of the difference in contexts before claiming true transferability.

Through the efforts of the researcher throughout the design and data collection procedures, I believe that the study demonstrates trustworthiness, and offers a possible beginning for transferability.

Qualifications and subjectivity of the researcher. Qualitative researchers are encouraged to reveal their personal perspectives on the groups they are studying so that readers can be conscious of potential bias in the work (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Maykut & Morehouse, 1994). As interpretive work cannot be free of subjectivity or bias, it is important to know my realities to better understand how I interpreted the realities of others. Thus, this section will address my background in higher education, my familiarity with the barriers and obstacles for women in higher education, and my personal experiences with WHELs.

I am a white female, tenure-track assistant professor in a small liberal arts college in the Midwest. Currently serving as the chair of my department, I have been employed at this institution for 7 years. It was through my experiences in higher education that I enrolled in a PhD program in Educational Policy and Leadership, as I was interested in the current working conditions of women in higher education. Prior to entering academia, I worked in a government sector social service agency. I noticed early on in my teaching career that the culture of higher education was far different, and at times more challenging, than the bureaucracy of a government agency. Intrigued, I pursued higher education as the concentration of my PhD program.

One of the reasons for pursuing this line of research has been my own experience as a woman in the academy. Although I teach in a female majority department, the majority of the faculty at my college are white men. The struggle of my female colleagues was distinctive; the culture of the organization was bureaucratic, male dominated, and patriarchal. As a self-identified feminist (womanist), I was warned about becoming known as “one of those” feminists. I was directed not to speak at Division and Faculty meetings, and it took four years to fully understand the complicated politics of the institution.

The struggle for women, my own struggle, within the academy has been challenging. I have had to confront sexist language of my colleagues, sexist expectations of my administration, and the stifling of women’s attempts at advocacy and organization. As a young faculty member, I became associated with older women faculty, full professors, who provided me with a sense of history of the college, and how far they have actually come over the past two decades. However, I was overwhelmed by how much farther there was to go in terms of equity and inclusion.

As I have always enjoyed taking the lead, I found myself taking on service, advising, and other teaching related tasks early on in my academic career. Before I knew it I was working more hours than I could handle and not spending time on, or even thinking about, research. Though I was complemented for my service to the college and dedication to students, it became clear during my mid-point tenure process that my research productivity (or lack thereof) would need to be addressed prior to my tenure review.

It was not only the time dedicated to my teaching and service, but also the additional home life responsibilities that were making it difficult to fulfill the expectations of work. I am married, but do not have children. In fact, one of the reasons for not having children has been the challenges of my work schedule and the observation of my female colleagues struggles with caregiver bias and hitting the maternal wall. As my partner runs his own business, all household responsibilities fall upon me to maintain. I do not have a housekeeper, a personal assistant, or any other source of assistance in this area. Thus, it was pretty quickly into my academic career that I realized I could not keep up with the expectations I had for myself, or the expectations that others may have had for me.

My social location as a female has not been the only area in which I have experienced challenges or barriers. As I grew up in a family experiencing rural poverty, I grew up in a lower class home. I am the first in my family with a graduate degree, and am the first member of my extended family to pursue a doctorate. My parents are not college-educated. Though education was encouraged and respected, it was not something my family planned for financially. Thus, my entire college education was funded by grants, loans, and sweat equity. Working in the academy, it became quickly apparent that my childhood was far different from my colleagues, and that my current habitus is far different from academics whose backgrounds were more financially privileged. This recognition of an additional challenge, beyond my sex, influenced the selection of the conceptual framework. I am interested in the experiences of women beyond their sex, and into other important social locations they possess.

Due to my experiences with perceived barriers and obstacles, I wanted to learn how I could become an agent of change. As my background in social work prioritizes social and economic justice, I felt I was a capable advocate to take on the challenges and work toward change. It was this calling that led me to seek out a women's leadership development program. I selected WHELPS as it was reputable, well reviewed, and it was not in the Midwest. Through my attending WHELPS, I came to focus my research on the use of women-only leadership programs to enhance women's advancement into leadership positions within higher education.

Summary

Chapter 3 provided the method, design, and analysis procedures used in this study. This chapter highlighted the conceptual framework, critical race feminism, which guided my selection of the sequential transformative mixed methods research design of the study. Further, this chapter detailed the research questions for each phase, and the sampling, data collection, and plan of analysis for each phase of the study. Chapter 4 will provide the data findings of both the quantitative and qualitative phases, as well as the integrated findings of the mixed methods.

Chapter 4

Findings

The purpose of this study was to examine how women-only leadership development programs can benefit women's advancement in higher education by asking the question: How do women from various social locations understand the influence of the Women in Higher Education Leadership Summit (WHELS) on their career plan/trajectory? Through a mixed method approach, first conducting a survey, followed by interviews, this study sought to answer this question.

This chapter reports the results of the study. The first section of the chapter covers the survey data analysis; the second section addresses the findings of the qualitative portion of the survey alongside the participant interviews. Finally, the outcome from both phases are integrated into the mixed methods findings.

Quantitative Phase of the Study

Research Questions and Hypotheses of the Quantitative Phase

This section provides the findings of the quantitative phase of the study. The research questions guiding the quantitative phase were:

1. Did women report increased perception in leadership skills as a result of completing WHELS?
2. Did alumnae report change in how they perceived gender dynamics in their home institution due to what they learned at WHELS?
3. Did women experience WHELS as beneficial to their career path/trajectory?

Additionally, the survey sought to answer the quantitative research question: “What are the demographics of WHELS alumnae?” The demographic findings were presented in Chapter 3. In this section the findings of the quantitative phase of the study are presented using each of the quantitative research questions as a guide.

Quantitative Research Question #1: Did women report increased perception in leadership skills? This study sought to answer the question of whether or not women that completed WHELS increased their perception of leadership skills. In the quantitative survey questions Q4: Leadership Development, Q7: Leadership Identity, Q9: Leadership Ability, and Q19: Leadership Style measured the dependent variable “perception of leadership skills” in efforts to determine if the hypotheses H1, H2, and H3 could be supported.

H1. Women that completed WHELS reported improved leadership identity.
H1₀. Women that completed WHELS did not report change in their leadership identity.

H2. Women that completed WHELS reported improved leadership abilities.
H2₀. Women that completed WHELS did not report change in their leadership abilities.

H3. Women that completed WHELS reported improved understanding of effective leadership styles.
H3₀. Women that completed WHELS reported no change in their understanding of effective leadership styles.

To determine if a relationship existed between the dependent variable (perception of leadership skills) and the independent variable (training components), independent-samples t-tests were completed between Q7: Leadership Identity, Q4: Leadership Development, and Q19: Leadership Style. For Q9: Leadership Ability an ANOVA (one-way analysis of variance) was conducted to determine if there was significant effect of gender awareness change on the degree WHELS developed respondents leadership

ability. Findings from this section suggest support for H1, H2, and H3, women that completed WHELS report improved leadership identity, leadership ability, and understanding of effective leadership styles.

Women that completed WHELS reported improved leadership identity. Survey question number seven (Q7: Leadership Identity) addressed hypothesis H1. Q7: Leadership Identity asked survey participants: how did your perception of self as a leader (leadership identity) change as a result of completing WHELS? Of the 35 respondents, 33 (94.29%) responded that their leadership identity was strengthened as a result of completing WHELS. Two respondents (5.71%) identified that WHELS made no change in the view of their leadership identity.

To determine if a relationship existed between Q7: Leadership Identity and the independent variables of the training components, independent t-tests were completed. An independent-sample t-test was conducted to compare Q7: Leadership Identity with

Table 4.1
Independent-Sample T-Test Results

| D.V. | Independent Variables | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|------|---------|------|---------|------|---------|------|---------|
| | | Q8 | | Q11 | | Q14 | | Q16 | |
| | | M | p-level | M | p-level | M | p-level | M | p-level |
| Q4: Leadership Development | No | 30 | | 1 | | 1 | | 1 | |
| | Yes | 28.2 | .73 | 1.6 | .001*** | 1.53 | .001*** | 1.31 | .36 |
| Q7: Leadership Identity | No | * | | 1 | | 1 | | 1 | |
| | Yes | 28.3 | -- | 1.6 | .001*** | 1.53 | .001*** | 1.31 | .36 |
| Q19: Leadership Style | No | 26.4 | | 1.22 | | 1.3 | | 1 | |
| | Yes | 28.9 | .31 | 1.72 | .01** | 1.6 | .26 | 1.4 | .001*** |

*Insufficient data **p<.01, ***p<.001

Q8: Index Training Curriculum; Q11: Gender Dynamics Awareness; Q14: Femininity And Leadership; Q16: Masculinity and Leadership.

Q8: Index Training Curriculum, Q11: Gender Dynamics Awareness, Q14: Femininity and Leadership, and Q16: Masculinity and Leadership. Only significant findings were found between Q7: Leadership Identity and independent variables Q11: Gender Dynamics Awareness and Q14: Femininity and Leadership.

The independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare Q7: Leadership Ability in comparison to Q11: Gender Dynamics Awareness (no change vs. change). There was a significant difference for those that reported “no change in gender dynamics awareness” (Level 1) ($M=1$, $SD=.0$) and “change was made in gender dynamics awareness” (Level 2) ($M=1.63$, $SD=.492$) conditions; $t(31)=-7.188$, $p<.001$ (See Table 4.1). The findings suggest that when respondents changed their awareness of gender dynamics it had an effect on respondents’ perception of their leadership ability. Suggesting that when awareness is gained, so too does their perception of their leadership ability.

Another independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare leadership ability change (Q7) between respondents that did not change the way they thought about femininity and leadership (Q14; level 1) had a significant difference in the scores from respondents that did change the way they thought about femininity and leadership (level 2). There was a significant difference in the scores for independent variable level 1 ($M=1$, $SD=.00$) and independent variable level 2 ($M=1.53$, $SD=.507$) conditions $t(31)=-5.927$, $p<.001$ (See Table 4.1). These results suggest that changes in the way respondents thought about femininity and leadership really does have an effect on a respondents’ perception of leadership identity. Specifically, the results suggest that when respondents

increased their knowledge about femininity and leadership it changed their perception of their leadership identity.

Women that completed WHELS reported improved leadership abilities.

Hypothesis H2 was addressed in two survey questions, question 9 (Q9: Leadership Ability) and question 4 (Q4: Leadership Development). Q9: Leadership Ability asked respondents “to what degree do you believe the program developed your leadership ability?” The majority of survey participants believed that WHELS developed their leadership ability by a great degree or an above average degree (76.47%). The remaining respondents indicated it made an average or small development in their leadership ability (23.53%).

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to determine if the mean number of the degree respondents believed WHELS developed their leadership ability (Q9: Leadership Ability) differed on the degree their awareness change with regard to the gender dynamics with leadership positions at their institutions (Q13: Degree of Gender Dynamic Change). According to Levene’s test, the homogeneity of variance was reasonable. According to Levene’s test, the homogeneity of variance assumptions was satisfied [$F(3, 30)=2.532, p=.076$].

From Table 4.2, we see that the one-way ANOVA is statistically significant [$f=7.327, df= 3, 30, p=.001$], the effect size is rather large ($\eta^2=.423$; suggesting about 42% of the variance of respondents perceived leadership ability is due to the degree of change in awareness of gender dynamics), and observed power is quite strong (.970). The means and standard deviations of the perceived degree of leadership ability for each group of the independent variable were as follow: 2.6 (SD=.894) for the no change level,

Table 4.2

One-way ANOVA of Q9: Leadership Ability by Q13: Degree of Gender Dynamics Change

| Source | <i>df</i> | <i>SS</i> | <i>MS</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>p</i> |
|----------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------|----------|
| Between groups | 3 | 9.35 | 3.12 | 7.33 | .001 |
| Within groups | 30 | 12.77 | .425 | | |
| Total | 33 | 22.12 | | | |

3.5 (SD=1.0) for the little changed level, 3.93 (SD=.48) for the somewhat changed level, and 4.18 (SD=.6) for the good deal of change level. The means and profile plot Figure 4.1 suggested that with increased awareness change in gender dynamics, there was a corresponding increase in the degree of developed leadership ability. For completeness I also conducted several alternative procedures. The Welch Procedure [$F_{\text{asympt}}=3.932$, $df_1=3$, $df_2=8.47$, $p=.05$] and the Brown Forsythe procedure [$F_{\text{asympt}}=4.813$, $df_1=3$, $df_2=9.85$, $p=.03$] also indicated a statistically significant effect of gender dynamic awareness change on the degree WHELS developed respondents leadership ability.

Q4: Leadership Development asked survey participants, “Do you believe WHELS was beneficial to your leadership development?” The overwhelming majority of respondents indicated yes (94.44%). An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare Q4: Leadership Development with the independent variables of the training components. Two noteworthy findings were revealed. Question 11 asked respondents,

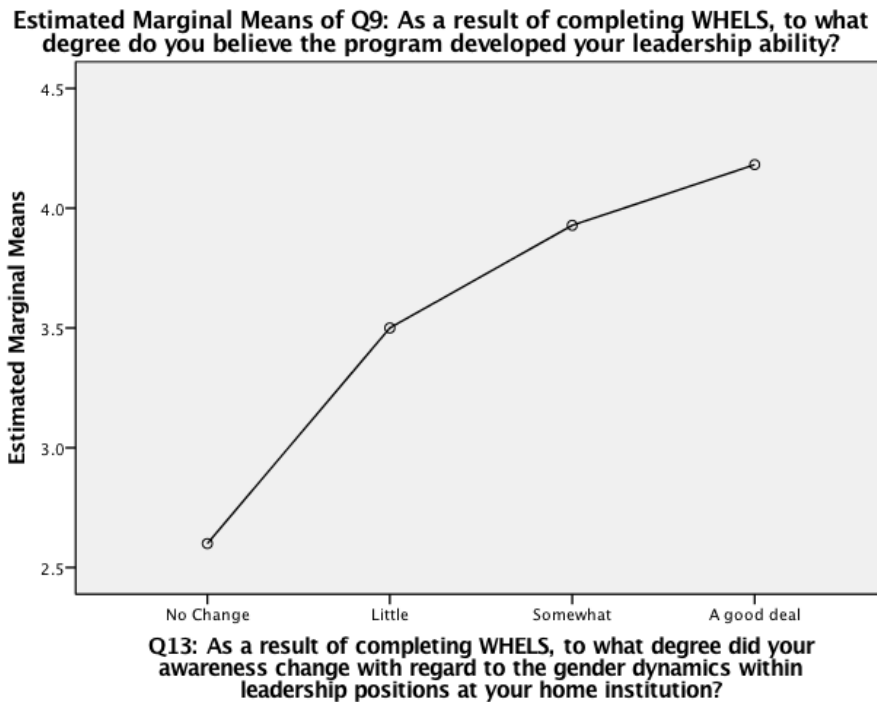


Figure 4.1. Means plot showing a monotonic linear relationship between Q9: Leadership Ability and Q13: Degree of Gender Awareness Change

“As WHELS is a women-only leadership program, did attending WHELS change the way you think about gender dynamics in the work place?” two responses were possible, no (level 1) and yes (level 2). In comparing leadership development benefit of WHELS in conditions of changing thoughts about gender dynamics in the workplace versus no changing thoughts, a significant difference was identified, IV level 1 (M=1, SD: .00) and IV level 2 (M=1.63, SD .492) conditions; $t(31)=-7.188$, $p<.001$. These findings suggest that a change in the way you think about gender dynamics does have an impact on the leadership development benefit perceived by respondents.

Whether WHELS changed the way participants thought about femininity and leadership (level 1-no; Level 2-yes) was also found to have an effect on the leadership development benefit perceived by respondents. There was a significant difference in the

scores for IV level 1 ($M= 1$, $SD=.00$) and IV level 2 ($M=1.53$, $SD=.507$) conditions; $t(31)=-5.927$, $p<.001$. This suggests that when women change their thoughts about femininity and leadership it changes their belief as to the benefit of WHELs on their leadership development. (See Table 4.1)

Women that completed WHELs reported improved understanding of effective leadership styles. The third hypothesis addressed whether or not alumnae understood effective leadership styles after completing WHELs. Survey question 19 (Q19: Leadership Style) addressed this, asking participants, “Did your understanding of effective leadership styles change as a result of attending WHELs?” Twenty-five respondents (73.53%) reported yes, WHELs changed their understanding of effective leadership. Nine respondents (26.47%) reported no change in their understanding of effective leadership.

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare Q19: Leadership Style with the independent variable Q11: Gender Dynamics Awareness, and whether or not participants changed the way they thought (level 1-no, level 2-yes). There was a significant difference in the scores for IV level 1 ($M=1.22$, $SD= .441$) and IV level 2 ($M=1.72$, $SD=.458$) conditions; $t(32)=-2.821$, $p=.008$. The findings suggest that when respondents changed the way they thought about gender dynamics that it also effected their understandings of effective leadership styles. Although the independent-samples t-test did not find a significant difference with regard to Q14: Femininity and Leadership and Q19: leadership style, it did matter with Q16: Masculinity and Leadership. The independent variable Q16: Masculinity and Leadership asked respondents if WHELs changed the way they thought about masculinity and leadership (level 1-no, level 2-yes).

There was a significant difference in the scores of IV level 1 ($M=1$, $SD=.00$) and IV level 2 ($M=1.4$, $SD=.5$) conditions; $t(24)=-4.0$, $p=.001$. This suggests that respondents that changed the way they thought about masculinity also reported a change in their understanding of effective leadership (See Table 4.1).

Perception of leadership skills. Hypotheses H1, H2 and H3 all address women's perception of their leadership abilities, identity, effectiveness. As there was a high degree of correlation between Q4: Leadership Development, Q7: Leadership Identity, Q9: Leadership Ability, Q19: Leadership Style, an index was made of the survey questions that related to the perception of leadership skills. As noted in Chapter 3, section on Analysis of Quantitative Data, an index of these dependent variables was created after a factor analysis was completed, which determined that an index was suitable. The index was named Perception of Leadership Skills (PLS).

The independent variables were then tested for correlation with PLS. The independent variables of this study were contained in survey questions Q8: Training Curriculum, Q11: Gender Dynamics Awareness, Q13: Degree of Change of Gender Dynamics Awareness, Q14: Femininity and Leadership, Q16: Masculinity and Leadership, Q28: Years in Higher Education, Q1: Year Attended WHELS, Q33: Age, Q29: Demographic Group, Q23: Position Prior to WHELS, and Q10: Women-only Preferred. Questions pertaining to the components of the WHELS training (i.e. curriculum) were Q8: Training Curriculum, Q11: Gender Dynamics Awareness, Q13: Degree of Gender Awareness Change, Q14: Femininity and Leadership, and Q16: Masculinity and Leadership.

Once the index of the independent and dependent variables was set up, correlation testing was completed. The dependent variable, perception of leadership skills (PLS) was positively correlated with all components of the training (Q8 Index Training Curriculum, Q11: Gender Dynamics Awareness, Q13: Degree of Gender Awareness Change, Q14: Femininity and Leadership, and Q16: Masculinity and leadership). Table 4.3 below details the correlational relationships between PLS and the components of training within the multiple regression table.

Table 4.3

Multiple Regression of Perception of Leadership Skills and Training Components

| I.V. Training Components | Q8 | Q11 | Q12 | Q14 | Q16 | PLS | β |
|---|-------|------|-------|------|------|-------------------------------|---------|
| Q8: Index of Training Components | 1 | .119 | .181 | .014 | .240 | .364* | .221 |
| Q11: Gender Dynamics Awareness | | 1 | .518 | .359 | .147 | .451** | .1 |
| Q13: Degree of Gender Dynamics Awareness Change | | | 1 | .378 | .248 | .660** | .460 |
| Q14: Femininity and Leadership | | | | 1 | .387 | .450** | .17 |
| Q16: Masculinity and Leadership | | | | | 1 | .432* | .19 |
| Mean | 28.26 | 1.59 | 2.91 | 1.5 | 1.29 | Adjusted R ² =.504 | |
| SD | 4.9 | .5 | 1.026 | .508 | .462 | | |

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

The dependent variable, perception of leadership skills (PLS), was significantly correlated to the independent variables that related to the components of the training. A multiple linear regression was calculated to predict PLS based upon the components of the training (Q8-Index of Training Curriculum, Q11: Gender Dynamics Awareness, Q13: Degree of Gender Awareness Change, Q14: Femininity and Leadership, and Q16:

Masculinity and Leadership). A significant regression equation was found ($F(5, 26)=7.295, p<.001$ with an R^2 of .584, R^2 adjusted = .504). The components of training predict 58.4% of the variance in the PLS. The analysis showed that Q13: Degree of Gender Awareness Change did significantly predict 46% of the variance of PLS ($Beta=.460, t(2.969, p=.056)$). However, Q8: Index of Training Curriculum, Q11: Gender Dynamics Awareness, Q14: Femininity and Leadership, and Q16: Masculinity and Leadership did not significantly predict PLS.

The perception of leadership skills was not significantly correlated Q28: Years in Higher Education, Q1: Year Attended, Q33: Age, Q29: Demographic Group, Q23: Prior Position, or Q10: Women-only Preferred.

Quantitative Research Question #2: Did alumnae report change in how they perceived gender dynamics? Understanding gender dynamics were important components to the training. Question 11 (Q11: Gender Dynamics Awareness) asked respondents if WHELs changed the way they thought about gender dynamics in the work place (in general). Twenty respondents (58.82%) stated yes, WHELs had changed the way they thought. Fourteen respondents (41.18%) stated no, WHELs had not changed they way they thought about gender dynamics. Question 13 (Q13: Degree of Gender Dynamics Change) asked more specifically if women's awareness changed with regard to the gender dynamics *within leadership positions at their home institution*. A majority of the respondents indicated that WHELs changed their awareness "somewhat" or "a good deal" (73.53%), whereas 26.47% reported little to no change in their awareness change.

Question 14: Femininity and Leadership had a split response. Fifty percent of respondents reported that WHELs changed the way they thought about femininity and

leadership, and the remaining 50% stated that it had not. With regard to masculinity and leadership (Q16: Masculinity and Leadership), 70.59% stated WHELS did not change the way they thought, but for 29.41% it did change their thinking.

As addressed in the previous section and in Table 4.4, Q11: Gender Dynamics Awareness, Q13: Degree of Gender Dynamics Change, Q14: Femininity and Leadership, and Q16: Masculinity and Leadership were all correlated with the perception of leadership skills (D.V.). The independent variables were also strongly correlated with each other (see Table 4.4).

Table 4.4

Gender Dynamics and Awareness Correlations
Descriptive statistics N=34

| | Q11 | Q13 | Q14 | Q16 |
|---------------------------------------|--------|-------|-------|-----|
| Q11: Gender Dynamics Awareness | 1 | | | |
| Q13: Degree of Gender Dynamics Change | .518** | 1 | | |
| Q14: Femininity and Leadership | .359* | .378* | 1 | |
| Q16: Masculinity and Leadership | .147 | .248 | .387* | 1 |

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

Quantitative Research Question #3: Did women experience WHELS as beneficial to their career path/trajectory? Hypotheses H4 and H5 were developed to examine quantitative research question number three: did women experience WHELS as beneficial to their career path/trajectory?

H4. Women that completed WHELS reported advancing their career, taking on a leadership role.

H4₀. Women that completed WHELS did not change their position.

H5. Women that advanced their career after completing WHELS attributed their advancement to what they learned at WHELS.

H5₀. Women that advanced their career after completing WHELS did not attribute their advancement to what they learned at WHELS.

Based upon the survey findings, hypotheses H4 and H5 were supported in the findings; the findings are presented in the following sections.

Women that completed WHELS reported advancing their career. Survey question 25 asked respondents, “Since completing WHELS, have you advanced into a leadership role/position at your institution?” Of the 33 respondents, 18 women (54.54%) had changed positions, taking on a leadership role/position, or had taken on additional leadership roles in their current position. Thirteen women (39.39%) had not changed positions since completing WHELS. Two women (6.06%) preferred not to answer the question.

Women that advanced their career attributed their advancement to WHELS. Respondents that answered “Yes” to Q25: Advanced Since WHELS, were prompted to answer question 26, which asked whether or not what they had learned in WHELS influenced their changing of positions or taking on leadership roles in their current position. Of the 18 respondents that had changed positions, or had taken on additional leadership roles in their current position, 13 women (72.22%) responded yes, what they learned in WHELS influenced the change. Five respondents (27.78%) answered no, what they learned in WHELS had not influenced the change.

Career Trajectory. Question 25: Advanced Since WHELS and Q26: WHELS Influenced Change captured the dependent variable, career trajectory. In preparation for data analysis, Q25: Advanced Since WHELS was recoded to capture whether or not the respondent had taken on a leadership role within their position or had advanced into a new position. For example, if respondents noted in Q23: Prior Position that they were

working as a staff person with administrative duties at the time of attending WHELS, and were currently working as a staff person with administrative duties (Q24: Current Position), but responded yes to Q25: Advanced Since WHELS, they had taken on additional leadership roles since completing WHELS, the response was recoded into a new variable named Job Change. Recoding the data captured any advancement in women's positions, whether it was through taking on a new position or taking on additional leadership roles in their current position.

In examining the correlation between women's job changes and the independent variables the following relationships were identified (see Table 4.5). Note the p values include $p < .1$ for this table. Due to the small number of cases $n=27$, it was necessary to loosen the statistical significance levels from $p < .05$ to $p < .1$. The independent variables related to the components of the training were not correlated to dependent variable Job Change.

Table 4.5

Job Change (Dependent Variable) and Independent Variables: Correlations

Descriptive statistics N=27

| Independent Variable (I.V.) | Job Change (Recoded Q25) | Q26: WHELS Infl. Change |
|-----------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------|
| Q1: Year Attended | .296* | --- |
| Q33: Age | .336* | --- |
| Q29 Women of Color | -.307* | --- |
| Q29 White Women | .466*** | --- |
| Q23: Prior Position | .935*** | --- |
| Q10: Women-Only Preferred | --- | .614*** |

* $p < .1$ ** $p < .05$. *** $p < .01$.

Dependent variable Q26: WHELS Influenced Change was not correlated to the independent variable related to the components of training (Q8: Index Training

Curriculum, Q11: Gender Dynamics Awareness, Q13: Degree of Gender Dynamic Change, Q14: Femininity and Leadership, and Q16: Masculinity and Leadership). The only independent variable related to Q26 WHELS Influenced Change was Q10: Women-Only Preferred, which asked whether the respondent sought a women-only environment out, see Table 4.6. This finding was supported in the independent-samples t-test conducted to compare the levels of the independent variable Q10: Women-Only Preferred (level 1-no, level 2=yes) with the change in position attributed to what respondents learned at WHELS. There was a significant difference in the scores for IV level 1 ($M=1.2$, $SD=.447$) and in IV level 2 ($M=1.85$, $SD=.376$) conditions; $t(16)=-3.111$, $p=.007$. These results suggest that respondents that preferred a women-only leadership development program attributed their change in position to what they learned at WHELS.

Dependent variable correlation. The two identified dependent variables, perception of leadership skills (PLS) and career trajectory (Q25: Advanced Since WHELS and Q26: WHELS Influenced Change) were not correlated. Conclusions for this lack of correlation will be addressed in Chapter 5.

Summary

Based upon the findings of the survey data analysis, the five hypotheses were supported. Women that completed WHELS improved their leadership identity, improved their leadership abilities and understood effective leadership styles. Additionally, women that completed WHELS advanced their career, taking on a leadership role and attributed that advancement to what they learned at WHELS. In the next section the findings of the qualitative portion of the study are presented.

Qualitative Phase of the Study

Participants

As noted in Chapter 3, survey participants indicated at the end of the survey whether or not they wished to be contacted as part of the qualitative phase of the study. Of the 36 survey respondents, 27 indicated their willingness to participate. Using purposive sampling, interview participants were selected for their representation of different social locations (race/ethnicity, age, sexual orientation). In addition, a deviant case was selected, a participant that had a relatively negative experience with the program. In total, 11 alumnae of WHELs participated in the qualitative phase of the study. The background of the participants varied for the purpose of understanding the experiences of women from a variety of social locations (See Table 3.4, Chapter 3). Interview protocols were developed based upon the review of the survey findings (see Appendix D), and interviews were conducted until the information gathered reached saturation and sufficiency. The qualitative research questions that guided this phase of the study were:

1. How did women from various social locations describe their experiences with WHELs?
2. Did attending WHELs influence women's pursuit of leadership positions within the academy?
3. How did women from various social locations describe their experiences within higher education?
4. How did women from various social locations define leadership?

Using the quantitative survey findings, the qualitative research questions, and the existing literature, five a priori codes were identified to assist in the first round of data analysis.

The five a priori codes were as follows:

- Comments related to leadership, definitions, and personal style
- Experiences in higher education specific to the woman's social location
- References to mentors, sponsors, or developing networks
- References to self-esteem, self-confidence, or self-awareness
- References to the personal experience with WHEELS, suggestions or feedback for WHEELS

As Saldaña (2009) states, a priori coding is a helpful analysis tool in mixed method designs. A priori codes provided the structure by which interviews were analyzed. Each interview was coded according to the a priori codes, using a color-coded highlighting process. The highlighted portions of the individual interviews were then combined into their coded area. Once organized by codes, a second round of coding was completed. The second round utilized hypothesis coding and used the specific hypotheses of the quantitative phase as a guide for coding the data. An in-depth description of the qualitative data analysis procedure was detailed in chapter 3. In the following section the findings of the participant interviews and the open-ended, narrative responses from the survey are presented.

Findings/Themes

The purpose of this study was to answer the overarching research question: How do women from various social locations understand the influence of WHEELS on their

career plan/trajectory? Analysis of data from the qualitative phase of the study resulted in the a major finding that addressed the main research question:

Women benefit from attending WHELDS; it confirmed the leadership ability and style the women already possessed. WHELDS built women's self-awareness and self-confidence, allowing women to adopt a leadership identity. Women benefited from this leadership identity as it built their self-efficacy and agency.

The following sections detail how this finding was discovered. First, women's experiences within the institution of higher education are presented to capture the challenges for women that deflate self-confidence in their leadership ability and style. Women's voices from a variety of social locations are presented. Second, through the interviews with women, it came to light that their leadership style prior to attending WHELDS fit with the feminine or transformational style of leadership. Women did not learn this style at WHELDS, but rather WHELDS confirmed their style as effective. Third, the findings of how women experienced WHELDS are presented. This section details women's personal experiences with the program and how the theme of building self-confidence in their leadership ability rose to the surface. Fourth, as the women adopted a leadership identity, the findings indicated that it led to the women building self-efficacy and a sense of agency. Using the participant's own words, stories, and experiences, support for the above finding is presented.

Women recognize challenges of working in higher education. In order to understand the reason why women in higher education seek out women-only leadership programs, it is necessary to understand the plight of women working in higher education. Johanna succinctly captured the challenges of being a women in higher education in her

comment, “there are some unique challenges, as well as some unique opportunities for women working in higher education.” Supported in the literature, women do face unique challenges in higher education. The participants in the qualitative phase of this study spoke of their experiences of being women in higher education.

Many women spoke of the unique needs of women, and the frustration of working within an institution that does not recognize those needs. With particular emphasis on child rearing and caregiving, participants noted the challenge of balancing their workload with the responsibilities in the home. As Alexis noted, “one thing I won’t do or trade off is allow someone else to raise my children.” This led her to feeling pulled in a number of directions and struggling with balance in her life, “I mean we can be super, but we don’t have to be Super Woman. A lot of people feel that we [women] do, and that’s something to struggle with as well.”

Interestingly, Sandra also raised the concept of being Super Woman. She, too, noted her frustration with the number of responsibilities she had in her day-to-day life, balancing work and home life. She believed that the message that women received, that they can have both career and children was unrealistic, “this whole ‘women can have it all today,’ it is all crap and b.s.” She questioned where women got the notion that they had to do it all and be really good at it all too. She wondered, “Did we just learn growing up that we had to do it all or we weren’t going to be successful, or was it something we picked up along the way? I don’t know.”

The challenge of caregiving is confounded with the inflexibility of higher education institutions, and the lack of awareness to the unique needs of women. As Johanna noted, after she completed WHELs, she returned to her campus and participated

in a women led initiative that surveyed the needs of women on campus. This group of women sought to make their campus more family friendly and female friendly, learning women's needs and how the group could assist them. Based upon their findings, a lactation room was added for women that were breastfeeding and needed a private place to pump.

When discussing women's experiences moving into higher-level positions, such as administration, many women noted delaying opportunities that were available to them until their children were of a certain age. As Jennifer noted, "for some women it just goes back to that family things as well, it might not be the time is right because they have those family obligations." Jennifer shared her own experience of waiting to take her first tenure track position until her children were grown because she knew the demands that the position would have for her.

Jennifer shared her experiences as the first woman in an all-male department. Prior to entering academe, she always felt that there was no gender difference; she could "be one of the boys." However, she noted that once she became a faculty member, she experienced a couple of situations, "where I realized that no, I thought about things very differently than they [male colleagues] did." She shared her occasional experiences of walking into the room where two male colleagues were talking and that that they would fall silent because they were telling each other off-color jokes. She quickly sensed that she was different and that she did not "fit."

Being the first woman in her department also led to additional challenges. With a woman on board, it was time to bring "diversity" to all of the groups, "I was the classic case of we need to have a diverse curriculum committee so let's throw her on the

curriculum committee.” She noted that this led to her becoming overcommitted and providing a great deal more service than her colleagues. This over commitment to service can often times create challenges during the tenure review process as the emphasis for tenure is on the research and scholarship side. Jennifer indeed faced this challenge, however, she faced an additional hurdle in her tenure process, “Being the first women in the department they made a rule that if you were a minority you had to have somebody, you could choose to have somebody of your particular stripe on your tenure committee, which then created a problem because there were no women in my department to sit on my tenure committee so they had to go outside of the department.”

An interesting theme that emerged through the stories of participants was the “gender-tipping point.” Several women discussed how the presence of one woman in an upper-level position impacted the institutions view of gender equity, “we had a female provost for about 10 years, so everyone would say ‘oh, we have no problem, we have a female provost.’” The presence of a single woman negated the fact that the same institution had never had a female dean in six different colleges (Jennifer). This rang true for Desiree, her institution also had a female in a top administrative role and due to this the institution did not see gender inequities, despite there only being two women on the president’s cabinet, one of which was the president.

This lack of visibility of women in roles in levels above department chairs was notable for several women. Jennifer noted that such women were “few and far between” and Johanna noted “many women who would like to have a leadership role don’t see any opportunities for them.” Without women in top positions in higher education, aspiring women lack role modeling.

The lack of modeling impacts women's self-esteem and self-confidence that is needed to pursue leadership roles. Several of the participants noted their belief that women do not pursue leadership positions because they do not feel capable. As Alexis stated,

I would internalize a failure to a greater extent I think than some of my male colleagues, like something goes wrong in their area and yes they [men] acknowledge the problem, but it isn't an internalized problem, like they think they were subpar for something because something went wrong. Whereas for myself, and I've noticed for other females, it is really personal.

Differences in how women experience higher-level decision making, such as internalizing issues, may impact a woman's confidence of how capable she is to lead.

As presented in the literature review, women's leadership styles differ from men's in many aspects. Women using their natural style of leadership may receive implicit or explicit messages from their institution that that style of leadership is not valued, or is judged differently. As Johanna noted,

women on campus in leadership positions, sometimes we are held up to a different standard than what seems to be acceptable for a man in a leadership position. He is looked at differently, you know the whole thing about being aggressive, or getting angry, you know that kind of thing...we [women] are supposed to be nicey-nice and not rock the boat.

This differential treatment women witness on their campus, or experience themselves, may negatively impact their perception of themselves as a leader or capable for higher-level positions.

Additionally, if institutions view the expectations of a leader to be in the traditional "male" style, which traditionally excludes a strong relationship component, it might be off putting for women. As Johanna noted, "As women we love our relationships, and they are very important to us, and sometimes moving into leadership

positions requires us to renegotiate those relationships and they become different.” Even when women had not experienced any negative treatment related to their style of leadership, the women still reported lacking the confidence to pursue higher positions or take on leadership roles (prior to WHELs).

A story told by several of the participants demonstrated the difference in self-confidence between men and women regardless of ability. According to the women, a story that was told at WHELs that really stuck with them was that men will consider a position if they meet 60% of the listed job qualifications. However, women feel the need to meet 100% of the qualifications for the position. Women believed they need to meet all of the competencies before they can move into a higher position, rather than seeing their ability to learn some of those qualifications once in the new role. Participants’ own experiences resonated with this story. They, too, had not pursued advancement because they did not believe their skills were “up to snuff.” In one interview, a participant noted she had shared this example with her graduate student in the previous week. She explained that her student brought in a post-doc job opportunity and commented that she did not meet all of the listed items in the job posting. The participant encouraged her student to apply as she possessed many of the listed qualifications and that she could learn the others while in the new position.

Women of varying social locations. As this study utilized critical race feminism, this section highlights the experiences of women from different social locations, as they experience additional challenges and hurdles in the ivory tower. Through the analysis of data, two social locations that came to the forefront were the experiences of women of color and women of varying ages.

Several women told stories of their experiences that they knew were linked to being women of color. Alexis shared her experience of being one of the first women of color in her office and how every person of color hired after her was somehow attributed to her being there, like she was “intentionally bringing on other people that are Black or minorities and so that can be disparaging in the aspect that the only reason that a person is employed is because they are of a particular race, when that is, and in our case, simply not true.” She explained that she was not part of the search committees, yet she still felt that her peers held this misconception.

An area noted in the literature that resonated with Alexis’ experience was over commitment. Similar to Jennifer’s experience of being the only woman on staff and having to “bring diversity” to different groups on campus, Alexis warned of becoming a token, “I talk about tokenism a fair amount and you have to be careful not to allow yourself to become a token.” Explaining that becoming a token leads to more service, which leads to over commitment.

In discussing her experiences in higher education as a woman of color, Maria, “I can speak for women of color, is that we have persistence and tenacity. And so although I can see that was working against me, being a woman of color, I could close my eyes and bury in, it didn’t stop me. I kind of just went for it, just more so. Like ‘oh, really? Oh, okay, now I’m really going to go for it.’” She noted that her success in higher education was through this tenacity and persistence, although she also had allies that helped her overcome situations of discrimination,

In some cases I either had a copilot, and that copilot was not a person of color, and/or someone who wasn’t of color spoke up on my behalf when they definitely could see the disparities because I was a woman of color. I was always appreciative of that.

Maria shared a recent story that provided an example of how differential treatment does not have to be explicit; it can be implicit and covert.

As a current doctoral student, she is in the process of writing her dissertation and is working with a new advisor. This advisor has been particularly suspect of the participant's rate of progress and has all but outright accused her of using the help of an outside source to produce her work. This has impacted Maria deeply, as she recalled a similar experience she had in Elementary/middle School when a teacher accused her of cheating on a book report because she used an advanced word for her age. Whether stated or simply an undercurrent in the conversation, having to defend herself from these types of accusations motivated Maria to demonstrate her tenacity and persistence.

The second social location to emerge from the data was age. Women at both ends of the spectrum noted that their experience in higher education could be connected with their age. Alexis felt early on in her career that her youth was used to keep her from pursuing advancement, reporting comments such as "you haven't put in your time so you might not be ready." On the other end of the spectrum, women later on in their career note experiences that they relate to their age. As they have spent a longer time in higher education and are now considering retirement and the next phase of their lives, women are concerned about succession planning, about preparing the next generation of women for roles in higher education administration.

These women reflected back on an institution that has made progress with regard to the treatment of women, but noted that a glass ceiling continues to exist. They understand through first-hand experiences the challenges present for women in academe. As one participant noted, she was concerned about how few younger women wanted to

advance into leadership roles because they had seen how other women in those roles have been treated.

A younger participant also commented on the experiences she had had with older women in leadership positions at her institution. She expressed concern that she was unsure if these women were “friend or foe” because of her observations of interactions with upper administrative women. Discussion of how older women may have had to “scratch their way to the top” created a sense for this participant that certain women may not be open to mentoring or sponsorship because they had not had that luxury in their own professional life. This limits available mentoring for women trying to connect with women in leadership positions. Without the guidance of women advanced in their careers, women struggle to navigate the policies and politics of institutions.

Defining leadership. Women that attended WHELs came to the program already with an effective leadership style and ability. When asked to provide the definition of leadership they held prior to attending WHELs, participants defined leadership through a transformational or feminine lens. Each of the interview participants defined leadership with an outward focus, meaning that they defined leadership as other-focused. Definitions such as inspiring others, supporting others, serving others, and guiding others, encompassed the responses from 10 of the 11 interview participants.

This theme was supported by the findings of the qualitative survey in question 20: “How did your understanding of leadership style change?” Responses to this question were coded and themed into three main areas. First, survey respondents noted learning that it isn’t just one personality that makes a good leader. This theme responds to the use of the Myer-Briggs personality test that was used as part of WHELs. As all of the

personality types were examined in terms of their effectiveness for leaders, survey respondents noted that it helped them to see that there is not just one type of personality that makes for an effective leader.

Second, responses identified the theme of recognizing one's own area of need in terms of their leadership style. Survey respondents noted their need to be more self-aware, more self-confident, being authentically yourself, and being open to asking for help and delegating work. Respondents agreed that WHELs helped them to nurture their strengths and identify areas they would like to work on. As one respondent noted, she now, "understood the power to change is in my own hands."

The final theme related to the transformational style of leadership. Survey respondents noted the empowerment involved in this style of leadership and that connected with their own style and way of being. A response reflective of this theme stated,

I learned that effective leadership does not mean being correct all the time, it is okay to get it wrong or make a mistake. It's what you do after getting it wrong that is important. An effective leader must "dare greatly," be willing to make hard decisions that you know will not be accepted by all if you are doing so ethically and because you believe it is right. Effective leadership means "going where the love is," surrounding yourself with those who provide support and encouragement. An effective leader must treat herself as well as she treats her best friends.

Through the use of the transformational style, women saw the connection of caring for others and self as an integral part of leadership; WHELs confirmed for women that this style of leadership is effective and beneficial.

The overarching finding of the qualitative phase of the study was that the women that attended WHELs already possessed leadership *abilities*. Through interviews, participants expressed their styles of leadership as being transformative and empowering.

However, they felt as though this style was abnormal as it had not been a style reinforced at their institution, or was not the style used among other leaders at their institution. They lacked confidence in their style of leadership.

Jennifer saw herself as being different from her colleagues because how she approached her role with her personnel was more caring and nurturing. She defined leadership as, “if you do it really well nobody can tell that you did it at all. That you are guiding and supporting the people that you are working with towards something that they want.” It was not until she attended WHELPS that she saw that her way of leading was not wrong, but that it was an effective way of working with her personnel. The interview participants’ feelings of being different, or not the standard was also reflected in the qualitative portion of the survey. Survey respondents noted that WHELPS raised their awareness and helped them to look at women leaders on their campus in new ways. It affirmed their own experiences and the need to be aware and proactive. It also helped them move away from seeing male leadership styles at the “standard.” Some of the representative statements from the survey respondents include:

- “It made me aware of my own leadership style as a woman in the workplace, which affirmed systemic issues that I have encountered throughout my career.”
- “It helped me to move away from applying leadership in men as the ‘standard’ by which all leadership is judged.”
- “[It] re-emphasized the differences between genders without minimizing either gender.”
- “There are certain attributes automatically assumed for male leaders and this environment made me rethink how I assign them to my male colleagues.”
- “It helped me analyze how I fit into an organization and what I need to do to be effective.”

Others noted that the way they viewed themselves as a leader did not change after attending WHELPS, but rather it was strengthened, reinforced, and magnified. As interviewee Michelle noted, her leadership style was “affirmed by WHELPS...felt better

about my thought around that [leadership style].” This can be interpreted as developing confidence in their own abilities, and in the way they define and embody leadership. In order to capture how WHELS developed participants’ self-confidence and self-esteem, the next section details the participants’ individual experiences with WHELS.

How women experienced WHELS. In analyzing women’s experiences with WHELS, the main theme that emerged was that it built participants’ self-confidence in their leadership abilities. Through WHELS participants were able to discuss openly their experiences surrounding leadership and how they viewed it. Jennifer noted that she realized that administrators were not a “different breed,” but normal people like her,

I was surrounded by these other people, normal people, I don’t know I always thought administrators were a different breed, but I was surrounded by all of these people who were really normal...It was just they weren’t all super hero people, we all had feelings, we all had struggles, and nobody was doing it perfectly.

Being able to spend time engaging with other women with similar experiences, challenges, and struggles was pivotal for Jennifer to see that she could be a leader, she didn’t need to be a “Super Woman” in order to lead.

Other women described their experience at WHELS as a transformational event in their life. Maria noted that “by the time we got to day two, I felt like there was some sort of transformation happening to me and then also I noticed it was happening to the women around me as well.” Sandra shared this sentiment, “it was so reenergizing, and it was so, it was just an experience where you had to be there to understand...the women that were there, the support from the women, hearing some of their stories, that they were just as unbelievable as mine.” Feeling reenergized is also captured in Johanna’s response,

Best thing I have ever attended in my life. Absolutely the best thing, I came away from it so stoked, and so inspired, and just all of those activities they did, like having us do markers on our arms, or body parts, and taking a picture, and writing

that letter to ourselves at the end and then getting it a year later...it really spoke to me.

The way they described their experience demonstrates that the participants felt affirmed by the content and that it developed their self-confidence and self-esteem.

For women to “get away” from the day-to-day pressures, duties, and responsibilities was also helpful so they could really engage with the content. Desiree noted

I think like the best benefit for me was being able to take the time and space away from my job and my family to really reflect and think about my professional development and my leadership capacity...I think that the conference...did a good job of this, focusing on personal traits, experience and I thought it was a supportive and encouraging environment.

Alexis agreed that WHELs allowed women to personally focus on their development, “it exceeded my expectations by helping me realize that you have to create your own guidebook for yourself because one created by someone else may not lead you down the path you wish to go.”

The findings of the qualitative interviews were supported by the findings of survey question three, which asked survey respondents, “What three words describe your overall WHELs experience?” and question number five, “What was the most effective part of the WHELs program?” Respondents’ word selections for Q3: Three Descriptive Words were categorized, coded, and themed. Three main categories surfaced. First, words reflecting how being at WHELs made respondents *feel*. Examples of terms include: fun, community, authentic, motivating, challenging, engaging, connecting, supportive, and nurturing. This category captured how respondents enjoyed WHELs, were engaged, and challenged in a motivating way, while in an environment they felt was an authentic, supportive, and nurturing community.

Second, participants selected words related to the *content* presented during WHELs. The respondents used terms such as eye opening, educational, enlightening, helpful, beneficial, powerful, pushing people intellectually, stretched, thought-provoking, introspective, reflective, and insightful. The overall theme of this group of terms portrayed women's experiences of WHELs as intellectually stimulating and eye opening. They remarked that the content was beneficial or helpful while also being enlightening and thought provoking.

Finally, the words that reflected what women perceived as their *outcome* assessment of WHELs were described. Terms such as empowering, inspiring, transformative, amazing, restorative, cathartic, uplifting, and fulfilling were used. Interestingly, only one respondent noted the actual word leadership to describe WHELs, women noted words much more personal to describe what they got out of attending WHELs.

Based upon their experiences, participants of WHELs began the journey of building their self-confidence during the conference. Leaving the conference inspired, reenergized, or normalized allowed participants to adopt a leadership *identity* and return to their home institution with more self-confidence in their pursuit of leadership roles.

Building self-efficacy and agency. The major finding of the qualitative data analysis was that WHELs built women's self-confidence in their leadership ability, and assisted the women in the development of a leader identity. As women returned to their home institutions with a renewed sense of self, women's stories captured the development of agency and self-efficacy. Alexis captured her leadership identity in the following statement

I think I was coming to the realization that women internalize things a little differently and it is okay to be different and to address your needs in an appropriate manner for yourself...and less of what you see from others especially if what you are seeing is people that are not similarly situated.

Recognizing that their leadership styles were effective, and they indeed have the ability to lead, participants reported returning home and reevaluating their career path/trajectory and their involvement in their community.

For some, this reevaluation involved self-acceptance of their leadership identity and in their own personal style of leadership. Several participants noted that after WHELS they accepted how to be true to themselves in their roles. Jennifer noted that she returned from WHELS with the recognition that she had “to be true to me so when I try to be something that I’m not it doesn’t work for me.” Additionally, she stated, “it [WHELS] wasn’t so much about how to do the job, it was much more about how to be me when I do the job.” For Alexis, with regard to her post-WHELS experience, reported that she was now, “more aware of the path I choose to take for myself after leaving the WHELS conference, I’m less driven by what the wishes are of other people.” Acknowledging her abilities and taking on a leadership identity, Michelle noted that she recognized that “I’m on the path, why not take the lead, you know?”

The themes of the participant interviews were also reflected in the qualitative survey data of Q27: Please explain how WHELS influenced the change in your position or acceptance of a new position. In coding the data, the two main themes as to how WHELS influenced women’s decision to take on new leadership responsibilities or advance into a new position emerged, self-awareness and self-confidence. Numerous responses captured how the women’s experiences with WHELS built their self-awareness of their skills and ability for leadership roles.

- “It prepared me to deal with real issues that may occur. It helped me realize that the issues faced by many happened at different levels and the importance is to be aware and be able to handle it.”
- “WHELS helped me to process the change in a way that is both productive and beneficial for me. For example it was not a change of choice; however, I feel more empowered to control my attitude and altitude.”
- “Attending WHELS provided me with the courage and self-knowledge to accept a position as interim provost. WHELS helped me understand that I had it in me, that I could take an opportunity which also seemed like a risk if I remembered what I learned at WHELS: dare greatly, manage your stress, seek out your supports, and a myriad other things.”
- “I was more aware of who I was in the room. My contribution was more intentional.”

A second theme was self-confidence. By having a better self-awareness, women were able to build their self-confidence for pursuing more responsibility and leadership in their positions, or pursue advancement in their career. Women noted that WHELS opened them up for more opportunity and helped them to overcome any self-doubt or fear.

- “I had much more confidence to go after a Director position that I don't think I would have had prior to attending WHELS.”
- “I was more willing to accept the leadership positions that were offered. I was more confident in my abilities.”
- “Made me more fearless, opened my horizons”
- “I decided I didn't want ANY admin position-just one I felt I had the skills for, and that allowed me to focus on available opportunities enhanced my self-confidence to allow for additional leadership duties in my current position”
- “WHELS gave me the confidence to share my ideas and express my concerns with colleagues”
- “I was not afraid to take on a new opportunity despite feeling anxious about the scope of the new responsibilities.”

The outcome of WHELS for other participants led them to taking a more active role in their community and in building networks for themselves and others. In her interview, Johanna spoke of returning from WHELS “emboldened” and that she recognized her responsibility in “taking it up another notch” with regard to her involvement with women’s organization in her community. Since returning from WHELS she began working in a state organization that focuses on women in higher

education. She stated this organization provides her, “opportunities...to perhaps work through that organization on a local level to get at some of these issues with gender dynamics.” Additionally, Johanna is now working with 2 or 3 women on her campus that are looking forward to leadership positions,

I’ve sort of become their mentor and they have sought me out. And I think that is one way women can do that, they can to WHELDS, they can get involved here at *², they can seek out a mentor that can help them with that. And sharing experiences and I think also as opportunities are presented to them rather than shying away from them right away, give yourself some time to thinking about that opportunity and what that might mean for you.

Michelle also began mentoring women on her staff upon her return home from WHELDS. She noted that she realized that she could guide these women through talking with them about their career goals and how to reach them. She noted that she’s been having conversations with these women that yes, “you can pursue your bachelor’s degree perhaps here at *, while you are still working, taking one class a semester we’ll give you time to do that, and work towards an education, a higher degree if you want to.”

Michelle returned to her institution with a new found motivation to work within her position to advocate for a group of vulnerable students at her institution. She led a new initiative that engaged community leaders, employers, and educators in the development of a program to assist students with felony convictions. She spoke about the past challenges of assisting students in employment searches, and she said when she returned from WHELDS, she had a clearer idea of how she could help and she took the lead. As a result she built a network within her community that is better assisting a high-risk, vulnerable group of students.

² * Identifying information has been removed to protect the confidentiality of participants.

Another outcome of the WHELS participants was the founding of a small network of women. A group of women from the same institution that attended WHELS at the same time decided that they would build a networking group. As they shared the common experience of attending WHELS, the women (a group of 5) have been meeting at least one time per semester. Adrianna noted that this group has been a “wonderful system, support system, and I guess it feels powerful to know that there are other allies around rooting for me and just supporting being...it is providing more and more of support than anything else actually.” Several members of this group shared the story of supporting a group member in applying for and successfully achieving her master’s degree, a goal she had set for herself during WHELS. The group members actively supported her and celebrated her achievement together.

Upon returning from WHELS, participants took action. They pursued leadership roles within their current positions; they sought out and/or obtained new leadership positions, began mentoring other women, began working with advocacy organizations, started social justice activities, or began networks of their own. Completing WHELS confirmed for participants that they possessed the abilities of a leader and built their self-confidence and self-esteem needed to adopt a leadership identity. Through this identity of a leader, the WHELS participants developed *agency*.³

Feedback and suggestions for WHELS. One of the questions posed during the interviews was whether or not WHELS met the expectations of the participants. Although the majority of women reported positive experiences and that WHELS had met, and or exceeded, their expectations, participants gave feedback and suggestions for WHELS.

³ Agency is defined as the capacity, condition, or state of acting or exerting power.

The two main themes that arose from this data were the development of a stronger WHELS alumnae network, and developing a WHELS II that was more focused on the practical skills, tools, and more tangible resources.

Many of the participants expressed their desire to begin building a stronger WHELS network during the conference. Desiree noted

one thing I had kind of hoped that it would produce a cohort that would keep together. And I think they had tried to encourage use, and maybe some people are still involved, but that is not my sense. And I think they could do more to stimulate that.

Michelle also suggested that there could have been better facilitation of connecting and spending time getting to know each other during WHELS to support connections once they returned home.

The second theme was for the development of a WHELS II. The recommendations for a second WHELS focused on the continued development of participants' leadership skills. Colleen noted

Because now I have a baseline and so now I would probably go back looking for some specifics...really look at the specifics of how to better fine-tune me. And at the end of the day, I want to be that better person. I'm always looking to grow.

Sandra also expressed interest in attending a WHELS II, "I'd do it in a heart beat with my own money." Jennifer also saw the value in a second gathering and agreed that it was worth her time and money, "I'm keen on that, even if I had to pay for it myself." It was the hope of Desiree that she would have come away from WHELS with a clear action plan, and "practical, tangible resources. For me the conference was very centered on intangible, emotional things, which I think is good and valid, but I wish it would have had the additional components of how do you translate that into action."

The findings of the qualitative phase of the study were supported by the findings of survey question six, which asked survey respondents “What could be done to improve the WHELS experience?” Community building and networking were two areas that came through as areas for improvement. Suggestions regarding how to address this area included more time in small groups, more time to get to know one another (dinners, networking events), follow up with an alumnae group to foster continued networking and contacts, offer a WHELS II, more focused on cultivating a culture of women helping women in higher education, and finally more follow up with tips and tools once women return home from WHELS.

Through the interviews with participants, it became clear that WHELS provided women increased self-esteem and self-confidence and developed their leadership identity. Returning to their institutions they engaged in this new identity and demonstrated their self-efficacy and agency. The participants noted that they were now ready, and very eager, to return for a second WHELS that would harness this new identity and further develop their leadership skills through action planning, and as Desiree identified it, “more practical, tangible resources.”

Deviant case sampling. As the sampling procedure was purposive, a deviant case was selected that did not align with the majority of the participants. The case was selected based upon her survey responses; she was one of two respondents that indicated a negative experience with WHELS. The three words she used to describe her experience at WHELS were overwhelming, lost, and discouraged. As she provided her contact information (the other respondent did not) she was contacted and asked to participate in

the qualitative phase of the study. This section captures the WHELS experience of Rachel.

Coming to WHELS at the recommendation of an administrator, Rachel provided great insights into how women might experience WHELS if they came to the conference with the belief that they did not possess any leadership abilities. She noted, "I feel that I am not a natural leader, I do feel that leadership can be learned, I don't think it is all a matter of traits...some people have more natural inherent leadership abilities than I do." Having recently advanced into the position of department chair, she felt her advancement was not due to her ability, but rather being the only available person for the position.

Upon arrival to WHELS, Rachel immediately felt out of place. As an older woman, she had entered higher education after years in her professional field. She felt she was coming to her position late in the game in comparison to the women she met at WHELS

When I got there these women were, for the most part, younger than I am, and some of them quite a bit younger than I am. And they had such insights into themselves and they were already leaders. They were already in managerial positions of some sort and I was not.

This created a tension for Rachel, she wanted to go to WHELS to learn about herself and gain better insights into her own leadership, but the women she saw at WHELS she interpreted as being advanced in their abilities as a leader. She was discouraged by her assessment that she was behind in her career as compared to the other women in the group,

They were so confident and I think there is a lot of positioning that goes on, a lot of sharing about themselves to each other that boils down to I can pee further than you, I am better than you. And it wasn't done that way, it was all done in a collegial way, we all got smiles on our faces...but I just felt...I didn't belong.

Interestingly, her assessment of these women was that they were embodying the masculine leadership traits of aggressiveness and positioning. She analyzed their behavior through a leadership lens that highlighted authority and hierarchy. Her use of the term, “pee further than you” to describe the women at WHELs reflected her masculine perspective. Rachel expressed in her interview that she felt that she did not belong, which she described as not wanting to demonstrate the masculine behaviors she perceived happening during WHELs.

In her description she noted that these women seemed to be natural leaders, already in management positions early on in their careers, and she noted that “I’m not a natural leader and I will never be a natural leader...doesn’t mean I can’t be good at what I do. But I felt that I was out of place.” The sense of not belonging and feeling out of place influenced how Rachel felt about the conference,

I think it brought up too many concerns for my own leadership and I just didn’t think I could take another day of it. I was feeling pretty lousy about myself at that point...I didn’t attend the last day I was so uncomfortable at the conference and found it overwhelming and I did not even go to the last day.

Due to these feelings, Rachel questioned whether or not WHELs was the right place for her to be, and ended up not attending the final day.

By participating in this interview, Rachel began to process her thoughts about, and experiences with WHELs. Through our conversation she demonstrated critical thinking about her feelings about herself, and how, in retrospect, her feelings may have been coming from within herself rather than from the women around her

I don’t know that this conference was that bad. I think it stemmed from me...Doing the circle evaluation [360° Feedback™] gave me insight and that insight gave me some confidence...but I don’t know that it was necessarily the program or that it was that I was feeling so uncomfortable around these women

that were posturing and smiling and ‘oh we are having such a great time.’ And I’m feeling so uncomfortable that I just didn’t, it probably came from me.

Rachel stated that her intent of going to WHELs was to gain insights into herself and gain self-awareness. Through our conversation, she demonstrated the ability to assess her own feelings, thoughts, and behaviors that may have influenced her assessment of WHELs and of the women attending. Being able to look back and assess whether or not WHELs affected her leadership ability in anyway, she responded, “It gave me confidence to know that people believed in me.” Despite having struggled with her perceived abilities in comparison to the other women during the conference, Rachel returned to her home institution with a greater confidence in herself and her abilities that she needed to adopt a leadership identity.

Summary. Analysis of data from the qualitative phase of the study along with the qualitative survey data resulted in the following theme: Women benefit from attending WHELs, however, the outcome for women did not describe WHELs as building their leadership *ability*, but instead it confirmed the ability they already possessed. WHELs built women’s self-awareness and self-confidence, allowing women to see their abilities and to adopt a leadership *identity*. Women benefited from this leadership identity as it then built a sense of *self-efficacy and agency*. As this study utilized mixed methods, the next section integrates the quantitative findings and the qualitative findings.

Mixed Method Findings

The overarching research question of this study sought to fill the gaps in the existing literature by asking the question: How do women from varying social locations understand the influence of Women in Higher Education Leadership Summit on their

career plan/trajectory? Further, the study sought to better understand how women experience leadership within their institutions, and define their own leadership.

As this study utilized sequential transformative mixed methods, the process of analyzing data began with the analysis of the survey (quantitative phase of the study). This analysis informed the development of the qualitative phase of the study (participant interviews). In the previous section, findings of the qualitative phase were presented. As the findings of both phases were analyzed separately, this section provides the analysis of the quantitative and qualitative findings together.

The structure of this analysis utilized the hypotheses of the quantitative phase. By combining the quantitative and qualitative findings a stronger analysis is completed. Findings of the quantitative phase can be supported, or refuted, with the depth of narrative directly from participants. Further, the outcome of this analysis informs the conclusions and implications for action presented in Chapter 5.

Meaning Making of Mixed Methods

Data analysis of the quantitative and qualitative phases confirmed that each of the hypotheses presented in the quantitative phase were supported. This section will detail each hypothesis and provide the supporting findings.

Women that completed WHELs improved their leadership identity. Indicated in the survey, 94.29% of respondents reported that their leadership identity was strengthened as a result of attending WHELs. This finding was further supported in the qualitative phase of the study. Interview participants spoke in great detail about returning to their institutions after WHELs feeling “inspired,” “emboldened,” and “ready to take it up a notch.” The participants detailed their engagement with new leadership

opportunities, social justice and advocacy activities, mentoring relationships, networking groups, and pursuing leadership roles within their current position or seeking out/obtaining new positions. This hypothesis was supported by the mixed method findings.

Women that completed WHELS reported improved leadership abilities.

Survey respondents (94.44%) indicated some level of improvement with their leadership abilities, 76.47% of those respondents indicated the level of improvement as a great deal or an above average degree of improvement.

The qualitative findings for this hypothesis introduced an interesting tension. Through interviews women reported that their preferred style of leadership prior to attending WHELS was transformational (feminine style). Attending WHELS did not change their leadership style, but rather affirmed women's styles of leadership. Participants noted that they became more comfortable in their leadership style and more confident in their abilities.

The participants indicated that they were already utilizing this style of leadership, which indicated that they already possessed the leadership abilities prior to attending WHELS. Participants noted lacking self-confidence and self-esteem in their leadership style and that WHELS was pivotal in affirming their sense of self in leadership. Rather than improving their *ability*, the qualitative data indicated that participants were already capable leaders. WHELS assisted women in developing the self-confidence to recognize their skill and abilities, thus empowering women to adopt a leadership *identity*.

Women that completed WHELS reported improved understanding of effective leadership styles. As noted in the above section, women came to WHELS with an understanding of effective leadership styles. In interviews with participants the women

noted their styles of leadership prior to WHELS as transformative and feminine styles of leadership. WHELS confirmed for the participants that their natural style was effective, confirming their leadership ability and building their leadership identity.

This finding suggested that the survey question, which asked if women increased their understanding of effective leadership, may be a flawed survey question. Although 73.53% of respondents indicated that they had increased their understanding, the qualitative data suggests that the women already utilized effective leadership skills, just that they lacked the confidence in the effectiveness of those skills. In future studies, it would be necessary to clarify this question as to better capture the understanding of participants with regard to effective leadership styles. This issue is addressed in Chapter 5 as a limitation of the study.

Women that completed WHELS advanced their career, taking on a leadership role. Noted in the quantitative findings, over 50% of survey respondents indicated that they had taken on a leadership role, either in their current position or had moved into a higher-level position. As the majority of survey respondents were just two years from having completed WHELS, time since completion is a factor to consider when assessing the advancement of women into leadership roles and positions.

Many of the participants in the qualitative phase of the study noted claiming a leadership role within their current position and several had moved onto an advanced position. They spoke of claiming their leadership identity and claiming the leadership roles that they had already been doing in their current position. Desiree provided an example of this, she had already been serving on the President's cabinet for years; however, after attending WHELS she adopted a leadership identity and took ownership

of the leadership role she possessed in this position. She noted that she went from being a member of the cabinet, to being an equal on the cabinet, a peer to the others, such as the Vice-President.

There are some unique challenges present for women when discussing upward mobility in higher education. Several participants in the qualitative phase noted that there were limited opportunities for upward mobility at their institutions, or that women did not feel that upward mobility was possible for women at their institutions. If positions do not exist for women at their current institutions, are women able to leave the institution in search of another position at another institution? Research indicates that there are complicating factors for women in this position, such as their spouses' employment, uprooting children, or childrearing responsibilities. Several survey respondents noted that they did not pursue their positions until after their children were older, or had moved out of the house.

Another challenge with regard to upward mobility, and taking on leadership roles, was the lack of mentorship and sponsorship for women at their home institutions. Having the benefit of guidance in navigating advancement in higher education through a mentor or sponsor is invaluable. However, a common response of participants was that they had lacked this resource. Although they saw their role in mentoring other young women, they had not been afforded the benefit of having mentorship to guide their own careers. Some of the participants expressed concern that some of the women that had made it into upper administrative positions had to combat such odds that rather than being supportive and reaching out to other women on campus, they were competitive with other women. One participant expressed that she was unsure at times if these women were "friend or foe."

In addition to lack of mentorship, participants noted a lack of connection to beneficial networks (either on or off campus). Many participants expressed that they had been disappointed that WHELs had not led to a stronger network system for alumnae. They expressed their desire to remain connected and to build a resource for one another. A small group of women were able to create that based upon their WHELs experience; however, this was not the case for the majority of participants. Some participants sought out networking opportunities after WHELs, however, other women were still looking for a place of connection and support.

Women that advance their career after completing WHELs attributed their advancement to what they learned at WHELs. For the survey respondents that indicated a change in their leadership role (either taking on leadership in their current position or obtaining a higher-level position), 72.22% indicated that what they learned at WHELs contributed to their career advancement. In discussing this with participants, they noted that their self-confidence improved due to WHELs and that they saw themselves as capable and worthy of consideration for more advanced positions. The example told by several participants of the differences between men and women in assessing their abilities in applying for new jobs deeply impacted interview participants. Several spoke of giving themselves permission to take the risk and apply for a new position even if they did not meet all of the qualifications. Women's identity as leaders and their confidence in this identity led women to self-efficacy and agency.

Summary

This chapter presented the findings of the quantitative phase of the study, followed by the qualitative findings. Finally the mixed methods findings were presented. The five hypotheses of this study were supported by the mixed method findings. In Chapter 5 conclusions based upon these findings are presented. Additionally, limitations of the study, and suggestions for future research are provided. Finally, implications for action are detailed.

Chapter 5

In this mixed methods study I examined how women from various social locations understand the influence of the Women in Higher Education Leadership Summit (WHELS) on their career path/trajectory. Through a sequential mixed methods process of a quantitative survey, followed by a qualitative phase of interviews, data were collected and analyzed. The findings were presented in Chapter 4. This chapter will discuss the findings in context of the current research literature. In addition, this chapter addresses the limitations of the current study, presents recommendations for future research, and finally concludes with implications for action.

Discussion of the Findings

This section discusses the findings of the current study in the context of the research literature. First, the challenges and barriers present in higher education experienced by women from various social locations are presented. Second, findings of the benefits of WHELS are compared to the available literature on other women-only leadership development programs. As this was a mixed methods study, a tension in the findings of the quantitative phase compared to the qualitative phase is also presented. Finally, the career trajectories of WHELS alumnae are compared to the outcomes for alumnae of other women-only leadership development programs available in the literature.

Women's Experiences in the Academy

The current study began with a quote from Thomas, Bierema, and Landeau (2004), which stated that if higher education wanted to “look” more like their student population, meaning more women and racially and ethnically diverse, “higher education must create a culture and infrastructure supportive of women...this means that the culture, structure, policies, and rewards must be consistent with promoting diversity and women in the organization” (p. 70). Their call to action for higher education has largely gone unresolved. As this study confirmed, the current structure and culture of higher education does need to be changed, as the male hegemonic structure creates challenges and barriers for women within the academy.

Women in this study confirm the findings of previous studies; women continue to have more teaching and service responsibilities, face a caregiver bias/maternal wall, and lack mentoring and access to informal and formal networks. First, this study confirmed that women spend more time with students (in and out of the classroom). When women spend more time with students it becomes categorized as a feminine or motherly behavior—seen as merely expressing “maternal instinct.” Labeled as feminine, the male hegemonic culture of higher education discounts the activity, rather than seeing it for what it really is—a disproportionate load of professional service. Additionally, women reported doing more service in their academic roles, leading to more work hours, and having to work even harder to achieve similar outcomes in institutional recognition. As noted in the research, women were appointed by male administrators to service roles such as department chairs, which increased workload while limiting research output.

Caregiver biases and the maternal walls were also noted in the current study. Women reported the delicate balance of demonstrating their commitment to their

institution while simultaneously providing the majority of childcare and completing the majority of home life responsibilities. A common theme of this study was women's feeling that they had to "do it all" and do it all well. The descriptor of Super Woman, or denying the ability to be Super Woman, came through in several survey narrative questions, along with the qualitative interviews. Women reported working weekends, late-nights after bedtimes, or missing dinners/events with children in their attempts to successfully get all of their work done. These findings reflect those in the research literature, as Montas-Hunter (2012) stated, "women have to scramble to maintain a home, succeed in their role as mother and/or wife, and at the same time take on every project, work 12-hour days and volunteer on every committee to succeed in the workplace" (p. 318).

Finally women reported lacking a connection to mentoring relationships in their institution, and not having access to the formal and informal networks in their organization. Women noted that barriers existed in accessing networks and mentoring relationships. There were few women mentors available in their institution, or women in those ranks were too busy to provide the time needed to mentor younger women. Not being able to model or shadow higher education leaders limits how comfortable women are with stepping into leadership roles. As noted by Ely et al. (2011) women received less social support for learning how to claim a leader identity.

Further women reported being isolated from formal and informal networks in the workplace. This limited women's insider perspective into the institutional cultural norms, behavioral expectations, and promotion processes that are often unwritten. Additionally, women in the current study noted that they were uncomfortable with networking as they

saw the type of relationship as inauthentic, preferring fewer, deeper relationships (Ely et al., 2011). Other women expressed concern that their schedule, demands, and responsibilities at work and at home, limited their ability to engage with networks that may benefit their career. They recognized networking as important, but that it was yet another to-do on a never-ending list of things to accomplish.

This study supported the findings of Eagly and Carli (2007), Hoyt, (2005), and O'Brien and Janssen (2005). As their research revealed, women are not advancing at rates similar to men, and found a broad gamut of barriers and challenges for women's advancement from the structural and societal barriers noted above. This limits the number of women available to enter the leadership pipeline. An interesting finding of the current study was how the barriers and challenges in higher education affected women; it impacted their self-confidence and self-esteem.

The concept of self-confidence and self-esteem were pivotal findings in this study. When women are not seen in the upper management ranks, women take away several messages: there are no opportunities for women to advance at their institution, or women do not "fit the mold." Many women noted that the opportunities that do exist for leadership advancement required the traditional, bureaucratic leadership styles, so women (who do not prefer or embody this style) do not consider themselves as qualified for the position. As Wasserman (1986) noted "we behave in ways that confirm our beliefs about self, if we don't see ourselves as having the power or confidence to lead, we may not pursue those roles" (p. 69). As women in this study defined their leadership style as transformative, embodying a more feminine approach, they did not see their styles represented in the leadership of their institutions and received the message that they did

not “fit.” Women saw that their style of leadership and gender stereotypes did not match the embedded idea of the ideal masculine leader. This created a lack of confidence in their ability to lead. Gallant (2014) argued that these prejudices sustain a glass ceiling for women, and it helps explain why so few women are able to break through.

Women face more than the stereotypes of their gender, as this study detailed. The realities of women from different social locations reveal additional challenges, especially for women at the intersection of gender and race. Guided by the framework of critical race feminism, this study featured the stories of women of color to show that not all experiences are the same, and to give voice to those differences (Yosso, 2005). Found in the current study were stories of isolation, frustration, and resistance, similar to those captured by Turner et al. (2011), Chan (2010), and Glazer-Raymo (1999). Detailed in this study’s findings, women of color reported carrying a heavy workload in “service, teaching, and research as a direct result of being highly tokenized, numerical minorities in predominately white institutions” (Turner et al., 2011). Supported in the current study, several women of color (identified as African-American and Latina) detailed their experiences of having to provide additional service to the institution on committees because of the lack of diversity. As Croom and Patton (2011, 2012) argued, simply being present in a college or university does not mean one is welcomed, provided support, achieves promotion and tenure, or is paid equally.

Women of color in this study noted the need to persevere with persistence and tenacity. As one interview participant noted, when told she could not do something, she increased her drive to accomplish that task. Additionally, women spoke of the need for allies and “copilots” in the workplace to navigate discrimination and the white, male

hegemony of the academy. Confirming the challenges and barriers women from various social locations experience in higher education, it became clear as to why women struggled to reach leadership and administrative positions. They recognized the differences they experienced and how they internalized the struggle, which negatively impacted their self-confidence in pursuing such roles. If you do not see any women that look like you as role models, and do not see your style represented among the leadership ranks, it stifles women's self esteem to take the risk and pursue administration. Thus, it is important to examine women-only leadership programs, such as WHELPS. It is necessary to determine if women perceive any benefit for their career plan/trajectory and better understand how women of various social locations experience this program.

Women's Experiences with WHELPS

Attracting women from a variety of backgrounds, WHELPS provided women with the time and space to focus on personal development, especially in an environment that places women in the majority, a finding also identified by Ely et al. (2014). Women also reported benefitting from sharing their career stories with each other to establish they are not alone in their struggles or in managing their careers (Thomas et al., 2004). The women in this study found WHELPS to be a safe space in which to examine and conceptualize their leadership styles and increase their beliefs in their leadership ability (Ely et al., 2014). Women came to understand and confirmed the ways the culture and structure of higher education created the barriers to their advancement, but then aided women in conceptualizing how to overcome those barriers psychologically and socially (Bonebright et al., 2012).

The findings of the current study support the findings in the research literature. As noted in Chapter 2, the three main themes of the previous studies of women-only leadership development programs were: building women's self-confidence and self-efficacy; networking; and career planning (Harris and Leberman, 2012; Hornsby et al., 2012; Longman and Lafreniere, 2012; O'Bannon et al., 2010, and Hawthorne Calizo, 2011). First, this study confirmed the importance of building women's self-esteem. As Harris and Leberman (2012) noted, increasing self-confidence translated into women taking action on their career direction. Hornsby et al. (2012) had similar findings, building self-confidence assisted women in their decision to pursue leadership roles. Once in those leadership roles, building self-efficacy and self-confidence helped women to believe in their capacity to succeed in that role (Hawthorne Calizo, 2011).

The central contribution of this study to the research literature is the common theme identified in both the quantitative and qualitative phases of this study: increased self-confidence and self-awareness that was built as a result of completing WHELS. Women noted the empowerment involved in their styles of leadership and that it connected to their way of being. WHELS helped them to confirm that this style was effective. WHELS confirmed for these women that they already had the ability to lead. With a confirmed leadership identity women returned to their home institutions and pursued leadership positions or a greater leadership role in their current positions.

This study also supported Harris and Leberman (2012) and Hawthorne Calizo's (2011) finding of the importance of networking. The participants in this study recognized after completing WHELS the importance of building a network, both formal and informal. Several women reported that after completing WHELS, a group of women

alumnae began meeting together to form an informal network of support for one another. Another participant noted that she became active in a formal network in her state that addressed women in higher education leadership issues. Many of the respondents made the request that WHELS develop a stronger alumnae network, to continue the support of other women. Additionally, respondents recommended the development of a WHELS II, similar to Harris and Leberman's (2012) study that found support for an alumni conference.

Tension in the Findings

As reported in Chapter 4, data from the quantitative phase supported the study's five hypotheses. Survey respondents reported that WHELS did improve their leadership ability, improved their understanding of effective leadership styles, and improved their leadership identity. However, when the qualitative findings were analyzed, a tension was created in the findings of hypothesis number three (H3: Women that completed WHELS reported improved understanding of effective leadership styles).

A strength of this study was the collection of both quantitative and qualitative survey data and the completion of a qualitative phase. As noted in Chapter 3, a benefit of mixed methods is that weaknesses of one method are balanced out by the strengths of another method (Creswell, 2003; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Through the analysis of qualitative data, a clearer interpretation of how WHELS alumnae benefited from WHELS came to the surface. Women in this study were motivated participants who already possessed effective leadership styles and the capacity to lead. Due to their experiences within higher education's male hegemonic culture, which preferred a more masculine, bureaucratic style of leadership, they reported that they lacked belief in their

abilities and in their style of leadership. Women reported lacking self-confidence in their style of leadership. Through WHELS women's styles were confirmed to be effective and women were able to share stories, which reflected their common experiences and struggles. Through this process, alongside the curriculum of WHELS, women improved their self-confidence, recognizing their effective style and ability to lead, and adopted a leadership identity.

The recognition of the importance of gender stereotypes and oppression with regard to leadership and advancement in higher education is supported by the findings of survey question 13 (Degree of Gender Dynamics Awareness Change). It was the only statistically significant predictor of the variance of the dependent variable, Perception of Leadership Skills. Thus, this study concludes that WHELS alumnae came to the program already possessing effective leadership styles and the ability to lead. WHELS provided the confirmation that their style of leadership was effective, and that they did have the ability to lead. Once women built their self-confidence surrounding this ability, women then adopted a leadership identity. This identity as a leader allowed women to return to their home institutions and pursue leadership roles and positions, as demonstrated in the next section.

Career Trajectory

The outcome of a leadership identity influenced WHELS alumnae in their pursuit of leadership roles and positions. As noted in Chapter 4, hypotheses number four and number five were supported by both quantitative and qualitative data (H4: Women that completed WHELS reported advancing their career, taking on a leadership role; H5: Women that advanced their career after completing WHELS attributed their advancement

to what they learned at WHELDS). It should be noted that as highly motivated women attended WHELDS, only a correlational relationship between WHELDS and career advancement can be established, not a causal relationship (O'Bannon et al., 2010).

Hawthorne Calizo (2011) had similar findings, women advanced in their positions after attending the WLDP she studied. This was also found in Longman and LaFreniere (2012), as a majority of their study participants had moved into a new position or had accepted additional leadership roles after attending the WLDP.

Again, the qualitative data supported the quantitative survey data. In response to how WHELDS influenced their positions change, two themes were identified: self-awareness and self-knowledge. Survey respondents noted:

- “Attending WHELDS provided me with the courage and self knowledge to accept a position...WHELDS helped me to understand that I had it in me”
- “I had much more confidence to go after a director position that I don't think I would have had prior to attending WHELDS”
- I was more willing to accept the leadership positions that were offered, I was more confident in my abilities”
- “Enhanced my self-confidence to allow for additional leadership duties in my current position.”

The WHELDS alumnae that participated in this study demonstrated that they entered WHELDS with a feminine style of leadership (theme in the qualitative interviews), but that they lacked the self-confidence to recognize their leadership abilities. WHELDS bolstered women's self-confidence and the women recognized their leadership abilities, leading to the women adopting an identity as a leader. This is further supported in the findings with the number of women that had accepted leadership roles/positions and the number of women that attributed the change to the influence of WHELDS.

The current study examined recent alumnae of WHELDS. As this program began in 2012, and the number of years since completion averaged 1.94 years among the

respondents, the factor of time does come into play. This may also aid in the explanation of why the two dependent variables (perception of leadership skills and career trajectory) did not correlate. Although respondents experienced improvement in their perception of their leadership skills, not enough time may have passed for women to have the opportunities made available for career advancement. The limited time lapse since WHELS completion should be considered a limitation to the study. This is explored in more depth in the next section, as are other limitations of the current study.

Limitations of the Study

If this study were to be redone, there are limitations that would need to be addressed. The first limitation of the study is in the development and execution of the quantitative survey. Within the survey there are several areas that would need to be clarified, revised, or expanded upon.

With regard to clarification there are several survey questions that need to be clarified in order to assure accuracy of the measure. For example, Q4: Leadership Development, asked survey respondents whether or not their understanding of effective leadership changed as a result of completing WHELS. In consideration of the findings, survey respondents may misinterpret this question. According to the findings, women came to WHELS with an understanding of what works for them in their leadership style, they came with the feminine style of leadership. WHELS improved their self-confidence in their style; it did not change their style. Some survey respondents may have answered no because their style and abilities were not changed, thus their understanding of effective leadership styles would not have changed. Other respondents may have

answered yes because they wanted to answer in the affirmative to what WHELS accomplished due to their positive experience. Thus, it is unclear and the findings of Q4: Leadership Development may come into question. A better option would involve a sequence of questions that asks respondents what style of leadership they considered to be the most effective prior to WHELS, and after completing WHELS what style of leadership did they consider to be the most effective. Clarifying this line of questions would produce a clearer understanding of whether WHELS changed their understanding of effective leadership, or if it simply confirmed their current understanding.

Misinterpretation may have also occurred with Q26: WHELS Influenced Position Change. For example, interviewee Alexis responded no to Q26, stating that although she advanced into a leadership role, WHELS did not influence the change. However, during her interview she clarified that response. She noted that the logistics of her position change was part of a negotiation. She interpreted Q26: WHELS Influenced Position Change concretely, meaning she saw her position change from a logistic perspective. During her interview she clarified her response and stated WHELS gave her the confidence and self-assuredness to move into the new position. In future studies, this question should be asked in a way that is clearer.

Another area of the survey that would need revision is with the level of measurement. In the current survey Q28: Years in Higher Education and Q33: Age were ordinal measures, meaning it limited the types of data analysis I could do. Had the questions been in interval measures, I could have controlled for age or number of years in higher education. Questions 29: Demographic group would also need revision with the level of measurement. Although a categorical (ordinal) measure is necessary for the

question, I did not provide all possible racial groups and rather grouped respondents together as “women of color.” This design decision limited my findings; I was unable to expand any interpretation of the findings beyond that category.

Additionally, it alienated my respondents, as one survey respondent noted, the grouping into one category of “women of color” made her feel that her identity was not recognized or valued. As this study sought to empower women from various identities, this oversight was not congruent with the study’s intention. I believe this to be an issue of my identity as a white woman; I did not recognize how phrasing devalued the survey respondents’ identities. Further it limited my understanding of the findings. In the findings section “Women of Color” was negatively correlated with “Job Change” (recoded Q25: Current Position), whereas the correlation for white women was positive. By not separating out the racial groups in Q29: Demographic group, I limited my ability to learn if there were differences between particular racial groups, and to gain a better understanding of the negative correlation between race and job change.

The section on Gender Dynamics Awareness and Leadership (survey questions 11 through 16) would also benefit from expanding options and gathering additional information. As the findings of this section indicated strong correlational relationship with perception of leadership skills, it would have been more advantageous to be more specific with this line of questioning. In particular, Question 13: Degree of Gender Dynamic Change, needs to be expanded upon. I believe this question is actually capturing women’s increase in self-confidence regarding their own feminine styles of leadership and/or reflects the community of women sharing similar experiences in higher education, thus confirming their own experiences with the culture of higher education. However,

due to the limited scope of the question, I am unable to examine the findings in any great detail.

In addition to clarifying and modifying questions, it would also be beneficial to add a section to the survey that examines the career plans and projections of survey respondents. As the number of years post-WHELS averaged 1.94 years, there was perhaps too little time post WHELS for opportunities for advancement to arise. Knowing the challenges for women to relocate (Dahlvig & Longman, 2010) some women may be unable to pursue opportunities outside of their institution and thus may have to wait longer periods of time before opportunities to advance open up. It would have been beneficial to the study to ask future projection questions regarding advancement. For example, a question that asks “In the next 5/7/10 years do you see yourself in an advanced leadership role?” Options would gauge how they may see their career trajectory and capture if they desire to pursue advancement. This would also address an underlying variable, women’s motivation. As this study identified that the alumnae of WHELS were motivated to attend a leadership development program (also identified in O’Bannon et al., 2010), it would be beneficial to see if they still saw themselves advancing in their careers.

How survey questions were worded, or measured, were not the only limitations of this study, there were also issues with knowing the demographics of the WHELS alumnae population, as well as issues with the survey’s response rate. As demographic information was not tracked for WHELS alumnae, I was unable to determine if my sample was representative of the WHELS alumnae population. Due to this my findings pertain only to the sample and cannot be generalized to the population. Although the study still provides valuable information, the ability to generalize findings would have

strengthened the study. Also, the response rate of the survey, though adequate at 37%, was not as high as I had hoped to achieve. Due to constraints of time and being unable to access the specific email addresses of alumnae, I was unable to reach out more directly to those that had not yet participated.

Time was also a factor in the qualitative phase of the study. Due to constraints of time, the number of interviews conducted with each interview participant was limited to one. Although I was able to reach saturational sufficiency through my interviews with eleven participants, I do feel it would have benefitted the study to have multiple interviews with participants. This would have allowed for deeper inquiry and verification of experiences and realities. Although member checks allowed participants an additional review of questions and the opportunity for clarification or additional comments, I believe more time interviewing would have strengthened the current study.

It is necessary to critically examine the limitation of this study in order to improve future research this study may inspire. Presenting these limitations will better prepare future researchers to expand upon this study's findings and conduct future research. In the next section recommendations for further research are provided.

Recommendations for Future Research

In addition to addressing the limitation of the current study outlined above, if this study were to be replicated there are additional considerations to examine. First, as the average time since completing WHELS was 1.94 years, it is recommended that an additional follow up be completed with alumnae at perhaps the 3, 5, or 7-year mark post-WHELS. This will provide a more adequate time span to have lapsed to capture job

changes and perhaps if done over the course of several years may give clearer insights into the career trajectory of alumnae. Second, I also recommend adding questions pertaining to alumnae's social mobility. Several women noted their concerns regarding upward mobility opportunities at their current institution. Future research should examine women's perceptions of available opportunities and any challenges/hurdles that may exist in their efforts to pursue career advancement.

In addition to expanding the current study to include the recommended sections, an additional recommendation is to study other women-only leadership development programs (WLDPs). As demonstrated in the literature review, few studies exist that closely study the outcomes for women who have attended WLDPs. WHELS is one of many available programs in the United States. More evaluative research on these programs is necessary to not only confirm the findings of the existing literature, but to confirm that WLDPs are in fact beneficial to the leadership advancement of women in higher education. Also, should WHELS develop a WHELS II using the proposed curriculum as recommended in the Implications for Action section below, additional research evaluating the program will benefit the knowledge base.

Additional research topics that emerged that warrant further examination relate to the specific experiences of women. First, research is needed that examines the experiences of women who are in the later stages of their career. Interview participants in this study, and survey respondents as well, detailed concerns and experiences related specifically to their age and the stage of their career. Two specific areas were related to succession planning, preparing the next generation of women to advance, and the role of mentoring younger women in higher education. Another area related to older women

experiencing the ups and downs of a higher education career. As Justine expressed in her interview, a career in higher education administration has ups and down, and that she attended WHELS despite being in a senior level position because she needed to rebuild her confidence after a particularly challenging event and “wanted new tools, new energy...a reflection back on what I was doing.” Hearing the stories and experiences of women from this particular stage in their career is important not only for better understanding of the lived experiences of women in higher education, but also for understanding the women’s paths for achieving the success they have had in the academy.

Another area for further examination involves the “Super Woman Syndrome,” which was expressed by several women in this study. This study revealed the high level of expectations women in higher education have on themselves in both work and home life. They spoke of having to do it all and having to do it all well. Further research examining this phenomenon among women in higher education would provide insights into the social and cultural pressures present for women and how it influences their careers in higher education.

Finally, demonstrated throughout this study, and in the research literature, is the challenge for women from various social locations to thrive in the academic workplace. With the male hegemonic culture, women continue to experience labyrinths in their pursuit of administrative roles. The institutional culture of higher education with regard to diversity, equity, and inclusion needs further research. Additionally, if an institution had successfully navigated a cultural shift, a study of that institution’s path may serve as a potential model for other institutions. Clearly, this study reveals avenues for further

research, not only within WLDPs, but also within the walls of the academy and within the lives of academic women.

Implications for Action

Women in higher education face institutional barriers and hurdles that create a labyrinth in their pursuit of leadership positions (Eagly & Carli, 2007). As demonstrated in the current study women are experiencing the pressures of success in the workplace while shouldering enormous demands outside of their work due to childrearing and home life. The concept of “being Super Woman” or struggling to “do it all” came to the surface in this study.

What about women’s socialization in the U.S. culture tells women they have to do it all? Perhaps being told throughout her life that she could “have it all” and “be anything that she wanted to be” became distorted. Rather than having more choices in careers, and more choice in family planning, perhaps women received the message that you must do both a career and raise a family, and show society they are capable of “having it all.”

But, where has this led women? Endless to-do lists, responsibilities, and pressures leave women little time to assess their current situation and needs. Being “too busy” on the job and with family responsibilities creates yet another hurdle for women to take the time necessary to focus on their professional development through mentoring and professional networking. Women are stretched to the limit, unable to “lean in⁴” any further. The culture of higher education must begin to evolve to better meet the needs of women.

⁴ Sandberg, Sheryl (2013). *Lean In: Women, Work, and the Will to Lead*. Alfred A. Knopf: New York.

This section addresses measures that can be taken to improve the professional lives of women in higher education. First, programs such as WHELS need to be readily available for women. As demonstrated in the findings of this study the WHELS program provided women in the academy with the self-confidence to recognize their leadership ability and adopt a leadership identity. These women returned to their institutions and reported taking action in their careers, building self-efficacy and agency. Although Ely et al. (2011) argued leadership development for women must move beyond identity work, based on this research, I would argue that this is a necessary step in preparing women leaders in higher education.

Women benefitted from the identity work offered through WHELS curriculum. The building of self-confidence, self-efficacy, and agency are necessary for women to thrive in their leadership identity. With the enhanced identity women begin to recognize the critical components of mentorship, networks, and building social capital (Alfred & Nanton, 2009). By training women to be confident in their leadership style and identity, WHELS alumnae are better prepared to mentor other women. Alumnae are also more aware of the need to seek out and engage with professional networks.

WHELS can play a more integral role in women's building of social capital by investing time and resources into the development of stronger networking systems both during the program, and especially for alumnae. Women expressed the desire to remain connected, and saw WHELS as their opportunity to stay connected and participate in a network of women.

In addition to stronger networking opportunities through WHELS, this study provided evidence that a second WHELS program, a WHELS II, is highly desired by

alumnae. However, in alignment with Ely et al. (2011), WHELS II will need to move past the critical and necessary identity work and take on a radically different perspective of what women need to be effective leaders. WHELS II needs to focus on preparing women to become agents of change within their institutions. The women attending WHELS II will possess the leadership identity and agency to engage in the necessary work of institutional cultural and structural change. Providing tangible resources, guides, and ample action planning, alongside a strong, supportive WHELS network, WHELS II alumnae will be prepared to return to their institutions not only as leaders but also as agents of change. Rather than teaching women how to function within a male hegemonic structure and culture, women need to be prepared to expose bias, and spark institutional change.

Gangone (2009) made a similar call to action when she argued “until women achieve true parity in the academy,” women’s leadership programs will need to “serve a dual purpose, to move with intentionality women into leadership roles and to empower all women, as tempered radicals to lead from wherever they are in an institution, understanding that social change is not a luxury but an imperative” (p. 62). A program such as WHELS II can provide the necessary training for women.

Women, however, are not to be the sole agents engaging in initiating change. Women are not responsible for the current male hegemonic culture and it should not fall upon the shoulders of women to make institutional cultural change. Institutions of higher education must rise to the challenge. Laws to prevent discrimination in the workforce did not erase the cultures that maintain masculine hegemony (Glazer-Raymo, 1999). If higher education institutions honestly seek to become institutions of diversity, equity, and

inclusion, it is necessary to take the first step, reveal the entrenched masculine hegemony, including the leadership preferences that foster the continuation of the status quo (Glazer-Raymo, 1999).

This research study confirmed that women continue to experience the barriers revealed in studies conducted decades earlier. Now is the time for institutions to heed the call, to create an environment conducive to fostering diversity and equity. The cultural and social norms of higher education must change. Increasing the representation of women and other underrepresented groups benefits not only the faculty, but is in the best interests of higher education institutions to develop and promote women and minorities in both faculty and administrative careers (Thomas et al., 2004). Until the social, cultural core of higher education is recognized, addressed, and changed, women and minorities will continue to face oppression and discrimination in the ivory tower.

Conclusion

This study sought to answer the research question: how do women from various social locations understand the influence of women's leadership development programs (WLDPs) on their career plan/trajectory? Through the use of sequential transformative mixed methods, the key element of the Women in Higher Education Leadership Summit (WHELS) that prepared and supported their alumnae was identified: building women's self-confidence in their leadership ability. This study revealed that women benefitted from attending WHELS; it confirmed the leadership ability and style the women already possessed. WHELS built women's self-awareness and self-confidence, allowing women to adopt a leadership identity. Women benefited from this leadership identity as it built their self-efficacy and agency.

Additionally, this study gave voice to the stories of women from a variety of social locations. Using the conceptual framework of critical race feminism, this study set participants' experiences in the context of their identities; participant's backgrounds and self-identified social locations were explored, and their stories were presented to highlight that women are not a homogenous group. There are a number of intersections in women's lives that influence their understanding and interpretation of their experiences within higher education.

Further research is needed on women-only leadership development programs. This study's findings are limited to the WHELS program and cannot be generalized to other WLDPs due to differences that may exist between programs. If women continue to seek out leadership development programs in their efforts to advance into administrative positions in higher education, it is necessary to evaluate alumnae's experiences with other programs.

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APPENDIX A

Conceptual Framework

As this study focused on the experiences of women working within a male dominated system, it was a natural start to examine feminist theory as a potential conceptual framework. In reviewing feminist theory, I struggled with the theory's essentialization of women's voices (Wing, 2003). Though women may have common experiences being of the same sex, and being subject to similar stereotypes and discrimination, there are additional social locations women possess that create differences in their lived experiences. Thus, I sought out a conceptual framework that acknowledged the similarities and differences of women. A fitting conceptual framework for this study is critical race feminism (CRF). CRF identifies the various social locations of women, and provides avenues for exploring women's experiences more holistically. As CRF was not developed until the late 1980s, and it has not been used widely in research, a thorough background of the conceptual framework is presented in this chapter.

Critical Race Feminism: Recognizing the Multiple Identities of Women

Acknowledging the culture of dominance embedded within higher education, which privileges White and male social locations, it is important to use a conceptual framework that addresses the complexity of the inequity involved. As women in higher education have social identities beyond their gender, it is key to address their experiences using a lens that captures it. Critical race feminism (CRF or FemCrit) provides such a lens.

Defined by Berry (2010), “Critical race feminism is a multidisciplinary theory that addresses the intersections of race and gender while acknowledging the multiplicative and multi-dimensionality of being and praxis for women of color” (p. 25). It is a framework that, “can be used to theorize, examine, and challenge the ways race and racism implicitly and explicitly impact social structures, practices and discourses” (Yosso, 2005, p. 70). CRF expands the dialogue used to express the ways in which women are struggling for social justice and equity, and further provides voice to the multiple experiences of people of color; voices and discourses that are normally ignored and thus silenced (Yosso, 2005).

This analytic framework has been used only a handful of times in examination of the experiences of women in higher education, specifically presidential positions (Ausmer, 2009). However, CRF was used as a framework for examining pedagogy in K-12 education (Berry, 2010; Evans-Winters & Esposito, 2010) as well as the experiences implementing a service-learning curriculum (Verjee, 2012). Griffen (2013) used critical race feminism as the analytic frame for discussing the promotion of librarians within a higher education setting. To date, there are no studies that use CRF to analyze the experiences and progression of women faculty into administrative and leadership ranks, nor are there studies regarding Women’s Leadership Development Programs (WLDPs) using a CRF lens.

Blending Feminism and Critical Race Theory (CRT)

The CRF theoretical framework was born out of two pivotal larger frameworks. Coming out of the critical race theory (CRT), it blended the overarching foundations of CRT with the fundamental structure of Black feminism or “womanism.” It is important to

understand how these two movements were blended together to create the conceptual lens of CRF.

Critical Race Theory. CRT draws from an extensive literature base. Born out of the critique of the Critical Law Theory (CLT), CRT draws upon “law, sociology, history, ethnic studies and women’s studies” (Yosso, 2005, p. 71). CRT found CLT limited by its focus on the white/black binary of racism and oppression. It broke out of this binary structure and CRT, specifically for education, became a “theoretical and analytical framework that challenges the ways race and racism impact educational structures, practices and discourses” (Yosso, 2005, p. 74).

CRF adopted three important themes from CRT (Wing, 2003). First, CRF uses the theory of social constructionism to explain that race does not exist and humans socially construct it. This social construction is then reified by the legal system, placing privilege on some races and not on others. Second, CRF agrees, “...racism is an ordinary and fundamental part of American society, not an aberration that can be easily remedied by law,” it allows for one group to dominate over others and it infiltrates policy, law, and culture (p. 5-6). Finally, CRF endorses a multidisciplinary approach to scholarship to “formulate solutions to racial dilemmas” (Wing, 2003, p. 6). Although not ascribing to any explicit cannon, CRF does adopt these key understandings from CRT.

Further, CRF uses five primary tenets of CRT that inform theory, research pedagogy, curriculum and policy within education, captured by Daniel Solórzano (1997, 1998):

- Intercentricity of race and racism with other forms of subordination: Although oppression and discrimination also occurs in class and gender, the central concern

of CRT is the identification of race and racism as the core component of subordination.

- The challenge to dominant ideology: Acknowledging race as a social construction and its use to create domination and subordination, CRT's goal is to expose the perpetuation of the dominant ideologies through cultural and social systems.
- Commitment to social justice: To make changes to and challenge the continuation of subordination due to racism is the stated goal of CRT.
- Centrality of experiential knowledge: CRT believes that the stories and personal narratives of those experiencing subordination are critical for examining and debunking the dominant ideologies.
- Transdisciplinary perspectives: Stepping beyond the law, into other fields of study, CRT honors the role and necessity of other perspectives used in other fields. This acknowledges that the law alone cannot address subordination, and that many fields can expose, challenge and change racism and oppression. (Yosso, 2005)

CRF uses these five tenants blended with the focus on the lived experiences of oppressed groups, especially women, to bring to life the, "well disguised...rhetoric of shared 'normative' values and 'neutral' social scientific principles and practices" (Yosso, 2005, p. 74). The criticism of CRT, which led to the development (and break off) of CRF as its own conceptual framework was that CRT assumed women of color's experiences were the same as those of men of color. Due to this limitation, CRF considered itself a feminist intervention within CRT.

Feminism. The feminist ideal that CRF ascribes to is not the traditional women's movement of the 1960's, or women's liberation feminism. CRF critiques the traditional feminist movement as essentialist, capturing the lived experiences of middle to upper class, White women, silencing women of color, and women from other social locations. To prevent such essentialism, CRF declared "the Black feminist movement or womanist movement as its definition of feminism, typified by the works of bell hooks, Audre Lorde, Patricia Hill Collins, Toni Morrison and Alice Walker" (Wing, 2003, p. 7). CRF constitutes a "race intervention in a feminist discourse in that it necessarily embraces feminism's emphasis on gender oppression within a system of patriarchy" while recognizing the intersectionality of race, gender and class (Wing, 2003, p.7). In her critique of the traditional feminist movement, womanist writer and cultural critic bell hooks (2000) noted, "Implicit in this simplistic definition of women's liberation is a dismissal of race and class as factors that, in conjunction with sexism, determine the extent to which an individual will be discriminated against, exploited or oppressed" (p. 19).

By incorporating Black feminist thought into the CRT foundation, CRF provided a voice for women and people of color who felt their gendered, classed, sexual, immigrant and language experiences, and histories had been previously ignored or silenced. CRF addresses "racism at the intersections with other forms of subordination" (Yosso, 2005, p. 72)

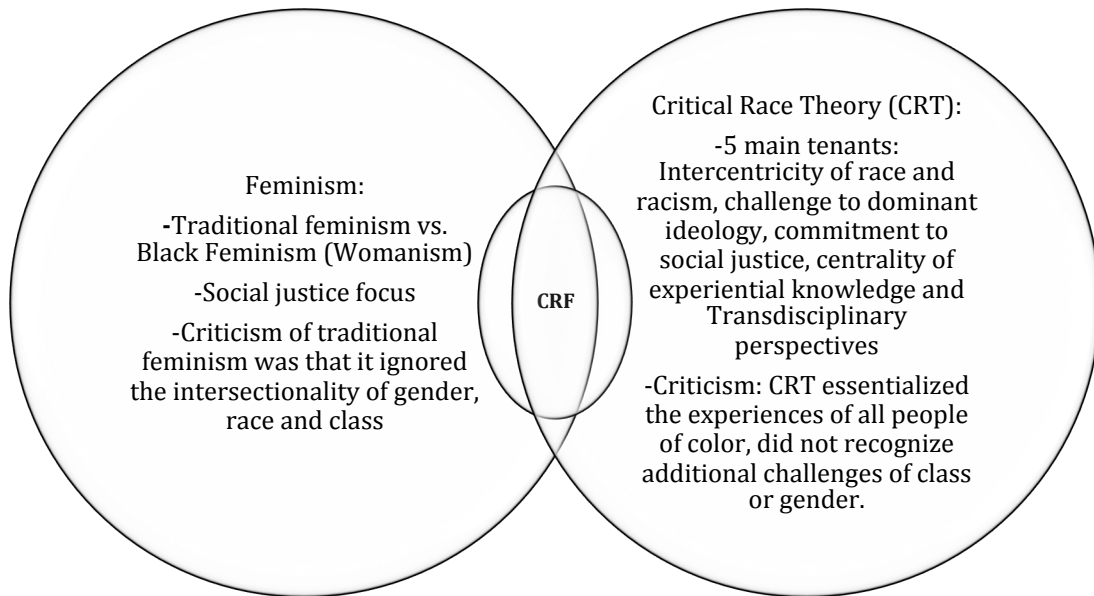


Figure A.1: Model of Critical Race Feminism (CRF):

Critical Race Feminism (CRF) blended the Black Feminist Theory (Womanism) with the 5 primary tenants of Critical Race Theory (CRT). CRF addressed the shortcoming of CRT, as CRT ignored the additional oppression and discrimination of women of color due to gender. Further, CRF adopted a Black Feminist foundation, as traditional feminism excluded the multiplicative identities of women through race and class (intersectionality). The fusion of these two theories into CRF provides a model that takes into account the numerous identities women possess, encourages the use of a counter-narrative through the use of story telling, and values challenging and changing dominant ideologies that perpetuate oppressive systems (social justice focus).

Three main components of CRF: Anti-essentialism, Intersectionality & Agency

One of the defenses for adding black feminist thought to the CRT framework was that women have varied life experiences due to their social identities. Just as women of color do not have the same experiences as men of color (CRF's criticism of CRT), white women do not have the same experiences as women of color (nor do all white women have the same experiences as each other). The first of three major components of the foundation of CRF is that lived experiences cannot be essentialized. There is no all encompassing gender experience or race experience that is independent of other identities

(Sulé, 2014). CRF provides a critique of the feminist notion that there is an essential female voice, that all women feel one way on a subject (Wing, 2003). It highlights the situations of women of color whose lives may not conform to an essentialist norm (Wing, 2003).

The second major component of CRF is linked to antiessentialism:

intersectionality. Popularized by Crenshaw (1993), intersectionality is defined as understanding the antiessentialist plight of women of color, needing to look at the intersection of their race and gender identities to fully understand their life experiences (Wing, 2003). Also known as multiple consciousness, it is “how race is intertwined with other categories of identity difference” (Sulé, 2014, p. 435). This component of CRF “challenges singular (e.g. race only) and additive (race + gender) narrative regarding access to social resources (Sulé, 2014, p. 436). Intersectionality assumes that “inequity is predicated upon differential valuation of identity categories such as male versus female” (Sulé, 2014, p. 436). This provides necessary recognition of power hierarchies that affect individual agency and access to resources. For example, two Black women do not necessarily have the same experiences of oppression. If one of the women were to be highly educated, or had material wealth (social class status), she would have difference experiences than a woman of color who does not possess those life advantages. Thus, the second woman may experience more oppression and discrimination due to her social class, race, and gender than the first woman, who carries social class privileges.

Agency is the final important component of CRF. Agency explains the interconnectedness between social identity and social structures (Sulé, 2014). Placing agency as a key part of the discourse in CRF is critical, as it emphasizes how structures

affect an individual. Agency is “especially pertinent for marginalized groups because they have a unique challenge in regard to feeling a sense of belonging” (p. 436).

Therefore CRF uses the component of agency to allow more emphasis “on how groups that exist on the periphery...perceive their ability to fit in and contribute to the scholarly community” (p. 436). Further it allows for an analysis that “encompasses how institutional norms affect historically marginalized groups as well as how these groups navigate potentially hostile terrain” (Sulé, 2014, p. 436).

One way that CRF builds agency is through the use of storytelling and counter-narratives. CRF privileges “the sometimes complicated, everyday experiences of women of color in order to interrogate and enrich understanding about the relationship between social identity and power” (Sulé, 2014, p. 436). Researchers must consider “how individuals and groups, who are situated by multiple social identities may overlap or conflict in specific contexts, negotiate systems of privilege, oppression, opportunity, conflict and change across the life course and geography (Few-Demo, 2014, p. 170). One way to capture these experiences is through the use of storytelling. CRF employs storytelling to “explicate the intricacies of how institutions and some social practices” are lived by women of color (Sulé, 2014, p.436). According to Sulé (2014), storytelling has “a palliative and oppositional function as it validates the experiences of the suppressed and destabilizes discourse that justified power hierarchies” (p. 436). It creates understanding for the multiple positionalities of individuals or groups of individuals, aimed to “subvert the reality of the dominant group”(Berry, 2010, p. 25) Finally, those telling their stories become “empowered participants, hearing their own stories and the stories of others, listening to how the arguments against them are framed and learning to

make the arguments to defend themselves” creating further disruption to the socially constructed norm (Yosso, 2005, p. 75).

It is imperative for women’s voices to be captured, and explored through storytelling and developing a counterstory, as a “means of understanding multiple positionalities of individuals or groups of individuals, particularly those stories of socially and politically marginalized persons living at the intersections of identities” (Berry, 2010, p. 25). This study utilized the storytelling and narrative data collection method in the qualitative phase of this study. It was through women’s own voices, and the details of their individual experiences, that the multiplicative and complex lives of women in higher education leadership were revealed.

This section provided the reader with a solid foundation of CRF, the paradigmatic framework of this study. CRF directed the selection of my research methods, design and analysis. As CRF calls for research that captures women’s experiences, stories, and voices, the most fitting research method was narrative inquiry. Bishop (1998) argues that for any research specifically addressing the experiences of people of color, narrative inquiry provides a means for higher levels of authenticity and accuracy in the representation of experiences. Studies that use qualitative methods and are grounded in a participatory design, such as narrative analysis, enable participants to “talk their truths rather than present the ‘official’ versions” (Bishop, 1998; Stucki et al., 2004).

Additionally, CRF calls for researchers to recognize the social identities of women, as it is impossible to separate the multiple identities of women (Hill Collins, 1991; hooks, 1989). Bonebright et al. (2012) noted there is a need for an “exploration of multiple identities, power and privilege, and implicit bias” when examining the lived

experiences of women (p. 83). Using CRF as the paradigmatic framework for the current study, purposeful efforts were made to identify women participants from a variety of social locations.

APPENDIX B

MARQUETTE UNIVERSITY: AGREEMENT OF CONSENT FOR RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

Women's Leadership Development Programs: Experiences of Women Alumnae

You have received this survey as an invitation to participate in this research study. Before you agree to participate, it is important that you read and understand the following information. Participation is completely voluntary. Please ask questions about anything you do not understand before deciding whether or not to participate.

PURPOSE: The purpose of this research study is to understand your experience with the women's leadership program, Women in Higher Education Leadership Summit (WHELS). We hope to determine what aspects of WHELS are effective in terms of leadership development. As you are alumnae of the program, you have been contacted to complete a survey regarding your experiences in the program, and the influence of the program on your career plan/trajectory, and leadership development. All WHELS alumnae have been contacted and asked to participate.

PROCEDURES: By completing the following survey (estimated time needed 15-20 minutes) you are agreeing to participate in the study. Your name will be collected as part of the responses, however, only the primary investigator, Danielle Geary, will have access to the names of participants. Survey information will be kept in a password-protected program, accessible only to the primary investigator. You may be contacted by Danielle Geary to complete an interview regarding your responses. Again, your name and identifying information will only be available to the primary investigator. Your name and identifying information will be protected and will not be able to be connected to your survey responses or interview responses. A separate consent form will be provided for the interview portion if you are contacted and agree to participate.

RISKS & BENEFITS: The risks associated with participation in this study are no greater than you would experience in everyday life. There are no direct benefits to you for participating in this study. This research may benefit society by providing a better understanding of the influence of women's leadership development programs on the career plan/trajectory of women working in higher education.

CONFIDENTIALITY: All information you reveal in this study will be kept confidential. When the results of the study are published, you will not be identified by name. Your responses, including direct quotes, will be shared with the WHELS leadership; however, your name will not be identified. Electronic data will be stored indefinitely in a secure electronic file. All study data in paper form will be stored a locked cabinet. All electronic data will be securely stored in a password-protected program only accessible by the principal investigator. Please note, the research records for this study may be inspected by the Marquette University Institutional Review Board or its designees.

VOLUNTARY NATURE OF PARTICIPATION: Participating in this study is completely voluntary and you may withdraw from the study and stop participating at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. To withdraw your participation from this study, or for questions or concerns, please contact the principal investigator, Danielle Geary at danielle.geary@marquette.edu or 262-960-4456. Upon withdrawal from the study, all data collected up until that point would be destroyed. Your decision to participate or not will not impact your relationship with the WHELS program or Marquette University.

ALTERNATIVES TO PARTICIPATION: There are no alternatives to participation in this study.

1. What year did you attend Women in Higher Education Leadership Summit (WHELS)?

- 2012
- 2013
- 2014
- 2015
- I do not recall what year I attended WHELS.

2. How did you hear about WHELS? (Select all that apply.)

- From a colleague (coworker)
- From an administrator (boss)
- Online search
- Via an email from WHELS
- From a WHELS alumnae
- I'm part of the University of San Diego community
- Other:

3. Please provide three words that would describe your overall experience with WHELS.

First Word:

Second Word:

Third Word:

4. Do you believe that WHELS was beneficial to your leadership development?

- Yes
- No

5. What was the most effective part of the WHELS experience?

6. What could be done to improve the WHELS experience?

7. How did your perception of self as a leader (leadership identity) change as a result of completing WHELDS?

- My leadership identity was strengthened
 My leadership identity was weakened
 It made no change in my view of my leadership identity

8. What aided you in strengthening your view of yourself as a leader? What part of your WHELDS experienced helped strengthen your leadership identity and capacity? (Check all that apply).

| | Do not recall/Did not attend | Not Helpful | Somewhat Helpful | Helpful | Extremely Helpful |
|---|------------------------------|-------------|------------------|---------|-------------------|
| Personal Values Workshop | | | | | |
| MBTI Workshop | | | | | |
| Leadership Circle (360) | | | | | |
| One-on-One Coaching Session | | | | | |
| Conscious Leading | | | | | |
| Meaning Making of the Leadership Circle | | | | | |
| Understanding Self within a system | | | | | |
| Stress Reduction Seminar | | | | | |
| Conflict Management and Resolution | | | | | |
| Career Engagement and Planning Session | | | | | |
| Learning to Face Adaptive Challenges | | | | | |
| Morning Meditation and Mindfulness Sessions | | | | | |
| Personality Awareness and Leadership Style | | | | | |
| Structure and Communication | | | | | |
| Hot Topics in Education | | | | | |
| Learning Team Solutions | | | | | |
| How to Lead and When to Follow | | | | | |
| Leadership Branding and Action Plan | | | | | |

9. As a result of completing WHELDS, to what degree do you believe the program developed your leadership ability?

- not at all
 a small degree
 an average degree
 an above average degree
 a great degree

10. When selecting a leadership development program to attend, was having a “women-only” environment a factor in your decision-making?

- Yes, I wanted a women-only leadership program
 No, it was not a deciding factor

11. As WHEELS is a woman-only leadership program, did attending WHEELS change the way you think about gender dynamics in the workplace?

- Yes
- No

12. How did WHEELS change the way you think about gender dynamics in the workplace?

13. As a result of completing WHEELS, to what degree did your awareness change with regard to the gender dynamics within leadership positions at your home institution?

- No Change
- Little
- Somewhat
- A Good Deal
- A Great Deal

14. Did WHEELS change the way you think about femininity and leadership?

- Yes
- No

15. How did WHEELS change the way you think about femininity and leadership?

16. Did WHEELS change the way you think about masculinity and leadership?

- Yes
- No

17. How did WHEELS change the way you think about masculinity and leadership?

18. What characteristics make for an effective leadership practice? Rank the answers in the order of importance (1 being the most important characteristic). Drag and drop the characteristic in the order of your choosing.

Self Awareness
 Empathetic
 Respectful of Others
 Authoritarian
 Honest
 Good at Delegating
 Good Communicator
 Assigns Tasks
 Confident
 Committed to their work
 Positive Attitude
 Creative
 Takes credit for completed tasks
 Intuitive
 Inspires others
 Approachable
 Sense of Superiority

19. Did your understanding of effective leadership styles change as a result of attending WHELS?

- Yes
 No

20. How did your understanding of what it means to be an effective leader change after attending WHELS?

21. What do you think are the main issues facing women in the work place today? Rank the answers in the order of importance (1 being the most important characteristic). Drag and drop the characteristic in the order of your choosing.

Flexibility in work schedules
 Caregiving responsibilities in the home
 Workplaces do not value feminine styles of leadership
 Stereotypes of feminine behavior as less effective
 Lack of visibility and exposure
 Lack of opportunity to move positions to gather a broader depth of experience
 Traditional values held at the top of the institutions that are resistant to change
 Lack of leadership support regarding specific policies targeted for women
 Inability to relocate to institutions where leadership position is available due to spouse work commitments

22. In your present role, what are your most pressing challenges/struggles?

23. At the time you attended WHELS what type of position did you hold in higher education?

- Graduate Student
- Staff
- Staff person with administrative duties (leadership role)
- Faculty member
- Faculty member with administrative duties (i.e. department chair)
- Dean, Provost, or Chief Academic Officer
- Vice Chancellor, Chancellor, or President
- I do not work in higher education
- Other: Please specify

24. Currently, what type of position do you hold?

- Graduate Student
- Staff
- Staff person with administrative duties (leadership role)
- Faculty member
- Faculty member with administrative duties (i.e. department chair)
- Dean, Provost, or Chief Academic Officer
- Vice Chancellor, Chancellor, or President
- I do not work in higher education
- Other: Please specify

25. Since completing WHELS, have you advanced into a leadership role/position at your institution?

- Yes—I changed position, taking on a leadership role/position at my institution
- Yes—In my current position I accepted responsibilities that added a leadership role to my position
- No—my position has not changed to include more leadership responsibilities
- Prefer not to answer

26. If you changed positions, or if you accepted additional leadership roles in your position, did what you learn in WHELS influence that change?

- Yes
- No

27. Please explain how WHELS influenced the change in your position or acceptance of a new position.

28. How many years have you worked in higher education?

- 0-5 years
- 6-10 years
- 11-15 years
- 16-20 years
- more than 21 years
- I do not work in higher education

29. Which of the following demographics do you identify as a member (check all that apply)

- Woman of color
- LGBTQ
- Religious minority group member
- None of the above
- Other: Please Specify

30. To what degree did WHELS adequately address concerns relative to your demographic group?

- Did not address concerns at all
- Concerns were somewhat addressed
- Concerns were adequately address
- Other: Please specify

31. In what way(s) did WHELS address issues/concerns relevant to your demographic group?

32. How could WHELS improve how it addresses issues/concerns relevant to your demographic group?

33. What is your age?

- 21-30 years
- 31-40 years
- 41-50 years
- 51-60 years
- 61 or older
- Prefer not to answer

34. Would you recommend WHELs to other women looking for a leadership development program?

Yes

No

35. Please provide a statement on why you would recommend WHELs to other women.

36. Please provide a statement on why you would NOT recommend WHELs to other women.

37. Is there anything else you would like us to know about your experience with WHELs?

38. Are you interested in attending a WHELs II conference, if offered?

Yes

No

39. What is your name? (This response will be viewed only by the primary investigator)

40. Please provide an email address where you can be reached.

Thank you for taking the time to complete this survey.

If you have any questions about this research project, you can contact Danielle Geary, Principal Investigator, at danielle.geary@marquette.edu or at 262-960-4456. If you have questions or concerns about your rights as a research participant, you can contact Marquette University's Office of Research Compliance at (414) 288-7570.

APPENDIX C

Email Correspondence to Survey Participants Quantitative Phase

INITIAL EMAIL: Sent March 14, 2016

Dear WHELS alumnae,
My name is Danielle Geary. I am doctoral candidate at Marquette University in Educational Policy and Leadership, and a 2014 alumnae of Women in Higher Education Leadership Summit (WHELS).

My dissertation topic is women's experiences in women-only leadership development programs (WLDPs), specifically in higher education. I am contacting WHELS alumnae in efforts to answer my research question: How do women experience WLDPs and understand the influence of WLDPs on their career plan/trajectory? By better understanding the experiences of women alumnae, I hope to identify key elements in WLDPs that prepare and support women as they advance, or consider advancement, in higher education.

I am asking for your participation in an online survey: <https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/RQ7YHL6>

The link above will take you to the survey. It will take approximately 15-20 minutes to complete. If you have any questions regarding the survey, or need additional assistance, I can be reached at danielle.geary@marquette.edu or at 262-960-4456.

Thank you for your participation in my research study.
Danielle Geary, Ph.D.(C)

SECOND EMAIL: Sent March 23, 2016

Dear WHELS alumnae,
Last week you received a request for participation in an online survey regarding your WHELS experience. If you had the chance to participate, thank you for your time and input. If you haven't yet responded, please do. I would like to hear from as many alumnae as possible.

To participate in the online survey: <https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/RQ7YHL6>

The link above will take you to the survey. It will take approximately 15-20 minutes to complete. If you have any questions regarding the survey, or need additional assistance, I can be reached at danielle.geary@marquette.edu or at 262-960-4456.

Thank you for your participation.
Danielle Geary, Doctoral Candidate, Marquette University

THIRD EMAIL: Sent April 11, 2016

Dear WHELS alumnae,
A sincere thank you to everyone that has responded to the online survey regarding the WHELS experience. Your input is greatly appreciated!

If you haven't yet had the chance to participate, please take a moment now to do so. I would like to hear from as many alumnae as possible. The survey will be *closed on April 15th, 2016*.

To participate in the online survey: <https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/RQ7YHL6>
The link above will take you to the survey. It will take approximately 15-20 minutes to complete. If you have any questions regarding the survey, or need additional assistance, I can be reached at danielle.geary@marquette.edu or at 262-960-4456.

Thank you for your participation.
Danielle Geary, Doctoral Candidate, Marquette University

APPENDIX D

Qualitative Phase Interview Questions

Semi-structured questions:

1. Tell me about your path into higher education. What is your current role and responsibilities?
2. Since completing WHELS did you take on more leadership roles, or move into a leadership position? If so, can you tell me whether or not WHELS influenced that change, and how so?
3. What was your motivation for seeking out a women-only leadership development program? What about WHELS attracted you to the program?
4. What were your expectations prior to attending WHELS? Did WHELS meet those expectations? If so, how? If not, what was the reason?
5. Did WHELS raise your awareness of gender dynamics within leadership positions at your institution? How so?
 - a. Has it changed how you address/experience gender dynamics?
 - b. Can you tell me about any challenges of being a woman in higher education?
 - c. What about any challenges that you have faced due to their social location?
6. How do you define leadership?
 - a. Did the definition of leadership change after WHELS? If so, how?
 - b. Do you use anything from WHELS day-to-day in your position?
 - c. What personal behavior or trait gets in the way of your leadership?
7. What advice would you give to a woman just starting out in her higher education career? What advice do you wish someone would have given you?

Based upon participants' survey responses additional questions may have been posed.

APPENDIX E

Email Correspondence Requesting Interview Participation

Dear _____,

Thank you for participating in my doctoral research survey regarding your experiences with WHELDS. I reviewed the survey responses, and your responses were particularly interesting.

The next step of my research is to conduct interviews to increase my understanding of how women experienced WHELDS, as well as their experiences in higher education. I am contacting you to see if you would be willing to participate in the interview portion of my research project. The interview will take around 45 minutes and is informal. The interview can be conducted electronically either via Skype, Google Hangouts, or via telephone, whichever you feel most comfortable with.

Your responses to questions will be kept confidential. Each interview will be assigned a number code to help ensure that personal identifiers are not revealed during the analysis and write up of findings. There is no compensation for participating in this study. However, your participation will be a valuable addition to my research. Findings could lead to greater public understanding of how women experience women-only leadership development programs, and more generally, higher education.

If you are willing to participate, please suggest a day and time that suits you and I'll do my best to be available. If you have any questions please do not hesitate to ask. I can be reached directly at 262-960-4456 or danielle.geary@marquette.edu.

Thank you for your time and participation.
Sincerely,

Danielle Geary
Marquette University Doctoral Candidate
Educational Policy and Leadership

IRB Protocol #: HR-3085