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Self-Perception of Gender Influence on Leadership in Two-Year, Public Institutions of Higher Education

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Self-Perception of Gender Influence on Leadership in Two-Year, Public Institutions of

Higher Education

by

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Abstract

This quantitative cross-sectional study examines the way in which leaders of two-year, public institutions perceive their gender identification influences the way they are able to demonstrate leadership traits. The study is founded in social identity theory, first introduced in 1979 by Tajfel, which helps to evaluate whether members of a group (leaders) assimilate to specific traits in order to be accepted and valued by their peers. The findings show that overall leaders identifying as women and those identifying as men perceived no difference in how their gender identification impacts their ability to display specific leadership traits to supervisors, peers, or subordinates. The study did find that there is a perceived difference in gender identification influencing how the respondents lead.

  Keywords: Gender Identification, Leadership, Two-Year, Higher Education, Leadership Traits

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Individuals who identify as men continue to hold more leadership positions across all enterprises, even in areas that are traditionally viewed as feminine (Wingfield, & Myles, 2014; Desilver, 2018; Warner et. al, 2018; Catalyst, 2022). This disparity can be attributed, in part, to the notion that a good leader possesses strong masculine traits, and traditionally those who display more feminine leadership traits are viewed to be lacking in leadership abilities (Blake-Beard et al., 2020). Thus, leaders identifying as women often find themselves caught between historical traits of leadership – masculine – and the expectations of identifying as a woman – feminine – (Koburtay et al., 2018). In this line of thought, to be a successful leader, women may assume they must give up traits that are associated with femininity and assume traits associated with masculinity.

When women do find themselves in leadership roles, they often find little support (Sheppard & Aquino, 2017). Rather than finding comradery amongst other women within the ranks of leaders, they discover that Queen Bee Syndrome may be rooted in the fabric of the organization's culture (Allen & Flood, 2018). Queen Bee Syndrome is present when leaders identifying as women separate from other women and frequently impede the success of those women. This phenomenon is viewed as a direct response to the discrimination experienced by women who hold positions most frequently viewed as male or masculine (Derks et al., 2015). This can make finding mentors and peer relationships difficult for leaders identifying as women (Faniko et al., 2017). Mentoring and strong peer relationships support mechanisms that are key for workplace and job satisfaction, which can lead to longevity and promotion into higher leadership roles (Lundsford et al., 2018).

Institutions of higher education are also entangled in these ideals of gendered roles in leadership (Johnson, 2017). Even though women have earned more than half of the doctorate degrees awarded between 2006 and 2016, only 36% of presidents of public, two-year, degree granting institutions identify as women (Johnson, 2017). The path to the presidency for community college women most often goes through academic affairs with 41% of community college presidents promoted from the position of Provost, Senior Academic Affairs Officer, or academic dean (Johnson, 2017). This is important as many of these positions are promoted from faculty ranks, and, according to Johnson's (2017) report, 65% of faculty in two-year public institutions that identify as women achieve tenure status while 69.6% of those who identify as men achieve tenure status.

Women face additional barriers than the data illustrate. According to a 2020 United Nations report, women spend three times as much time as men performing unpaid work such as childcare and housekeeping that limits the amount of time focused on paid work. This means if a child is sick, women are more likely to miss work to care for the child and women are spending more than four hours per day caring for children and performing household duties compared to just over one hour spent by men. These barriers have great impacts on who is and who is not considered available and committed to performing leadership roles in the workplace and influencing women to accept positions below their level of qualification (Free Network, 2021).

Faced with the reality of these barriers, data demonstrates fewer women in these leadership roles are choosing traditional marriage and children as 75% of community college presidents identifying as women reporting being married compared to 90% of those identifying as men, and 74% report having children compared to 89% of men (Johnson, 2017). With these

challenges, among others, facing leaders who identify as women, this study will discern how

men and women perceive gender and gendered stereotypes within their institutions of higher

education and how those stereotypes impact perceived behaviors as leaders. This chapter will

provide an overview of the study, including research questions, participants, data collection, and

data analysis.

Defining Leadership

Words and their meanings matter. For the purposes of this study, leadership is defined as:

"the process of social influence, which maximizes the efforts of others, towards the achievement

of a goal" (Kruse, 2013). The definition implies that successful leaders need others and that they

are collectively aligned to achieve a common goal. The notion of leadership, in this definition,

does not indicate that there is a need for force, but does indicate the need to be able to

consistently focus the work of others towards that end goal (Prentice, 2004). The definition does

not require a specific type of style or trait, nor does it require one to identify as either a man or a

woman. This is important as we define traits and stereotypes that tend to be labeled as masculine

and feminine.

The traits and stereotypes associated with leadership are defined as preconceived

attributes or generalizations assigned to a group and individuals in that group as assumed to

possess those traits and stereotypes simply because they belong to the group (Acker, 1990;

Acker, 2006; McClenney, 2013) . In this case, those groups are identification as men and

identification as women. For this study, an understanding of generalizations based on group

belonging becomes important to understand how those stereotypes become gendered.

Stereotypes can become gendered when discussed in a way that reflects only the experiences or

expectations of one gender identification over another (Abele, 2003). These stereotypes tend to describe what men and women are like (descriptive) as well as what they should be like (prescriptive) (Heilman, 2012).

Typically, these gender stereotypes fall into two categories; agency and communality (Abele, 2003; Heilman 2012; Rudman & Glick, 2001). Agency is a motivation towards achievement, desire to be in charge, and to be rational and is described by words such as competent, ambitious, assertive, forceful, decisive, analytical, logical, and independent (Heilman, 2012). These are traits stereotypically assigned to those who identify as men. Communality, on the other hand, is indicative of concern, affiliation, deference, and emotionally sensitive with words used to describe these stereotypes including kind, considerate, warm, collaborative, obedient, perceptive, and understanding (Heilman, 2012). These traits are those stereotypically assigned to individuals identifying as women. Social role theory contends that the assignment of these types of gender stereotypes occur due to the division of labor in society where gender is assigned to various roles (Eagly, 1987).

Gendered Organizations

Gendered organizations, by definition, are organizations designed to benefit one gender over another by establishing processes that are often unseen but make clear assumptions about the abilities of individuals who identify as women and those who identify as men (Acker, 2012). This can be seen in the policies, procedures, and practices of individual organizations in ways such as inflexible work hours/schedules, childcare benefits, and required time in office (Niemi, 2017). Acker (1990) contends that higher education is gendered and this is demonstrated through the differences in waged work between men and women as well as division of labor based on

gender, and subjective evaluation of job performance that often includes time spent on the job not considering outside influence such as family. Institutions of higher education continue to prescribe to expectations of how individuals who identify as men and those who identify as women should behave in various roles as a way of separating those displaying traditional leadership traits from those who do not (Johnson et al., 2008). This can be seen, for example, in assignment of roles and responsibilities as well as the wage gaps in those roles.

Embedded in our history of leaders, we find ample examples of men in leadership roles leading one to believe that the notion that good leaders are, therefore, masculine (Saint-Michel, 2018). Assigning masculine stereotypes or gendering the traits associated with roles assigned to men and those assigned to women downplay the value of leadership traits traditionally labeled as feminine, such as authenticity and vulnerability (Wingfield & Myles, 2014). Despite research focusing on leadership traits differences by gender (Derue et al., 2011; Chen & Houser, 2019), the current research activity does not focus on how gendered stereotypes influence how behavior is adjusted when seeking promotion and compensation. Authors are writing about the myths of vulnerability and the value of authentic leadership (Brown, 2012; Scandura & Pellegrini, 2008; Ito & Bligh, 2017; Simmonds, 2007), providing research on the perspective of how leadership is influenced by traits traditionally viewed as feminine. This influences this study and the need for research.

Gender and Leadership in Higher Education

There are several researchers that tell us about the gendered stereotypes and gendered organizations and how they impact those identifying as women to reach leadership positions (Acker, 1990; Martin, 2003; Mathieu, 2009; Ragusa & Groves 2012; VanAnders, 2000; Wood,

2008). As stated, many leadership roles continue to be held by those identifying as men. With a larger number of men holding leadership positions coupled with the notion that those in leadership positions tend to promote similarity impacts how those identifying as women perceive they must behave to secure leadership roles (Gallant, 2014). When men in higher education leadership continue to promote similarity, women find they are working through a complex labyrinth to find opportunities for leadership (Reis, 2015).

Additionally, leadership in higher education propagates the development of faculty and staff by assignment of responsibilities that fall along gender lines (Parker, 2015). Women in the faculty ranks are often assigned roles and responsibilities defined as organizational housekeeping, such student advising and campus service such as hiring committees and membership on taskforces that do not require critical thinking and problem solving (O'Meara et al., 2017). O'Meara and colleagues (2017) contend that these campus service roles take time away from research and activities that do not hold the same value in the promotion process. By assigning roles specific to gender assumptions, men and women begin to fall into patterns of behavior (Madsen, 2011). Positions or responsibilities best performed with traits such as nurturing and vulnerability, traits typically identified as feminine, are more often assigned to women. This is dangerous as such traits are rarely associated with high-performing, high-level leaders and give men an advantage over women (Billing, 2011; Eagly & Carli, 2003; Koenig et al., 2011; Schaumberg & Flynn, 2017).

Additional barriers faced by those who identify as women when seeking leadership opportunities in higher education are impacted deeply by the assignment of roles and expectations of leaders (Reis, 2015). Women report barriers including a lack of confidence (even

when self-describing as experts in their fields), the default responsibility of family and home

placing geographic restrictions or time restrictions, and few role models and mentors (Webster &

Rashotte, 2010). These are important as face time or time present on campus is often considered

when evaluating performance and the willingness to prioritize the organization and work when

women are primarily responsible for maintaining a home and providing childcare (Acker, 2021).

Social role theory provides the framework for diving deeper into how assigning traditional

feminine roles to women, reflects not only how women experience life, but how men's

experiences affect the lives of women (Ropers-Huilman & Winters, 2011). The mixed messages

tied to leadership expectations that women receive affect how young women view their role in

the workplace and in society (Jaggar & Rothenberg, 1993).

Statement of the Problem

Understanding that many leadership traits are viewed as masculine, it is important to

understand how those who identify as women have come to view the expected behaviors of

leaders in Higher Education (Gallant, 2014). When considering why women continue to have

less representation in leadership roles, we need to appreciate the desired components sought and

promoted in leaders as well as policies and practices that re-enforce a gendered structure

(Bobbitt-Zeher, 2011). Even the job descriptions outlining leadership roles are written based on

who traditionally held those roles and the gendered stereotypes displayed (Williams et al., 2012).

To breakdown the leadership barriers experienced by women, it is increasingly important to

understand how these gendered stereotypes facilitate the gender gap seen in higher education

leadership.

Due to the gendered stereotypes used to structure job descriptions and those that invade the hiring process, women may feel they need to assimilate to more masculine traits (Paustian-Underdahl, 2014). However, many women either fail to or cannot take on the masculine traits of competition and self-promotion often associated with leaders, and women can sometimes not acknowledge or accept the rules of the game that require a more masculine view on leadership (Morley, 2013). Effective leadership, however, requires trust, and traditionally viewed feminine traits such as vulnerability are essential for trust (Brown 2012; Nienaber et al., 2014). This is an issue facing a gendered-institution that must be corrected if the hope is to see more representation in leadership roles. This study looks at how the gendered stereotypes and traditional masculine traits associated with leaders impacts how women view those traits and how women feel assimilation to these traits is vital for leadership success.

Overview of Methodology

The study will identify leaders in public, two-year institutions as categorized by Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS). Leaders are defined by title including President/Chancellor/Superintendent, Vice President/Chancellor/Superintendent, Provost/Chief Academic Officer, Assistant or Associate Vice President/Chancellor/Superintendent/Provost, and Chief of Staff. The identified leaders will be asked to complete a survey regarding gendered institutions, gendered stereotypes, traditional leadership traits, and how these affect leadership traits and attainment.

Each potential participant will receive an introductory email explaining the survey, the importance of the research, and encouraging participation. A second email that includes the link for the Qualtrics survey will follow one week after the introduction email. Two reminder emails

will be sent prior to the closing of the survey and data collection. An anonymous drawing of a

$100 Amazon gift card will be used as incentive for participation.

Descriptive statistics and correlation are the analyses used for predictive and independent

variables. To determine the strength of association between the variables and variance can help

understand whether leaders identifying as women feel they must assimilate to masculine traits

for leadership success in their institution. The study evaluates whether there is a difference

between leaders identifying as women and those identify as men when asked about leadership

traits and how they present in various settings.

Research Questions

The research questions driving this study: (1) How do leaders in two-year, public

institutions of higher education associate traits to leadership? (2) Does a leader's gender

identification influence their perception of ability to demonstrate specific leadership traits? (3)

How do leaders who identify as women, in two-year public institutions, perceive their gender

influences how they lead?

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this research is to examine the extent that gendered leadership traits

impact the need for leaders identifying as women to adjust behavior to appear more masculine to

attain leadership roles in public, two-year, degree granting institutions of higher education.

Assumptions of Study

Two assumptions were made regarding the study. The first assumption is that leaders in

public, two-year institutions of higher education would be willing to share their experience and

true feelings about leadership and gender. This assumption meant that the leaders who identify

women would feel that they could share their professional journey that may include difficult situations that required them to assimilate or assume masculine traits to achieve a position or promotion. The second assumption is that leaders identifying as men or as women would understand and be able to identify the gendered stereotypes associated with leadership. It is assumed that those gendered stereotypes would be evident in the workplace of each participant and that each could articulate those stereotypes.

Delimitations

Gender identity is only one aspect of leadership affected by these stereotypes. When incorporating race and ethnicity, the topic of leadership attainment becomes more complex as historically people of color hold an extremely small number of positions of power (Acker, 2006). Marginalized populations see higher levels of restrictions from policies and practices of institutions that claim to serve as catalysts for change (Simmonds, 2007). For the purpose of understanding how gender identity impacts perceived ability to demonstrate feminine traits, this study will remain focused on gender identity without looking at intersectionality such as race and ethnicity.

Delimitations exist when limiting the number of potential respondents to specific titles within the organizational structure. One constraint of the study is the number of leadership positions defined as Assistant/Associate Provost/President or above in the hierarchy within two-year public higher education institutions. Additionally, constraints exist regarding timing as orientations and other on-campus events may limit availability of potential participants.

Summary

This study focuses on how leadership experiences by individuals who identify as women are influenced by gendered leadership and how those influences determine whether women assimilate to more masculine traits to gain leadership positions in higher education. Many components affect how leaders develop and what are seen as valuable traits for great leaders. The study is designed to specifically engage men and women in leadership roles in identifying how those components played a role in their own development and how they continue to influence their current roles. Many times, the organizational structure, policies, and procedures (even when appearing gender-neutral) are designed in a way that reinforce the privilege individuals identifying as men have in the workplace (Bobbitt-Zeher, 2011).

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Research documents outline how leadership traits vary by gender (Clisbee, 2005; Derue et al., 2011; Chen & Houser, 2019; Flabbi et al., 2019). Traditional traits used by society to define leadership shape the expectation that good leaders must approach work from a masculine vantage point (Saint-Michel, 2018). These misnomers of a good leader can force individuals identifying as women to assimilate to more masculine leadership traits and prevent them from displaying values such as vulnerability (Brown, 2012). Additionally, feminine stereotypes, such as vulnerability, often seen as a weakness, is counter to the identification of traits such as empathy, viewed as ideal in leadership (Brown, 2012). This chapter reviews the literature regarding organizational structure, leadership traits, gendered institutions, leadership assumptions, and job satisfaction and retention.

Organizational Structure and Gender

In 2006, Joan Acker introduced the notion that all organizations have inequity regimes defined as the practices and processes that re-enforce the inequalities to maintain an order as it relates to class, gender, and race within organizations. Assumptions about masculinity and femininity often embedded in processes and policies that live within organizations include wage gaps and segregation of jobs, occupations or leadership roles based on sex (Acker, 2006). As women face challenges to advance to the executive levels in higher education, the implication that traditional domestic roles such as childbearing, maintaining a home, etc. are the sole responsibility of women, calls out the policies and procedures put in place in inequity regimes to maintain the order (Acker, 2012). These traditional roles are deeply rooted in the social culture young women are exposed to in ways that have them searching for power and strength in their

gender identity (Heilman, 1998). Looking historically at women's roles in society, women performed unpaid work whether it be on a farm or as a homemaker; women worked. What is important to understand is that when women take paid positions outside of the home, more likely than not, they are still battling the work of housekeeping and childrearing in addition to the paid opportunities that come with employment outside the home (Hochschild & Machung, 1989). As more women began to work outside the home and within waves of the feminist movement, we see social roles and organizational expectations at odds with the passage of Title IX and an attempt to remove sexism in society (Rampton, 2008). In organizations, specifically in higher education, women saw positions available to them as never before including deans, athletic directors, and within the fields of physical education (Glazer et al., 2011). During this time, the fight for passage of the Equal Rights Amendment and reproductive rights was raging, and the separation of gender and sex is recognized as gender being a construct that has changed throughout the years and within different cultures (Rampton, 2008).

With all the advancement in women's rights and shattering of glass ceilings, a 2019 survey indicates that more than three-quarters of domestic care (household chores and childcare, etc.) is still performed by women and even when women are working outside of the home, and the amount of childcare performed by women has increased (Charmes, 2019). The result of this type of discrepancy leads women to apply for an accept position below their abilities known as occupational downgrading and can explain one factor in the wage gap as women who feel less valuable in the workforce are less likely to negotiate for higher wage (Connolly & Gregory, 2007). In addition to fewer distractions at home, men are often viewed to have more social and

cultural capital that include the ability to change geographic locations for employment and family responsibilities that impact employment opportunities (Leahey et al., 2008).

The research of Kanenberg et al. (2019) digs into McPhail's Feminist Policy Analysis Framework, adding oppression, privilege, and intersectionality to what was originally discussed by Acker. Further, Kanenberg and colleagues (2019) discuss how the analysis of policy and hiring practices, and calling out gendered policies helps to develop deeper understanding of gender. By identifying gendered policies, it is clear to see how these policies serve the patriarchal structure. Gendered hierarchical structures influence everything from "job assessments and application procedures to pay scales and promotion practices" (Teelken et al., 2021). Hofstede (1998) best defines the gendered stereotypes prevalent in hierarchical structures as: "power-oriented, and characterized by self-reliance, independence, hierarchy, performance and competition." Characteristics stereotyped as masculine set up an environment where women are less willing to take risks, show vulnerability, and pursue their own interests (Teelken et al., 2021). Activities such as hiring, repositioning, and denying promotion, which can be perceived as coercive, are all examples of where gendered stereotypes can be embedded (Kezar, 2001). Meanwhile other activities such as mandated training, reward systems, and peer control can all be seen as measures to force individuals to "fit" into these types of structures (Kezar, 2001).

It is important to understand how traditional gender assumptions are endorsed beginning with the hiring process. Traditionally, job descriptions for leadership roles include male traits and are geared to individuals viewed to have fewer outside distractions (Williams et al., 2012). The way job descriptions and job postings are written determine how likely women are to apply. When tasks associated with a job posting are gender-neutral, 79% of women in a 2015 survey

indicated they would apply; however, when the position posting associated the tasks to

masculine traits, only 55% of female respondents indicated they would apply (Leibbrandt & List,

2015). Additionally, Libbrandt and List found that the gender gap in applications was wider

when the salary was not provided and negotiations were anticipated (2015). When negotiating

salaries and other benefits, a lack of negotiation by women occurs when women feel there will

be backlash because the traditional gender roles are highly endorsed by the company (Rua et al.,

2021). There is an indication, or belief, that decades of "female subordination" offers us an

explanation as to why women are related to positions along gender lines; however, by adhering

to these beliefs we exclude women from roles that expose their full potential (Glazer et al.,

2011).

      Higher education was built as and remains gendered, meaning that there are assumptions

made about the abilities of those hired and the roles they are best suited for, based on gender

identity (Niemi, 2017). When it comes to positions of leadership, women are more likely to find

those positions in two-year colleges that lack the same prestige and pay as the four-year research

institution where the gender inequity is more pronounced (Meyers, 2013). Additionally, the

structure of higher education institutions is hierarchical. Hierarchical environments are designed

by the dominant group to maintain control (Schmidt Mast, 2004). When all-male groups, such as

leadership teams, exist there is an expectation of a hierarchical structure. When all-female groups

exist, the expectation is more egalitarian (Schmidt Mast, 2004). Expectation Theory tells us that

this can then become self-fulling, leading to a formation of hierarchies at varying levels (Schmidt

Mast, 2004). These types of structures tend to perpetuate the notion that a good leader must

"think male" (Madsen, 2011) and by masculinizing leadership, those identifying as women are

valued less for leadership traits despite their diverse strengths. (Madsen, 2011). Fitting into those structures influence how someone views their value and the values of others within the hierarchical structure (Young et al., 2015). Leadership traits are often thought of based on mental categories or prototypes influencing expectations of leaders (gendered stereotypes). This can be viewed as prejudice toward women due to a perceived mismatch between those expectations and attributes that are often stereotypically assigned to women (Braun et al., 2018). Perpetuating this is the essentialist believe that social categories (women and men) are fixed and, therefore, define the traits held by each (Cundiff & Vescio, 2016).

Research does find that there has been a shift in leadership models away from the stereotypically masculine (heroic) actions of a few towards a more collaborative leadership model (Fletcher, 2004). However, this does not change the hierarchical and gendered structure of established leadership. These structures were put into place along gendered lines at a time when women were entering the workforce in more subordinate roles (Billing, 2011). Historically, leadership has been viewed as a strength that is associated with authoritarianism. Rather, research tells us that organizations are required to be more agile and leadership more collaborative (DiFranza, 2019). Leadership less driven by the strong and heroic actions of an individual or a few individuals within the organization and more influenced by shared views, interactions, and outcomes, known as postheroic leadership, is beginning to emerge (Fletcher, 2004). Even with this emergence, there must be a change in the gendered power dynamics that currently exist in organizations (Fletcher, 2004).

Job Satisfaction and Promotion

Studies find that a climate of gender inequity in the workplace negatively affects women's job satisfaction and is related to job turnover and stress (King et al., 2010; Doldor et al., 2019; Pickett et al., 2002). Women in higher education often report a chilly climate that Pickett could be a result of demographic difference that often leads to isolation (Maranto & Griffin, 2011). The dominant group has specific expectations of how underrepresented groups will behave (assimilation), and tokens are more visible than the dominant group both resulting in additional stress and performance pressure (Schoen et al., 2018). Further pressure stems from supervisory expectations found in studies looking at perceived performance based on gender, which find that supervisors believe women lack the human capital needed for leadership (Jeong & Harrison, 2017).

Men retain most leadership roles in higher education, and, therefore, provide feedback, on performance to subordinates, many of which identify as women. Research provides evidence that leaders who identify as women are, on average, evaluated more negatively than those who identify as men, regardless of leadership traits (Stewart & Wiener, 2020). In addition to negative performance feedback, women are less likely to receive developmental feedback that helps to guide professional growth in the areas of vision and political skills necessary for leadership roles (Doldor et al., 2019).

Performance evaluations play an important role in employee satisfaction, growth opportunities, and promotion. Even when supervisors are aware of employee contributions, gendered stereotypes that depict men as more fit for leadership roles, such as task-focused, analytical, and independent, can overshadow individual contributions (Heilman et al., 2019).

Since employers and supervisors can hold different expectations for individuals based on gender, feminine, or communal, leadership traits are often perceived as being less effective and evaluated as such on performance evaluations of both men and women (Heilman & Wallen, 2009). In addition, when receiving feedback, women are more likely to receive patronizing feedback that does not challenge or provide structure for improvement (Bear et al., 2017). One review of the written comments on performance evaluations finds that women are more likely to receive vague or broad statements such as "good job" while male counterparts are more likely to receive specific feedback that indicates areas of growth and development (Ciancetta & Roch, 2021). When this type of supervisor feedback is given, it both influences performance and perpetuates a cycle of illegitimacy felt by women in leadership roles (Vial et al., 2016). Further affecting the satisfaction and retention of women is the specific expectations of how underrepresented groups will learn to assimilate to avoid the negative feedback, and they are more visible than the dominate group both resulting in additional stress and performance pressure (Schoen et al., 2018).

Differences in expectations of leaders in higher education continue to support and maintain the inequalities between those identifying as men and those identifying as women (Burkinshaw & White, 2017). Women face many challenges not faced by most men in the pursuit of leadership roles including the notion that women should focus more time on family and home while men are expected to be more work minded (Rua et al., 2021). In addition, the mere expectation of childbearing and lactation alone can lead employers to believe women will be unable to participate fully in activities that require uninterrupted focus, travel, and ongoing training (Eagly & Wood, 2012). Basing expectations on perceived ability based on gender alone

can lead employers to believe that men are more capable in leadership roles and lead to a division of labor along lines of perceived ability (Eagly & Wood, 2012). Building pathways or development specifically for women, says that women are coming from a deficit perspective and do not have what is required to be successful leaders in higher education (Burkinshaw & White, 2017). Despite the research that shows subordinates have more trust and better relationship with leaders with leadership traits deemed to be feminine, women feel they have little to no power to change the institutional culture and learn how to fit in and assimilate (Nienaber et al., 2014; Burkinshaw et al., 2017).

While an important part of the human resource process, performance evaluations play a large role in employee satisfaction and retention within an organization. However, it is important to understand that individuals struggle to reframe their initial opinion or first impression of individuals based on personal bias and social expectations (Nandkeolyar et al., 2022). An inability to change opinion or to put aside personal bias based on these expectations hurt women more than men in the performance review process (Heilman et al., 2019). In an effort to overcome these biases, women find they must assimilate to those more masculine traits, such as exhibiting more competitiveness or being more assertive, which can also backfire as taking on these traits also tend to be viewed as negative for women (Eagly & Heilman, 2016). These inconsistencies and perceived biases can lead women to feel less appreciated, have less job satisfaction, and result in low retention rates for women in leadership positions (Heilman et al., 2019).

Gender and Higher Education Leadership

In 2009, the White House Project: Benchmarking Women's Leadership reports that on college campuses (four- and two-year institutions), only 26% of full professorships, 23% of presidencies (only 14% at doctoral granting institutions), and 30% of board member seats were held by women. The percentage of women holding presidential seats had not changed in ten years (White House, 2009). Furthermore, faculty had not made any progress in closing the salary gap (Johnson, 2017). The concept of assigning specific roles to men and women that fall along gender lines referred to as "academic housework" encompasses the responsibilities that, for women, become time-consuming and can delay (or derail) the tenure or promotion process (Parker, 2015; Macfarlane & Burg, 2019). This practice disproportionately impacts women as these gendered assignments reflect what society views as feminine responsibilities and continue when women enter the workplace (Gallant, 2014).

When looking at two-year, public institutions, we find that women hold almost 30% of presidential positions (Amey & VanDerLinden, 2002). When asked about positions held prior to that of president, 27% held the position of provost. Knowing that most of the women appointed to presidential roles are promoted from the ranks of Chief Academic Officer (CAO) or Provost, it is alarming that in 2013 only 54% of those positions in two-year, public institutions were held by women. The same survey shows that the CAO pathway most often comes by way of Dean. Women hold only 32% of full professor positions, reducing the likelihood of promotion to dean (Johnson, 2017). This helps clarify how impactful the assignments for faculty are in the promotion process.

To further exacerbate the issue, when women do find themselves in higher education leadership roles, they discover that there is not a circle of support from women who have held these roles (Sheppard & Aquino, 2017). Women tend to judge other women negatively, even indicating they do not work as hard (Elsesser, 2020). The phenomenon, known as Queen Bee Syndrome, impacts not only the culture of the organization, but hinders the ability for women to advance (Allen & Flood, 2018). One argument is that women leaders in male-dominated environments will work to maintain systems and policies to ensure that the culture that has been successful for them remains the same (Ellemers et al., 2004).

Within higher education structures, women face stereotypes and bias from both colleagues and subordinates that affect how they view their current and future professional roles (Ropers-Huilman & Winters, 2011). Gender bias associated with these stereotypes, misrecognition, and the gendered construction of positions exacerbate these challenges (Morley, 2013). Viewing vulnerability as a feminine value (Billing & Alvesson, 2002) adds to the feeling that women must assume male traits in leadership for fear of being stigmatized as weak or fragile (Brescoll, 2016).

Stereotyping leadership traits can be important influences for how women perceive themselves as leaders and their ability to be effective in leadership roles (Hoyt, 2015). An important factor in developing leadership ability is feedback in previous and current roles. Feedback from leaders can be based on stereotypes, in turn, resulting in recommendations for different roles than leadership for women (Doldor et al., 2019). The level of leadership efficacy tends to predict performance of men more than women (Hoyt, 2015) causing further pressure and need for assimilation for women assuming leadership roles. However, assimilation can have

negative impacts such as a decline in job satisfaction leading to a lack of committee and higher

turnover (Kezar, 2001).

Social identity theory asserts that an individual's self-concept is directly related to the

value and emotional attachment to attaining membership within a group or groups (Courtois &

Herman, 2015). The core tenet of social identity theory is the desire for individuals to build a

positive identity that can be based in their acceptance of identification with specific groups

(Lantz & Loeb, 1996). This indicates that low levels of inclusiveness can invoke a higher feeling

for the need to assimilate to the traits of a specific group in order to feel acceptance (Pickett, et

al, 2002). Assimilation may mean that women feel the need to take on traits more often

associated as masculine or be seen as weak (Brescoll, 2016) even at the risk of leading to poor

job satisfaction and higher turnover (Kezar, 2001). Fitting into informal networks among

academic colleagues that includes mentoring and collaboration can be powerful barriers to

women who feel excluded and reinforces the hierarchical structure that separates men and

women (Maranto & Griffen, 2011).

Theoretical Framework

Social identity theory provides the theoretical perspective for this study in evaluating

whether members of a group (leaders) assimilate to specific traits (masculine) in order to be

accepted and valued by their peers. Introduced by Henri Tajfel in 1979, social identity theory

suggested that individuals have a desire to belong to a group, and this belonging becomes a sense

of self. Once groups are established and membership is obtained, members want to elevate the

status of those groups in order to heighten self-esteem (McLoed, 2008). Tajfel's hypothesis of

social identity theory is that members of these groups (in-group) will look for and exploit

negative aspects of those outside of the group (out-group) as a way to elevate their status (Tajfel & Turner, 2004).

McLeod (2008) suggests that the process of evaluating members for either the in-group or the out-group occurs in three stages. First, we tend to socially categorize individuals based on personal understanding. For example, individuals may identify as male or female or may identify as nonbinary. The way someone identifies helps us to place them into categories. Next, we move into the social identification of those groups. The groups take on an identity based on our belief and understanding of what it means to be in that category. For example, someone may indicate that they recently gave birth, the understanding of birth might indicate that the individual must be a woman.

Summary

Research clearly indicates a connection between gender and leadership expectations in organizations (Clisbee, 2005; Derue et al., 2011; Chen & Houser, 2019; Flabbi et al., 2019). Because these expectations of leaders tend to be portrayed as masculine, individuals identifying as women can feel the need to assimilate to more masculine leadership traits, which eliminate proven leadership values such as authenticity and vulnerability (Brown, 2012). The idea that individuals portraying more masculine traits are better leaders can be influential in whether women assimilate to achieve acceptance within the organization (Pickett et al., 2002).

Many of the challenges faced by leaders identifying as women are rooted in organizational processes and policies leading to assignment of roles based solely on sex (Acker, 2006). These policies and processes can perpetuate long-standing hierarchical structures that

result in inequity that can lead to negative self-image, lack of job satisfaction, and increased turn-over of leaders identifying as women (King et al., 2010; Doldor et al., 2019; Pickett et al., 2002).

Chapter 3: Methodology

Higher education institutions continue to perpetuate stereotypes associated with leadership in the development of faculty and staff by assigning responsibilities that fall along gender lines (Parker, 2015). Gendering the traits associated with roles assigned to men and those assigned to women downplay the value of leadership traits associated with femininity (Wingfield & Myles, 2014). Identifying how leaders perceive the impact of these stereotypes and gendered assignments is important for understanding how to dismantle them. Students enrolled in two-year institutions thrive in environments where leadership demonstrate traditionally feminine traits including empathy, vulnerability, and transparency (Petts & Garza, 2021; McClenney, 2013; Brown McNair et al., 2015). This correlative quantitative research study examines the perception of qualities and traits associated with great leadership and whether individual leaders feel they must take on traditionally male traits to meet expectations established by higher education leadership. This chapter will outline the methodology for this quantitative study that includes a review of the research question followed by a description of the research design. A description of the population sample is included as well as a discussion regarding the survey, data gathering and analysis processes.[1]

Research Perspective

A framework necessary to perform this study must provide the representation that goes beyond that of gender identity. While a large part of this study is based on how the leaders identify, there is a societal connection to how roles are historically assigned. Therefore, this

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[1] Gender and sex, while used interchangeably in this study, are not the same. Sex refers to physical characteristics. Gender refers specifically to how an individual identifies. This is a distinct difference that should not be confused. However, the questions used to design this survey were, in part, based on validated surveys from previous studies that used the two terms interchangeably.

research is guided by feminist theory and sociology of gender (Gedro & Mizzi, 2014; Zevallos, 2014). The two theories allow for the demonstration of how systemic policies and the procedural structures in place within institutions of higher education continue to perpetuate and encourage the privilege of one group while excluding other groups.

A social structuralist perspective is founded on the notion that we should look more deeply at how the beliefs, thoughts, and behaviors of individuals impact our lives and become the foundation of how gendered organizations manifest themselves (Smith, 2020; Heydebrand, 2001). This perspective helps when looking at how the practices and policies within an institution have developed, why they are so difficult to change, and how they can prevent the attainment of leadership by specific societal groups.

Research Design

A quantitative study using a cross-sectional survey addresses the research questions. Surveying participants is the best approach as it allows for the determination of attitudes and opinions as well as the association between variables (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). An experimental design would require the manipulation of one or more variables to make the determination of the effect that those manipulations have on one or more variables (Bell, 2017).

The survey is cross-sectional with all data being collected at a given point in time as a longitudinal collection would not benefit the analysis for the stated research questions. The survey was administered via the Internet with a link shared through email. An Internet survey was selected to reach a wider population sample within a specified period of time (Ball, 2019). This type of survey is preferred by most respondents as it is convenient and can be done at their own pace in their own time (Pew Research Center, 2021). The process included three email

communications: an introduction email, an invitation email, and a reminder email. Participants have the option to participate in a drawing for a $100 Amazon gift card for their time.

Because cross-sectional surveys are more difficult than experiments to establish validity, several statistical techniques are employed to compare the variables and assess the strength of each relationship (Sue & Ritter, 2012). This design looks at each variable to determine covariance and to allow for alternate explanations for the outcome as well as a determination as to the extent in which the findings can be generalized to the larger population (Salkind & Shaw, 2020).

Research Questions

The research questions driving this study: (1) How do leaders in two-year, public institutions of higher education associate traits to leadership? (2) Does a leader's gender identification influence their perception of ability to demonstrate specific leadership traits? (3) How do leaders who identify as women, in two-year public institutions, perceive their gender influences how they lead?

Population, Sample, and Participants

Based on the findings in the literature review and the connection between leadership styles in community college to student success, the participants for this study are leaders working in two-year, public associate-degree granting institutions identified using IPEDS. Given the small number of two-year private institutions (7% of all two-year institutions) and the difficulty obtaining the required information, private institutions were not included in the study. Two-year, private institutions may likely have similar findings; however, this study focuses on two-year, public institutions. There are 1,044 community colleges in the United States; 936 public, 35

tribal, and 73 independent (AACU, 2021). With more than 900 public community colleges, a

stratified sampling serves the needs of this study. Using Excel, a random number generator was

used to assign random order to the 936 institutions. The sample size was calculated using a

power analysis for effect size at 95% confidence level and a 5% margin of error. The sample

includes participants from 339 randomly selected community colleges and hold a leadership title.

Of the 339 randomly selected community colleges, 106 do not provide email addresses via the

public website. The next 106 colleges were taken from random list to replace those without

accessible email addresses. This process was repeated until 339 colleges with email addresses

were identified. Of the 339 colleges, 1,743 email addresses are identified to receive the survey.

Table 1 provides a list of the leadership titles held by participants.

Table 1

Leadership Titles

Assistant Vice President	Associate Vice President
Assistant Vice Chancellor	Associate Vice Chancellor
Vice President	Vice Chancellor
Assistant Provost	Associate Provost
Chief of Staff	Provost
President	Chancellor

Research Variables

The research questions for this study guide the identification of variables. Survey

questions are designed to establish a relationship pattern between the dependent variables and the

independent variables. For this study, the dependent variables include leadership traits (pre-

assigned as masculine or feminine based on literature), three constructs (question sets that ask

about interactions with respondent's supervisor, respondent's peers, and respondent's

subordinates) that determine whether gender impacts leaders' ability to demonstrate specific

leadership traits, and a fourth construct (question set that asks whether gender identity influences how the respondent leads) designed to determine whether respondents perceive gender as an influence on how they lead. The independent variable for each analysis is self-reported gender identification. While the study did not set out to look at race as a variable, there were important data points that were discovered that led to using self-reported race as another independent variable.

<div align="center">**Instrument for Data Collection**</div>

The survey was designed by utilizing previously validated questions from leadership inventories. The questions ask respondents to indicate a degree to which leadership traits are perceived to be masculine or feminine; whether the respondents feel they can utilize feminine leadership traits in their leadership style; and whether the respondents feel they must assimilate to more masculine traits for promotion. The survey questions use a four-point Likert scale to measure respondent's level of agreement or disagreement with each statement.

<div align="center">**Data Collection and Statistical Analysis**</div>

Descriptive statistics and correlations are used for predictive and independent variables. Examining the association between the variables in the survey, the strength of the relationship is measured by determining the correlation coefficient. The percentage of variance in one variable that can be accounted for in another variable (coefficient of determination) helps us to understand how much of an individual's perceived inability to demonstrate traditionally feminine traits can be explained by the perception of gendered expectations. However, simply demonstrating a relationship between the variables does not indicate causation (Salkind & Shaw, 2020).

One-way ANOVA is used to evaluate the level to which the outcome can be predicted from the independent variables. In this study, one-way ANOVA helps us to understand how each independent variable impacts the participant's perception of their ability to demonstrate various traits in their leadership style. The variables tested are determined by the significance found in the descriptive statistics and correlation performed (Salkind & Shaw, 2020). Prior to performing a one-way ANOVA, the data must meet six assumptions. First, the assumption is that the dependent variable is measured at an interval or ratio level (they are continuous). For this study, respondents are asked to select responses on a four-point Likert scale which meets the assumption of interval or ratio level data. Next, there is an assumption that the independent variables are categorical, independent groups. For this study, gender is measured categorically, and each group is independent of the other. Race is also measured categorically with independent groups. There is also an assumption that observations are independent and there is no relationship between the observations within or between the groups. In this study, respondents are only permitted to select membership into one gender group and one race group eliminating the possibility that any participant could be a member of more than one group. The fourth assumption is that there are no significant outliers. Descriptive statistics provide a minimum and a maximum for each category providing the opportunity to determine there are outliers within each or any of the groups. Next, the dependent variables should be normally distributed. This is tested by evaluating the Normal Q-Q Plot for each dependent variable.

To assume normal distribution, the data points lie close to the diagonal line. Figures 1-3 illustrate the normal distribution of each dependent variable. Finally, there needs to be homogeneity of variances. Testing for this assumption was done using Levene's test for

homogeneity of variances. When using Levene's test, the p value must be greater than α. Table 2

provides the p value for each of the constructs (dependent variables).

Figure 1

Normal Q-Q Plot for Construct 1 and Self-Reported Gender.

Normal Q-Q Plot of Q1_AVG
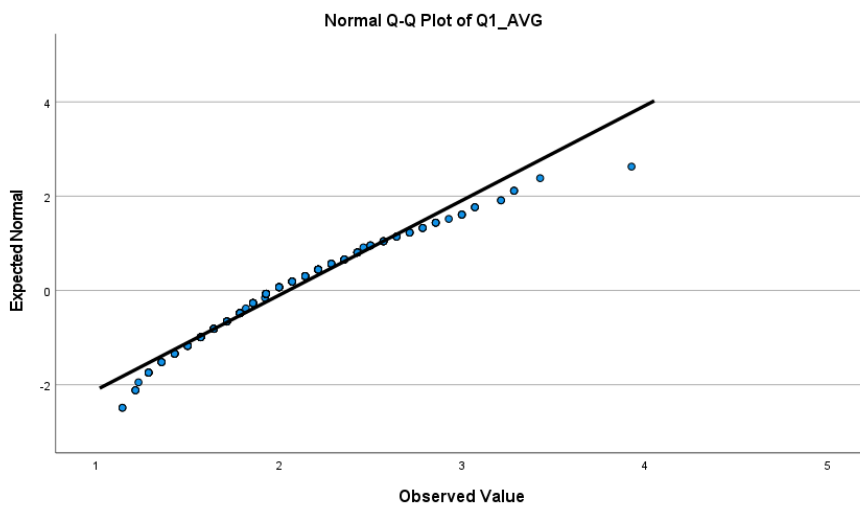
Figure 2

Normal Q-Q Plot for Construct 2 and Self-Reported Gender.

Normal Q-Q Plot of Q2_AVG
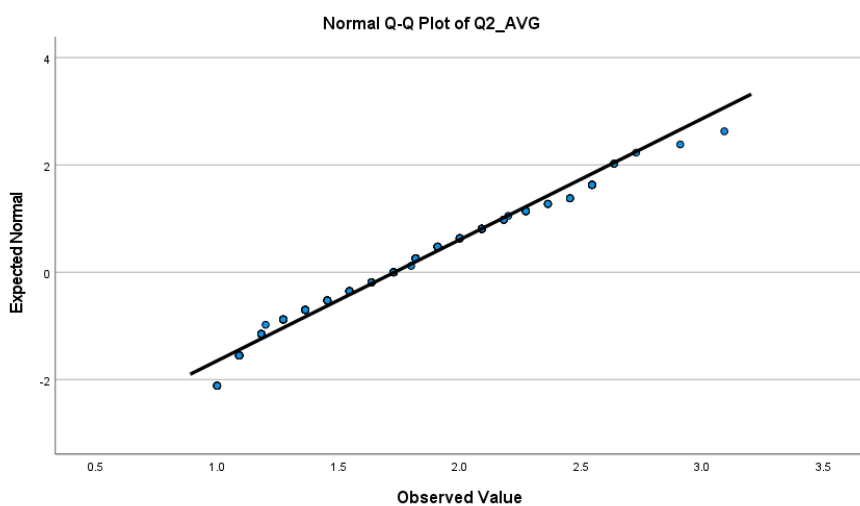
Figure 3

Normal Q-Q Plot for Construct 3 and Self-Reported Gender.

Normal Q-Q Plot of Q3_AVG
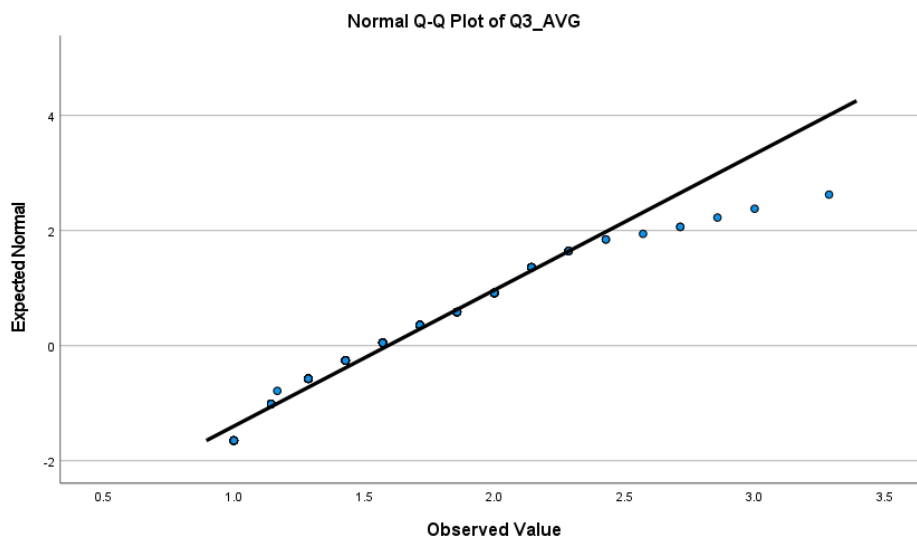
Table 2

Levene's test p-value for each of the four constructs testing for homogeneity of variances.

Construct 1	$p = 0.018$
Construct 2	$p = 0.200$
Construct 3	$p = 0.411$
Construct 4	$p = 0.524$

Bias and Error

To reduce bias, inclusive design is used to help ensure the questions are understood in the same way by all participants. Questions are written to reduce ambiguity by eliminating double-questioning, jargon, slang, and leading questions (Qualtrics, n.d.). Responses are forced with the understanding that additional options may change the results of the survey; however, there are no missing or overlapping categories (Choi & Pak, 2004). This is done with the understanding that

not all bias can be eliminated such as non-response bias, emotion, and individual subjectivity (Geisen, 2020).

Error prevention methods are used such as providing clear instructions and offering clearly written questions. In addition, survey data will be cleaned prior to analysis. This includes accountability for missing values and recording data to ensure consistency specifically for questions asked from both a positive and negative perspective (Sue & Ritter, 2012). Technology and access also may present errors that will be addressed on an as needed basis.

Validity and Reliability

To increase retest reliability a Likert scale format is used requiring a forced response (Dolnicar, 2021; Kam, 2020). In addition, a Cronbach's alpha was performed to insure internal consistency. Cronbach's alpha indicates how closely related the set of items are as a group. Cronbach's alpha scores range from 0 to 1. Higher values indicate that the survey is more reliable.

Summary

This chapter provides information on the organization and methodology that forms the process for inquiry in this study. It is a representation of best practice and illustrates the clear attempts to remove or reduce bias while maintaining reliability and validity of the instrument. The random sampling of two-year, public institutions provides the sample from which participants are identified. Position titles are used as the basis for participation in an attempt to understand the impact that the research questions may present at varying levels of leadership. This is done using social structuralist perspective and framed by feminist and sociology of gender theories.

Chapter 4: Results

Chapter 4 presents the findings of the study. The results are presented in five sections: Respondent Demographics, Institutional Demographics, Leadership Traits, Demonstrating Leadership Traits, and Gender Influence. Three research questions drove this study: (*R1*) How do leaders in two-year, public institutions of higher education associate traits to leadership? (*R2*) Does a leader's gender identification influence their perception of ability to demonstrate specific leadership traits? (*R3*) How do leaders who identify as women, in two-year public institutions, perceive their gender influences how they lead? Data analysis was performed using IBM Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS) software version 28. The overall findings suggest there is no significant difference between respondents identifying as women and those identifying as men in their perceived ability to demonstrate specific leadership traits. However, there is a significant difference between the two groups in their perception of gender influence on how they lead.

Methodology Summary

Respondents were asked to evaluate traits to determine how closely they perceive those traits to be associated with leadership. These traits were previously determined, through empirical studies, to represent masculine or feminine perspectives. Next, respondents were asked to provide their level of agreement with three sets of questions to assess how they perceive their ability to demonstrate leadership traits in their current role. The first set of questions (construct 1) was specific to the respondent's experience with supervisor engagement. The second set of questions (construct 2) was specific to the respondent's interactions with peers. The third set of questions (construct 3) asked specifically about the respondent's experience with individuals

they directly supervise. Lastly, the respondents were presented with a set of questions (construct 4) that asked how they perceive their gender identity influences how they lead in their current role.

Population, Sample, and Participants

The survey was sent via email to 1,688 individuals with the title of President/Chancellor, Vice President/Chancellor, Provost, Assistant/Associate Provost, Assistant/Associate Vice President/Chancellor, or Chief of Staff. Of the 1,688, a total of 140 were either rejected or bounced back from the server as undeliverable. The remaining 1,540 emails were accepted by the server and delivered. The number of surveys started was 267 with 250 completing the survey for a 95% completion rate among those who started the survey and a 16% completion rate overall.

Demographic Findings

The survey asked individuals to provide several demographic data points including gender identification, race, marital status (at the time they began a career in administration), and number of children in the home (at the time they began their career in administration). The self-identification of gender revealed that 65% ($n = 162$) identified as female, 34% ($n = 86$) identified as male, 0.4% ($n = 1$) identified as other, and another 0.4% ($n = 1$) preferred not to say. When asked about race, 70% ($n = 175$) indicated race as White, 18% ($n = 44$) indicated race as African American or Black, 2% ($n = 16$) indicated race as Lainta/Latino/Latinx/Latine, 2% ($n = 4$), indicated race as mixed, 2% ($n = 4$) indicated race as other, 2% ($n = 4$) preferred not to say, 1% ($n = 2$) indicated race as Asian, and 0.4% ($n = 1$) indicated race as Native American or Alaskan Native. Tables 3 and 4 illustrate the breakdown of race and gender.

Table 3

Self-reported gender identification.

	Frequency	Percent
Female	162	65%
Male	86	34%
Other (please provide)	1	0%
Prefer not to say	1	0%

Note. Respondents were asked to identify gender from a list that included female, male, transgender female, transgender male, gender non-binary, gender queer/fluid, other, and prefer not to say. The respondent who indicated "other" provided gender as "irrelevant."

Table 4

Self-reported race

	Native American or Alaskan Native	White	Asian	Black or African American	Latina Latino Latinx Latine	Mixed Race (two or more)	Other (please specify)	Prefer not to say
Female	0%	49%	1%	11%	4%	0%	0%	0%
Male	0%	21%	0%	7%	3%	1%	1%	1%
Other (Please provide)	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Prefer not to say	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Total	0%	70%	1%	18%	6%	2%	2%	2%

Note. Respondents were asked to identify race from the list above but also asked to provide if checking "other." In the "other" category, responses included irrelevant, Ashkenazi Jew, Latina and White, and Portuguese.

When asked about marital status, 77% (*n* = 192) stated they are currently married, 11% (*n* = 28) indicated they are divorced, 7% (*n* = 18) indicated single, never been married while the remaining 5% (*n* = 12) stated widow, separated, in a domestic partnership, or did not provide status. When looking at marital status by gender identification, 9% (*n* = 14) of respondents that identified as female indicated they had never been married compared to 5% (*n* = 4) of those identifying as male. In addition, 14% (*n* = 23) of those identifying as female indicated they were divorced compared to 6% (*n* = 5) of those identifying as male. Of respondents identifying as female 72% (*n* = 117) indicated they are married compared to 86% (*n* = 73) of those identifying as male. Table 5 illustrates marital status by gender.

Table 5

Marital Status by self-reported gender identity.

	Single, never been married	Married	Divorced	Other (please provide)
Female	9%	72%	14%	5%
Male	5%	85%	6%	5%
Other (Please provide)	0%	100%	0%	0%
Prefer not to say	0%	100%	0%	0%

Note. Respondents who selected "other" specified widow, separated, in a domestic partnership, or did not provide status.

When asked about children present in the home when the respondents accepted their first administrative role, 62% (*n* = 154) indicated children were living in the home, 6% (*n* = 16) indicated they did have children but not living in the home, 31% (*n* = 78) indicated they did not have children, and 1% (*n* = 2) indicated other (miscarriage, one at home and one out of home). Of note, 60% (*n* = 97) of respondents identifying as women indicated they had children living in

the home compared to 64% (*n* = 55) of those who identified as male. Additionally, 35% (*n* = 56) of respondents identifying as women indicated they did not have children compared to 26% (*n* = 22) of those identifying as male. Table 6 provides a breakdown of the data regarding children by respondent's gender.

Table 6

Children in the home when undertaking first leadership role.

	Female	Male	Other	Prefer Not to Say
Children Living in the Home	39%	3%	22%	1%
Children NOT Living in the Home	22%	4%	9%	0%
Did Not Have Children	0%	0%	0%	0%
Other (Please Provide)	0%	0%	0%	0%

Note. The response "other" provided the response "had a miscarriage."

Ninety-seven percent (*n* = 232) of respondents identified their status as staff while 3% (*n* = 7) identified faculty. Regarding titles, 52% (*n* = 25) with the title of President/Chancellor identified as male with 48% (*n* = 23) identifying as female. However, of those holding the title of Vice President/Chancellor of Academic Affairs/Provost, 62% (*n* = 25) identified as female with only 36% (*n* = 16) identifying as male 2% (*n* = 1) preferred not to say). Tables 7 is a look at title identified when all respondents were asked current title. Table 8 provides a breakdown of the title within gender constructs.

Table 7

Breakdown by position title within self-identified gender group

	Female	Male
President or Chancellor	14%	29%
Chief of Staff or Senior Advisor to the President/Chancellor	3%	0%
Vice President or Vice Chancellor for Academic Affairs / Provost / Chief Academic Officer	17%	19%
Vice President or Vice Chancellor for Student Affairs	19%	14%
Vice President or Vice Chancellor for Academic and Student Affairs	1%	1%
Vice President or Vice Chancellor for Advancement	6%	3%
Vice President or Vice Chancellor for Finance and Administration	9%	13%
Vice President or Vice Chancellor for Institutional Effectiveness and Strategic Initiatives	1%	1%
Vice President or Vice Chancellor for Workforce Development	3%	1%
Vice President or Vice Chancellor for Information Technology	1%	2%
Vice President or Vice Chancellor for Human Resources	2%	0%
Vice President or Vice Chancellor for Equity and Inclusion/Chief Diversity Officers	2%	1%
Assistant or Associate Vice President or Chancellor	13%	8%
Other (please provide)	8%	7%

Table 8

Breakdown by position title within self-identified gender group

	Female	Male
President or Chancellor	14%	29%
Chief of Staff or Senior Advisor to the President/Chancellor	3%	0%
Vice President or Vice Chancellor for Academic Affairs / Provost / Chief Academic Officer	17%	19%
Vice President or Vice Chancellor for Student Affairs	19%	14%
Vice President or Vice Chancellor for Academic and Student Affairs	1%	1%
Vice President or Vice Chancellor for Advancement	6%	3%
Vice President or Vice Chancellor for Finance and Administration	9%	13%
Vice President or Vice Chancellor for Institutional Effectiveness and Strategic Initiatives	1%	1%
Vice President or Vice Chancellor for Workforce Development	3%	1%
Vice President or Vice Chancellor for Information Technology	1%	2%
Vice President or Vice Chancellor for Human Resources	2%	0%
Vice President or Vice Chancellor for Equity and Inclusion/Chief Diversity Officers	2%	1%
Assistant or Associate Vice President or Chancellor	13%	8%
Other (please provide)	8%	7%

Institutional Demographics

Respondents were asked to identify the geographic location of their institution within the United States. The Western North Central area of the United States (IA, KS, MN, MO, NE, ND, SD) represented the location with the largest number of responses at 24% ($n = 59$) while New England (CT, ME, MA, NH, RI, VT) represented the location with the fewest number of responses at 4% ($n = 11$). Table 9 shows geographical areas represented by the respondents. When asked to describe their campus setting, respondents indicated 39% ($n = 98$) are in a rural setting, 32% ($n = 81$) are in an urban or metropolitan setting, 27% ($n = 67$) are in a suburban setting, and 1% ($n = 2$) are fully online campuses 1% ($n = 2$) did not provide a setting). Table 10 breaks down the responses. Regarding campus size, 18% ($n = 46$) identified as small (500 to 1,999 students), 33% ($n = 83$) identified as medium (2,000 to 4,999 students), 25% ($n = 62$) identified as large (5,000 to 9,999 students), and 23% ($n = 58$) identified as very large (10,000 or more students) (0.4% ($n = 1$) did not provide a response).

Table 9

Geographic location of respondents' institutions.

	Frequency	Percent
Middle Atlantic (NJ, NY, PA)	30	12%
Eastern North Central (IN, IL, MI, OH, WI)	30	12%
Western North Central (IA, KS, MN, MO, NE, ND, SD)	59	24%
South Atlantic (DE, DC, FL, GA, MD, NC, SC, VA, WV)	29	12%
East South Central (AL, KY, MS, TN)	17	7%
West South Central (AK, LA, OK, TX)	22	9%
New England (CT, ME, MA, NH, RI, VT)	11	4%
Mountain (AZ, CO, ID, NM, UT, MT, NV, WY)	30	12%
Pacific (AK, CA, HI, OR, WA)	20	8%
Not Provided	2	1%

Table 10

Campus setting as reported by respondents.

	Frequency	Percent
Urban or Metropolitan	81	32%
Rural	98	39%
Suburban	67	27%
Fully Online	2	1%
Not Provided	2	1%

Leadership Traits

Respondents were asked how strongly they felt that each of the 13 leadership traits identified in the survey were associated with leadership. Of the leadership traits provided, five were determined through the literature review to represent masculinity (competition, forceful, assertive, influential, and confidence); seven were determined to represent femininity (compassion, collaboration, approachable, sensitivity, empathy, vulnerability, creative, and nurturing); and one was neutral (problem solving). When looking at the masculine traits, respondents indicated that only one of the five (forceful) was not felt to be closely associated with leadership. The other four traits (competition, assertive, influential, and confidence) were viewed as closely related with leadership. When looking at the feminine traits, seven of the eight were viewed as closely associated with leadership (compassion, collaboration, approachable, sensitive, empathetic, creative, and nurturing). Vulnerable was split evenly with 50% indicating it was closely associated with leadership. The one neutral trait (problem solving) was viewed as highly associated with leadership.

Leadership Traits by Gender

Looking at the responses by gender, respondents identifying as women felt strongly (80% or more) that ten of the 14 traits are related to leadership. Respondents identifying as men felt strongly (80% or more) than 11 of the 14 traits were related to leadership. Those identifying as both women and those identifying as men felt less strongly (less than 80%) that compassion, forceful, and vulnerable were closely related to leadership. Those identifying as women felt less strongly (less than 80%) that nurturing was closely related to leadership; however, the percentage was 79% who responded strongly or somewhat agree.

A higher percentage of respondents that identified as women than those that identify as men felt strongly or somewhat strongly that vulnerability is a trait closely related to leadership (55% vs. 41%). However, a higher percentage of respondents identifying as men felt compassion, approachability, sensitivity, empathetic, and nurturing were associated to leadership than those identifying as women. Both collaboration and problem solving received 100% association to leadership by all men and all women. Table 11 illustrates the percentage of respondents who responded strongly or somewhat agree by gender.

Table 11

Relationship of Traits to Leadership

	Female	Male
Competition	70%	68%
Compassion	91%	100%
Forceful	40%	34%
Collaboration	100%	100%
Assertive	96%	93%
Approachable	99%	100%
Sensitivity	81%	88%
Influential	98%	99%
Empathetic	94%	99%
Problem Solving	100%	100%
Vulnerable	55%	41%
Confidence	99%	99%
Creativity	96%	95%
Nurturing	78%	80%

Leadership Traits by Race and Gender

When looking at responses by race and gender, respondents identifying as White men felt competition was associated to leadership at a higher percentage than the overall average of all respondents identifying as men while those identifying as Black men felt competition was associated with leadership at a much lower percentage. One hundred percent of respondents identifying as Black men and those identifying as White men stated that compassion was 100% related to leadership which is higher than all women. Black respondents indicated 100% that empathy and influence are closely related to leadership.

Demonstrating Leadership Traits

Internal Consistency of Survey Constructs

Three sets of questions (constructs) were used to measure whether respondents felt their self-reported gender identification impacted their ability to demonstrate certain leadership traits. Cronbach's Alpha was performed to measure the internal consistency of the survey constructs. Construct 1 was made up of a set of 13 questions. The original value was .735. In evaluating the questions, it was decided to remove the first two questions from this construct, reducing the number to 11. After removing these two questions the value for Cronbach's Alpha was 0.863. Construct 2 was made up of 12 questions. The original Cronbach's Alpha value was 0.833. After evaluating the set of questions, the eleventh question was removed leaving 11 questions. The new value for Cronbach's Alpha was 0.838. Construct 3 consisted of 8 questions with an original Cronbach's Alpha of 0.732. After consideration, two questions (number 3 and number 7) were removed resulting in a value of 0.777. The adjustments in questions resulted in good internal consistency in constructs 1 and 2 as well as acceptable internal consistency for construct 3.

Construct 4, the final set of questions, was designed to assess perceived influence of gender identity on leadership. Construct 4 consisted of ten questions with an original Cronbach's Alpha of 0.698. Question 2 and question 7 were removed resulting in a Cronbach's Alpha value of 0.830. The adjustments in questions resulted in good internal consistency in construct 4.

Statistical Significance between Genders

A one-way ANOVA was used to determine statistical significance between the means of each question set and gender. For the one-way ANOVA, the independent variable was gender identification with the dependent variable being the mean of each of the three constructs.

Additionally, a second one-way ANOVA was used to determine statistical significance between the means of each question set and race. In the second ANOVA, the independent variable was race while the dependent variable remained the mean of each of the three constructs.

When performing the one-way ANOVA using gender identification, the options "prefer not to say" and "other" were removed as they contained one response each. This left two options, "male" and "female." A one-way ANOVA was performed to compare the effect of gender on of the mean of each of the three constructs. The one-way ANOVA for construct 1 revealed that there was not a statistically significant difference between respondents identifying as women and those identifying as men ($F = 0.793$ and $p = 0.374$). The one-way ANOVA for construct 2 revealed that there was not a statistically significant difference between respondents identifying as women and those identifying as men ($F = 0.139$ and $p = 0.709$). The one-way ANOVA for construct 3 revealed there was not a statistically significant difference between respondents identifying as women and those identifying as men ($F = 3.302$ and $p = 0.071$).

Statistical Significance between Races

Additionally, one-way ANOVAs were performed comparing the effect of race on each of the three constructs. Respondents were asked to select from a list of seven options that best identified their race. In addition, respondents could specify an option not provided or elect to not provide race. Of these nine options, six were excluded as each received less than 5 responses. Therefore, the ANOVA using race as the independent variable considered only White, Black/African American, and Latina/Latino/Latinx/Latine. The one-way ANOVA looked at difference between White and Black/African American respondents, White and Latina/Latino/

Latinx/Latine respondents, and Black/African American and Latina/Latino/Latinx/Latine

respondents for each of the three constructs.

A one-way ANOVA revealed there was a statistically significant difference between self-identified race groups and the mean of construct 1 (overall F = 4.092 and p = 0.018). Specifically, Tukey's HSD Test for multiple comparisons found that the mean value of construct 1 was significantly different between respondents indicating race as White and those indicating race as Latina/Latino/Latinx/Latine (p > = 0.031, 95% C.I. = (-0.6330, -0.0239). There was no statistically significant difference for construct 1 between respondents indicating race as White and those indicating race as Black/African American. Additionally, there was no statistically significant difference for construct 1 between respondents indicating race as Black/African American and those identifying as Latina/Latino/Latinx/Latine.

Next, a one-way ANOVA was performed looking for difference between self-identified race groups and interaction with peers. The ANOVA revealed no statistically significant difference between self-identified race groups and construct 2 (overall F = 1.395 and p = 0.250). Specifically, Tukey's HSD Test for multiple comparisons found that the mean value of construct 2 was not significantly different for respondents indicating race as White and those indicating race as Black/African American. There was no statistically significant difference for construct 2 between respondents identifying as White and those identifying as Latina/Latino/Latinx/Latine. Additionally, there was no statistically significant difference for construct 2 between respondents identifying as Black/African American and those identifying as Latina/Latino/Latinx/Latine.

Additionally, a one-way ANOVA was performed to determine if there was a difference between self-identified race groups and interactions with subordinates. This revealed no

statistically significant difference between self-identified race groups and construct 3 (overall F = 0.162 and p = 0.851). Specifically, Tukey's HSD Test for multiple comparisons found that the mean value of construct 3 was not significantly different for respondents indicating race as White and those indicating race as Black/African American. There was no statistically significant difference for construct 3 between respondents identifying as White and those identifying as Latina/Latino/Latinx/Latine. Additionally, there was no statistically significant difference for construct 3 between respondents identifying as Black/African American and those identifying as Latina/Latino/Latinx/Latine. Table 12 provides data for racial identification comparisons for each of the three constructs.

Table 12

Difference between self-reported race categories for the first three constructs.

			Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Tukey HSD Construct 1	2 White	5 Black or African American	-0.14018	0.08598	0.235	-0.3431	0.0627
		7 Latina/Latino/Latinx/Latine	-.32844[*]	0.12905	<mark>0.031</mark>	-0.6330	-0.0239
	5 Black or African American	2 White	0.14018	0.08598	0.235	-0.0627	0.3431
		7 Latina/Latino/Latinx/Latine	-0.18826	0.14532	0.399	-0.5312	0.1546
	7 Latina/Latino/Latinx/Latine	2 White	.32844[*]	0.12905	0.031	0.0239	0.6330
		5 Black or African American	0.18826	0.14532	0.399	-0.1546	0.5312
Tukey HSD Construct 2	2 White	5 Black or African American	-0.12784	0.07719	0.225	-0.3100	0.0543
		7 Latina/Latino/Latinx/Latine	-0.05018	0.11582	0.902	-0.3235	0.2231
	5 Black or African American	2 White	0.12784	0.07719	0.225	-0.0543	0.3100
		7 Latina/Latino/Latinx/Latine	0.07766	0.13039	0.823	-0.2300	0.3853
	7 Latina/Latino/Latinx/Latine	2 White	0.05018	0.11582	0.902	-0.2231	0.3235
		5 Black or African American	-0.07766	0.13039	0.823	-0.3853	0.2300
Tukey HSD Construct 3	2 White	5 Black or African American	0.00095	0.07459	1.000	-0.1751	0.1770
		7 Latina/Latino/Latinx/Latine	-0.06479	0.11527	0.840	-0.3368	0.2072
	5 Black or African American	2 White	-0.00095	0.07459	1.000	-0.1770	0.1751
		7 Latina/Latino/Latinx/Latine	-0.06574	0.12898	0.867	-0.3701	0.2386
	7 Latina/Latino/Latinx/Latine	2 White	0.06479	0.11527	0.840	-0.2072	0.3368
		5 Black or African American	0.06574	0.12898	0.867	-0.2386	0.3701

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

Gender Influence

Finally, respondents were asked to indicate how strongly they agreed that the questions in construct 4 related to their experience as a leader in higher education. As with the previous three constructs, a one-way ANOVA was used to determine statistical significance between the mean of construct 4 and gender. For the one-way ANOVA, the independent variable was gender identification with the dependent variable being the mean of construct 4. Additionally, a second one-way ANOVA was used to determine statistical significance between the mean of construct 4 and self-identified race. In this second ANOVA, the independent variable was race while the dependent variable remained the mean of construct 4.

When performing the one-way ANOVA using gender identification, the options "prefer not to say" and "other" were removed as they contained one response each. This left two options, "male" and "female." Therefore, the one-way ANOVA was performed using gender as either male or female. The one-way ANOVA for construct 4 and gender revealed there was statistically significant difference between respondents identifying as women and those identifying as men (F = 10.895 and p = 0.001). As with the first three constructs, a one-way ANOVA was performed comparing the effect of race on construct 4. Also, as with the previous three constructs, the one-way ANOVA using race as the independent variable considered only White, Black/African American, and Latina/Latino/Latinx/Latine. The one-way ANOVA looked at difference between White and Black/African American respondents, White and Latina/Latino/ Latinx/Latine respondents, and Black/African American and Latina/Latino/Latinx/Latine respondents for each of the three constructs. The one-way ANOVA revealed no statistically significant difference between self-identified race groups and construct 4 (overall F = 1.556 and p = 0.213).

Specifically, Tukey's HSD Test for multiple comparisons found that the mean value of construct 4 was not significantly different for respondents indicating race as White and those indicating race as Black/African American. There was no statistically significant difference for construct 4 between respondents identifying as White and those identifying as Latina/Latino/Latinx/Latine. Additionally, there was no statistically significant difference for construct 4 between respondents identifying as Black/African American and those identifying as Latina/Latino/Latinx/Latine. Table 13 provides data for racial identification comparisons for construct 4.

Table 13

Difference between self-reported race categories for the construct 4.

			Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Tukey HSD Construct 4	2 White	5 Black or African American	-0.14306	0.10824	0.385	-0.3985	0.1124
		7 Latina/Latino/Latinx/Latine	0.15656	0.15907	0.588	-0.2189	0.5320
	5 Black or African American	2 White	0.14306	0.10824	0.385	-0.1124	0.3985
		7 Latina/Latino/Latinx/Latine	0.29962	0.18026	0.222	-0.1258	0.7251
	7 Latina/Latino/Latinx/Latine	2 White	-0.15656	0.15907	0.588	-0.5320	0.2189
		5 Black or African American	-0.29962	0.18026	0.222	-0.7251	0.1258

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

Summary

The survey respondents of this study demonstrated alignment with how they associate leadership traits to the leadership positions held. Collectively, the respondents stated that all of the traits provided were associated with leadership except forceful, where the majority of respondents regardless of self-identification of gender disagreed that the trait was associated with leadership. When looking at how the respondents felt their own gender identification impacted their ability to demonstrate specific traits, there was no significant difference between those identifying as women and those identifying as men in any of the three constructs. The study did find significant difference between respondents who self-identified as women and those who self-identified as men in how they perceive their gender influences how they lead.

Chapter 5: Interpretation and Recommendations

The purpose of this study was to examine whether leaders who identify as women in two-year, public institutions feel they must take on more masculine leadership traits to attain leadership roles and advance in administration. This chapter will provide a connection between the findings in Chapter 4 and the literature in Chapter 2. Additionally, I will discuss how this research study has pressed my own thinking regarding women in leadership in higher education. The findings and the implication for future studies has both challenged my thinking and helped me to look differently at how I view the leadership potential for administrators who identify as women and those who identify as men. In the development of this study, my own story influenced how I felt the study would conclude; however, the findings have forced me to evolve in my thinking regarding gendered leadership. This study also encouraged me to look at my own path to leadership. My development came about in the 1990s when leaders were primarily white and male, sexism was openly accepted, and women's voices were not heard in the same way as leaders who identified as men. The findings of this study have given me hope for the future of leadership, and that my experience is not the same as what leaders who identify as women may have today, especially in two-year, public institutions. There is ample information available that identify the numbers of leaders, that identify as women, in two-year, public institutions exceed the number of leaders, that identify as women, in four-year institutions (White House Project, 2009; Johnson, 2017; Amey & VanDerLinden, 2002). While there is limited literature about why this may be, Meyers (2013) found that women are more likely to find leadership positions in two-year colleges that have the perception of lacking the same prestige and pay as the four-year research institution where the gender inequity is more pronounced.

Discussion of Findings

In this section, I will discuss the findings based on the three research questions and layout specific alignment and misalignment with the literature and potential implications of those findings. There were many surprises in this study that, originally, made me, initially, wonder if the survey instrument was faulty. After much consideration and thought, this disappointment evolved into both cautious optimism and excitement for the future of leadership and for the changes that these findings could represent.

Gender and Position Titles

Respondent demographics did mostly align with what I anticipated and what was found in the literature. However, there were some variations and a few unexpected results. The literature indicates that 30% of President/Chancellor roles at two-year public institutions are held by individuals that identify as women (Amey & VanDerLinden, 2002). In this study, of the respondents who stated their current position is President/Chancellor, 48% identified as women, higher than the literature but not quite half. In the literature, Amey & VanDerLinden (2002) tell us that the position most often held prior to that of President/Chancellor is Chief Academic Officer/Provost/Vice President of Academic Affairs; however, this position is most frequently held by those identifying as men. The survey findings indicate that 62% of respondents whose current position is listed as Chief Academic Officer/Provost/Vice President of Academic Affairs identify as female.

My own experience in two-year, public institutions as staff, faculty, and as liaison to four-year partners is that three of the four presidents I worked for identified as male. Only recently, in 2022, did I see a president that identifies as a woman in my own institution. While

the findings were surprising to me, when I looked at the data by region, the findings potentially

support my experience. Breaking the regions into north and south, 78% of respondents

identifying as women whose title is President/Chancellor (versus 60% of those identifying as

men) indicated their institution was in the north. My experience, prior to my current position,

was in the south.

Gender and Marital Status

Respondents were asked to report marital status and whether children were in the home

when they accepted their first leadership role in higher education. When asked about current

marital status, 65% of all respondents indicated they are currently married. When looking at

respondents by gender identification, 72% respondents identifying as women stated they are

currently married compared to 86% of respondents identifying as men. This aligns with the data

reported in *Pipelines, Pathways, and Institutional Leadership: An Update on the Status of*

Woman in Higher Education indicating 75% of those identifying as women were married

compared to 90% of those identifying as men. These findings are also supported by societal

norms and expectations and often cause individuals identifying as women to opt out of even

applying for leadership roles rather than taking on the additional responsibilities (Free Network,

2021; Hochschild & Machung, 1989).

Gender and Leadership Traits

The first research question asked how closely leaders in two-year, public institutions of

higher education associate specific traits to leadership. Respondents were asked to indicate how

closely related they felt each provided trait was to leadership. Of the 15 provided traits,

respondents felt all but three (less than 70%) were closely related to leadership (responding

strongly or somewhat agree). Respondents felt that competition (69%), forceful (38%), and

vulnerable (50%) were less likely to be associated with leadership. These findings were not

particularly surprising as the traits were pulled directly from the literature as being closely

associated with leadership (some by leaders and some by followers). Of particular interest to me

was that 50% of respondents indicated that vulnerability was associated with leadership. Based

on the literature, and the social perception of vulnerability being associated with weaknesses and

limitations, my assumption was the percentage would be lower. Brown (2012) discusses the

potential reasons individuals may be less likely to associate vulnerability with leadership, even

though the research indicates that followers rank vulnerability high on the list of good leaders. In

my experience and the literature explored, vulnerability, in its truest sense, is key to successful

and strong leadership.

When looking at specific traits, the findings became more surprising. Interestingly, of the

traits identified as female (compassion, approachable, sensitivity, empathetic, vulnerable, and

nurturing), respondents identifying as men agreed at a higher percentage than those identifying

as women that these traits are closely associated with leadership. This finding was surprising to

me as much of the literature discusses how men feel an inability to portray communal or

relational traits and must portray authoritative or more masculine traits to be considered

competent in leadership (Cook, 2015). Knowing this information, I felt that men would be less

likely to identify traits that they are not comfortable exhibiting as closely related to leadership.

Research also indicates that the inability to display specific traits applies to leaders who identify

women as well and that many women will fall back onto more feminine traits even when they

consider masculine traits to be more closely tied to leadership (Hewlett, 2014). The findings run

counter to this in some ways. If, as a woman, I felt strongly that my authentic leadership may contain more feminine traits, I would have assumed that respondents identifying as women would have been much more comfortable associating feminine traits to leadership. However, this was not the case. Women leaned more toward masculine traits as being strongly associated with leadership than feminine traits.

As a leader in higher education, who progressed to the position of Assistant Vice President and eventually serving as the Interim Vice President for Student Affairs, my experience was closely aligned with the literature, and the findings of women feeling strongly that masculine traits are strongly associated with leadership. As a member of the President's Leadership Team, I found myself at a table with one other individual who identified as a woman. We assimilated traits and ways of presenting material that closely mimicked our counterparts who identified as male. On meeting days, we wore dark suits, white button-down blouse, hair in a bun, and glasses. We wanted to simply blend into the setting around the table and be taken seriously (assimilate). My experience included providing well-researched and thought-out ideas only to be ignored until the same concept was presented by another member of the team who identified as a man. Then the conversation could commence. This was extremely frustrating as a woman and fueled much of the desire for this research. Based on this experience, the findings were both disappointing and satisfying at the same time. Disappointing in the sense that women tie male traits so strongly to leadership and satisfying that my own experiences are not mine alone.

Collaboration and creativity were two feminine traits that respondents identifying as men and those identifying as female felt equally that they are closely associated to leadership. All

participants stated collaboration (100%) was closely related to leadership. This was not surprising as most teams are founded on the idea that collaboration and cooperation must be present for success (Rowhani, 2021). When it comes to creativity, 96% of respondents identifying as female and 95% of those identifying as men felt the trait closely related to leadership. As a faculty member teaching business courses, I emphasize the need to be creative, to think entrepreneurially, and to encourage those we lead to take chances and to be creative in their thought. This was exciting for me to see that both men and women value creativity as closely tied to leadership. My experience has been that creative thinking and thinking outside of the traditional way of doing things is not always appreciated or valued.

Respondents identifying as women associated all five traits defined as masculine as more closely related to leadership than respondents identifying as men. We know that when it comes to social capital, which is gendered higher towards men, those identifying as men are given more legitimacy for holding senior roles (Sang et al., 2015). So, it was no surprise to see women feel strongly that male traits are so closely related to leadership. At the same time, it was reassuring to see that men feel comfortable associating feminine traits closely to leadership.

Gender Influence on Leadership Ability

In respect to research question two, the survey was designed to identify whether a leader's gender identification influences their perception of ability to demonstrate specific leadership traits. This was done by assessing three constructs (sets of questions) that evaluated various aspects of leadership. These three aspects were interaction with supervisors, interactions with peers, and interactions with those they supervise.

Direct Supervisor Interaction

First, respondents were asked how strongly they agreed or disagreed with statements about overall experience with direct supervision in higher education (construct 1). Findings revealed there was no statistically significant difference between respondents self-identifying as women and those self-identifying as men ($p = 0.374$). This finding did not align with expectations laid out in the literature, nor did they align with my expected outcomes for this construct based on my own experiences in higher education.

The literatures indicates that women are somewhat isolated in higher education institutions and reported a chilly climate regarding supervisor relationships (Maranto & Griffin, 2011). Traditionally, supervisory expectations tend to be based on gender, meaning many supervisors feel those identifying as women do not have the skills and capital necessary for successful leadership (Jeong & Harrison, 2017). As I discussed, much of the fuel for this research was based on my own personal experience with leadership roles in higher education. Personally, my experiences aligned more closely with what is seen in the literature. In fact, I had experiences with supervisors who identified as women and those who identified as men that demonstrated extreme masculine leadership traits and expected the same from followers. These experiences led me to believe that both men and women view masculine traits as dominate in leadership and successful leaders. Two of my prior supervisors, who identify as men, would assign roles along gender lines such as asking women in the group, including myself, to take notes during meetings or to make sure they followed up on specific topics of discussion. For me, as a woman in leadership, this was extremely upsetting, and with one supervisor suggested that

we all take turns with note taking so that everyone has an opportunity to equally participate in the conversation.

When asking about feedback from supervisors, 74% ($n = 124$) of respondents who self-identified as women stated they received feedback that strengthened their professional growth almost identical to respondents who self-identified as men (73%). The literature indicates that women are not as likely as men to receive developmental feedback to guide growth (Doldor et al., 2019). In fact, Bear et al. (2017) found that women are more likely to get feedback that is patronizing and does not challenge or provide structure. This did not hold true with these respondents. In this study, 64% ($n = 99$) of respondents who self-identified as female indicated the person providing their performance feedback was not of the same gender; however, 73% ($n = 72$) of those respondents strongly or somewhat agree that the feedback provided by leadership on performance strengthens their professional growth.

My own personal experience with professional growth and encouragement comes from a period of time when the leadership development was unisex in the sense that believing all men and women needed the same type and style of leadership development. This leadership development also focused on the same traits for both women and men. As I began to think about transitions in leadership and professional development, I realized that during my time as a Student Affairs administrator, we did participate in rising non-gendered leader programs like the NASPA Mid-Manager's Institute; however, we also started to participate in more focused development. We supported women who wanted to attend institutes and conferences such as the Women in Student Affairs and the H.E.R.S. Institute. While these things were not offered to me as a growing professional, the evolution of the industry and the need to develop strong women

leaders has presented more opportunities for women than previously seen. It is possible that these, along with general leadership programs embracing feminine traits is making a difference in how supervisors view development.

Additionally, the movement from traditional personality and leadership surveys such as Myers-Briggs and DISC to more strengths focused approaches to leadership with assessment tools like Strengths Quest may have promoted more in-house or informal professional development from a strengths (male and female traits) perspective. These findings could also be indicative of age. While Strengths Quest was used by my administration, we did not capitalize on the information as I see others doing today. As part of my career preparedness courses, students all complete Strengths Quest and we talk, in-depth, about finding positions that use your strengths and promote development for areas you feel you need to strengthen. I wondered if these assessments are being used in higher education in a way that promotes this type of development and teambuilding more so than when I was in these roles. Not asking for respondent's age prohibited me from being able to look at the findings through a generational lens. This continues to be a limitation of the study and one thing that I would change moving forward as the data may have been able to better explain the differences in the what was found in literature and my own experiences.

Peer Interaction

The second construct looked at how respondents perceive their interactions with peer groups. To better understand these perceptions, respondents were asked to indicate how strongly they agreed with a set of statements directly related to peer interaction (construct 2). These findings showed there was not a statistically significant difference between respondents

identifying as women and those identifying as men (p = 0.709) in how they interact with peers.

Interaction between respondents who identify as men and their peers did not surprise me as it

aligns with my experience and with the literature regarding dominate groups (Schmidt Mast,

2004; Schoen et al., 2018; Courtois & Herman, 2015). My expected findings regarding

interaction between respondents who identify as women and their peers did not align with the

findings. I expected more women to experience the Queen Bee Syndrome, where women tend to

find little comradery amongst other women within the leadership ranks (Allen, 2018). This did

not appear to be the case with the respondents who identify as women. When asked if

respondents are willing to let their guard down around peers, even when feeling they should

protect themselves, 70% (*n* = 109) of respondents who self-identify as women agreed which was

not much different than the 74% (*n* = 56) of respondents who self-identify as men. This too did

not align with my own experiences as many times it was felt there was a need to be stoic and to

keep a persona that was not emotional or unguarded in front of peers.

One component discussed in the literature that is key to job satisfaction and happiness in

the workplace is mentoring (Lundsford et al., 2018). Queen Bee Syndrome often makes it

difficult for leaders identifying as women to find mentors among leadership roles (Lundsford et

al., 2018). However, the study demonstrates that respondents self-identifying as women (65%)

felt equally confident as respondents self-identifying as men (67%) in finding a mentor that share

their gender identity. Likewise, respondents self-identifying as women and respondents self-

identifying as men agreed equally (84%) to having a feeling of belonging among peers. Again,

these findings were surprising to me.

In reflection of my professional career, my inability to find mentors among peers that identified as women was more centralized to a four-year institution. Two close mentors of mine in the community college setting were both strong, female leaders at the institution: one a dean and the other a professor. When I re-evaluated my experience and my thoughts about Queen Bee Syndrome, the findings did directly align with my experience in a two-year setting. During my original experience in a two-year setting, women stepped up voluntarily to provide formal and informal mentoring. In my current position, I find many opportunities to network with colleagues who are women in which we support one another's development in the field.

Supervisee Interaction

I was also curious to discover how respondents felt about support from followers. In the survey respondents were also asked how strongly they agree with statements regarding a variety of experiences with those they directly supervise (construct 3). These findings demonstrated no statistically significant difference between respondents who self-identified as women and those who self-identified as men ($p = 0.071$). Reflecting on the responses pertaining to how closely related specific traits are to leadership, and a study identifying what followers want in leaders (Eyre, 2011), the respondent's age may have, again, been useful in understanding the findings. For instance, when looking at generational differences as with the leadership traits, did experience with supervisors during development as a leader influence how respondents have chosen to lead? Likewise, has the availability of more focused leadership development and strengths-based approaches given leaders the confidence to display more feminine traits associated with leadership that followers indicate they need?

Gender Influence on Leadership Style

When I embarked on this study, I had a strong desire to really understand if there was a difference in how leaders who identify as women and those who identify as men see their gender influencing how they lead. This was where I felt strongly that while there may be changes taking place, do women feel they are still being expected to assimilate because of their gender. The final research question asked respondents how they perceive their self-identified gender influencing how they lead. A fourth set of questions (construct 4) was designed to answer this question. Overall, the findings demonstrated there was a statistically significant difference between respondents who self-identified as women and those who self-identified as men (p = 0.001). This aligned with my experience and my expectations. This finding was validating but did leave me less excited for change than I had been with the first three constructs. I was definitely enthusiastic to see the changes that must be happening with interactions on campus that allow leaders to demonstrate specific leadership traits. However, I anticipated that this alone would not override the fact that gender does influence how leaders, who identify as women, approach leadership.

Of interest, when asked whether gender identity impacts the respondent's ability to show vulnerability on campus, 51% (n = 77) of those self-identifying as women indicated they agree compared to 36% (n = 27) of those self-identifying as men. When asked whether respondents change the way they lead to meet supervisor expectations, 25% (n = 38) of respondents who self-identify as women agreed compared to 14% (n = 10) of those who self-identify as men. This aligns closely with my own experience in the board room. Assimilation was part of my daily efforts and was a major reason for not applying for the full-time Vice President position. The

changes we were making within Student Affairs were extremely positive; however, I felt a constant struggle to be heard or valued at a university level unless I could garner support from my male colleagues. Then, the ideas and recommendations would be taken seriously. I would have never been comfortable being vulnerable in front of other leaders on campus, male or female. Brown (2012) discusses potential reasons for the perceived inability to be vulnerable, most striking to me being the social definition of the trait being linked to weakness. This echoes my own feelings.

Also in this construct, respondents were asked about whether they have experienced an identifiable wage gap between those who identify as women and those who identify as men to which 44% ($n = 66$) of respondents self-identifying as women agreed compared to only 10% ($n = 7$) of those self-identifying as men. I have strong feelings and experiences about this question that align closely to the findings. As an Assistant Vice President for Student Affairs, I was informed that I would have to do research and write my own proposal requesting equal pay as the other Assistant Vice President who identified as male. Likewise, when serving as the Interim Vice President, my original offer was more than $50K less than the prior sitting Vice President. Other positions that I have had have been equally frustrating when negotiating salary. In public institutions where salaries are public information, it is not only a goal to be paid for the work being done, but also equally important to demonstrate to future women coming into these roles, that the positions and the pay are equal, regardless of gender. In addition to fighting for equal pay, the literature also informs us that when women feel they need to negotiate or negotiations for a position are anticipate, they are less likely to even apply (Libbrandt & List, 2015). I have

seen this play out when attempting to promote or hire women who would rather not have to negotiate a salary or other perks involved in the hiring process.

Implications for Further Research

This study was designed to better understand how gender impacts the way leaders view leadership traits, that are typically gendered, and how a leader's gender identity impacts the way they lead. While some findings in the study closely align with prior research and literature, others did not. This pushed against my own thinking and forced me to evolve in how I think about gender and leadership in two-year, public institutions. These findings also provoked thought as to why the findings are different than my own experience and expectations. Why has changed between my generation and the current generation that may provide insight into some of the changes. During this process, I have found there are aspects of the study that, I believe, are highly relevant and have strong implications for further research.

Generational Difference

Without knowing the age of the respondents, it was virtually impossible to determine if using a generational lens would provide focus on whether things are evolving over time. Does the fact that both women and men may have experienced more mid-level supervisors who identified as women impact how one generation feels about leadership versus others? If performing this study again, age ranges would be an addition that I would add to the demographics. It would not only help to provide insight into possible differences between the findings and my experience and expectations. This would also provide information to determine whether my experiences were unique or if those of women of the same generation are similar. I

believe understanding whether the experiences align with age would help us to understand what has influenced those changes.

Racial Differences

I did not set out to evaluate how race impacted perception in this study, and race was not directly evaluated in the questions. However, the data indicate there are differences when race is used as a factor. There was statistical significance found between White respondents and Latina/Latino/Latinx/Latine ($p > = 0.031$, 95% C.I. = (-0.6330, -0.0239)) in regard to construct 1 (interactions with supervisors). While I did not perform a review of the literature for race, it is an area that should be explored further. For example, how much do stereotypes play into the way in which Latina/Latino/Latinx/Latine populations are viewed by their supervisors? How do those stereotypes impact the way Latina/Latino/Latinx/Latine populations respond to their supervisors? The notion that Latina/Latino/Latinx/Latine populations are "lazy" because of cultural differences may be a factor in how supervisor expectations are   Findings demonstrated that those who identified as Black/African American men associated leadership traits more closely to respondents who identified as White women than to White men. Table 14 shows leadership traits by race and gender. The difference may be due to many factors including that, stereotypically, Black men are viewed as more aggressive (Ferber, 2007). Therefore, they feel they must assume less aggressive (female) leadership traits. Either providing open-ended questions or performing a qualitative study designed to focus on leadership trait assimilation among races may help to identify challenges specifically faced by leaders of color.

Table 14

Traits closely associated with leadership.

	Black/African American Female	Black/African American Male	White Female	White Male
Competition	74%	53%	70%	75%
Compassion	89%	100%	91%	100%
Forceful	56%	35%	39%	38%
Collaboration	100%	100%	100%	100%
Assertive	96%	88%	96%	94%
Approachable	100%	100%	98%	100%
Sensitivity	89%	94%	78%	87%
Influential	100%	100%	98%	98%
Empathetic	100%	100%	93%	98%
Problem Solving	100%	100%	100%	100%
Vulnerable	67%	47%	52%	36%
Confidence	100%	94%	99%	100%
Creativity	100%	88%	95%	98%
Nurturing	85%	63%	77%	85%

Qualitative Research

Performing a quantitative study using a cross-sectional survey has provided information that is extremely valuable in understanding the perception between gender identification and how individuals approach leadership. The data also raises questions that cannot be answered with the current survey. As the survey was launched, a small number of respondents sent emails attempting to provide explanation or rationale. While this information was not utilized in this research study, it does make me think that there may be experiences that require additional information. Along those lines, a qualitative study would provide opportunity to explore areas that have raised questions such as the perceived influence of mid-level managers on leadership styles. Open-ended questions added to the current survey may provide some ability to expand on

areas in questions. Some way of collecting data that allows for the tracking of change over time would also help understand whether there are generational differences.

Implications for Practice and Recommendations

This research study provided an opportunity for me to reflect on my own experiences and changed my assumption of the experiences of other women in higher education. While the findings of this study were not entirely what I anticipated, and do not align with all of my personal experiences, leaders identifying as women still face many challenges and obstacles not necessarily faced by those identifying as men. There are ways in which today's leaders of higher education can help to further develop leaders, both men and women, that will have lasting impacts on both staff/faculty and our students.

Thinking about development of this and future generations of leaders, it is imperative that we understand what followers look for in leadership style and why. For example, evaluating the needs of followers within the industry rather than relying on general averages of the entire population and build professional development around these findings (Eyre, 2011; Winsborough et al., 2009). In addition, we need to understand that areas of development may look different for men and women and that one-size-fits-all is not always the answer. The data provide a significant indication that leaders identifying as men feel strongly that traits traditionally thought of as feminine are important aspects of leadership. However, these traits either may not come naturally to them, or societal pressures and norms have not nurtured these traits in men. Offering opportunities for leaders to explore how their personal experiences, both professionally and personally, impact their leadership style can lay the groundwork for further development of these

traits. The same would be true for women who find it difficult to display more masculine traits that followers find valuable.

Providing environments that embrace the leadership traits followers identify as important must be embedded in the culture of the institution. The data also tell us that leaders identifying as women are finding support and encouragement from their supervisors, even when the supervisor does not identify as the same gender. Both my experience and findings in literature indicate this was not always the case, and it is extremely important to note. Institutions should develop environments that not only encourages leadership that addresses the needs of followers, but expects that leadership understands the value of performance evaluations and in-house mentoring, both formal and informal. Again, my own experience and that found in literature is that women tend to receive feedback that is belittling, discouraging, and offers little to no development value. My own experience is such that leaders identifying as men have provided feedback such as "your team is too loyal to you, and they tell me nothing" and in the same feedback state "you are doing a great job building a cohesive team." These mixed messages can make it difficult for women who want further development opportunities and to understand where growth should be focused. In my own conversation with faculty who teach human resource development, performance evaluations and how they are handled always seems to be a tricky subject. One faculty member indicated that he teaches performance evaluation using analogies like Valentine's Day. If you only tell someone how you feel about them and your relationship only once a year, and you tell them all the great things followed by all the things they need to change, it becomes less meaningful and a dreaded day of the year. By having conversations that promote development all year long, he teaches his class that the once-a-year

conversation is a mere summary of the year and nothing is a surprise. This makes the performance evaluation less a negative experience and more of an opportunity to discuss development and growth. Good practice with performance evaluation that provides this type of feedback must be an expectation driven by the culture of the institution so that gender bias and the implications that brings are not prohibiting development and growth of the leaders and the organization (Heilman, 2012).

The findings of the study were encouraging as a leader and a woman in higher education. However, they do highlight some of the traditional barriers that still exist. Many of these barriers are rooted deeply in societal norms and expectations. Women are still living with traditional expectations such as marriage and childbearing. It is clearly document in studies such as the 2020 United Nations' annual report, The World for Women and Girls, that women are still performing most of the unpaid work in the home. This report also indicates that women are still the primary caregiver for sick children and are more likely to leave or miss work to care for children or other duties outside the home. These expectations cause individuals identifying as women, who typically demonstrate many desirable leadership traits, to opt out of leadership roles (Free Network, 2021). While respondents in this study did not feel taking time away from work was viewed as negative, allowing for more flexible work hours and more flexible work conditions (such as location) is one way that organizations can help with these situations. For example, after picking up a sick child from school, most often, my experience is that this child may sleep or lie down for rest and recovery. Having the opportunity to log-in to my work from home and attend meetings virtually may allow for continued care of the child while also attending some meetings or working as time permits. COVID-19 has proven that certain aspects

of work can be effectively performed remotely, and the workplace is continuing to be reshaped by what we have learned (Parker et al., 2022). However, it is equally important to allow for and encourage those employees who identify as men to assume responsibility for this unpaid work. Encouraging leaders who identify as men to model behavior that changes expectations and culture both inside and outside of the workplace may allow for a more equal representation when it comes to these responsibilities.

Limitations

This study was designed to collect data using a closed question survey. During the distribution and completion period of the survey, emails were received with information indicating that respondents would like the opportunity to further explain specific questions or to add information that may be useful in evaluating and analyzing the data. Adding open-ended questions or providing space for individuals to expand on information provided either after each question or at the end of the survey may have proven valuable in collecting additional rationale. It may also provoke a more in-depth understanding of the impact of mid-managers on the development of future leaders, a qualitative study may be most beneficial. This may provide a format by which leaders can expand upon responses and provide invaluable information in how higher education develops future leaders.

After consideration of the findings around leadership traits, one limitation of the study was not asking respondents' age ranges. Knowing the age of the respondents may explain a transition from my experience to what I saw in the findings. One thought is that when I experienced leadership development, an extremely small portion was focused on women in leadership, but a one-size-fits-all approach to leadership. Additionally, the data raised a few

questions about the respondents who identify as male. First, what positions did hold in higher education and who were their supervisors? If those mid-level supervisors identified as women, were the men actually assimilating to the feminine traits? Are these leaders the product of being reared by women who were part of the workforce and/or the feminine movement? If so, did that impact their view on strong leadership traits? So many questions came to mind as I started to consider the reasons behind these responses. As women in my generation began to acquire more leadership roles, did they begin to look for leaders who provided a more traditionally feminine approach with qualities that followers indicate are essential? Without age range and without the ability to expand on responses, this information was not able to be collected and analyzed.

Summary and Conclusion

The outcomes of this study have shifted my thinking about current leaders' experiences in higher education. While initially disappointed that my own experience was not coming through in the findings, reflection and further understanding of the findings changed my thinking about current experiences and views of my own leadership development and style. Knowing what I know from this study, I would change some aspects of the survey including the addition of open-ended questions to allow respondents to expand where they feel additional information would be valuable. Additionally, I would ask respondents to identify their age range as this may have helped me to validate and understand my own experiences through a generational lens.

The study was extremely valuable in the implications for how two-year, public institutions of higher education can further develop authentic leaders who feel they are supported and valued in their organization. In addition, this can be an example to the rest of higher education as to how to progress from a traditional hierarchy and masculine approach to

leadership to a more inclusive approach valued by leaders and followers. Additional research and further exploration of the needs of followers should be used in combination with these findings to continue the progression of what appears to be, generational acceptance and encouragement of authentic leadership in two-year, public institutions of higher education.

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Appendix A: IRB Approval

Institutional Review Board
720 Fourth Avenue South, AS 101, St. Cloud, MN 56301-4498

September 9, 2022

To: Kimberley Turner-Rush
Email: kjturnerrush@go.stcloudstate.edu

Faculty Mentor: Jennifer Jones
Email: jbjones@stcloudstate.edu

Project Title: Gendered Leadership in Two-Year Public Institutions of Higher Education

The Institutional Review Board has reviewed your protocol to conduct research involving human subjects.

Your project has been: Approved
Expiration Date: N/A
Approval Type: Exempt
SCSU IRB#:   40687338

Please read through the following important information concerning IRB projects:

ALL PROJECTS:

- The principal investigator assumes the responsibilities for the protection of participants in this project. Any
- adverse events must be reported to the IRB as soon as possible (ex. research related injuries, harmful outcomes,
  significant withdrawal of subject population, etc.).
- The principal investigator must seek approval for any changes to the study (ex. research design, consent process,
  survey/interview instruments, funding source, etc.). The IRB reserves the right to review the research at any time

EXEMPT PROJECTS:

- Exempt review only requires the submission of a Continuing Review/Final Report form in advance of the expiration date indicated in this letter if an extension of time is needed.

EXPEDITED AND FULL BOARD REVIEW PROJECTS:

- The principal investigator must submit a Continuing Review/Final Report form in advance of the expiration date indicated on this letter to report conclusion of the research or request an extension.
- Approved consent forms display the official IRB stamp which documents approval and expiration dates. If a renewal is requested and approved, new consent forms will be officially stamped and reflect the new approval and expiration dates.

If we can be of further assistance, feel free to contact the IRB at 320-308-4932 or email
ResearchNow@stcloudstate.edu and please reference the SCSU IRB number when corresponding.

Sincerely,
IRB Chair: **IRB Institutional Official:**
William Collis-Prather   Dr. Claudia Tomany

Program Director   Associate Provost for Research
Applied Clinical Research   Dean of Graduate Studies

Appendix B: Introduction Email

Subject: Dissertation Survey: Gender and Leadership in Higher Education

My name is Kimberley Turner-Rush, and I am a doctoral student in Higher Education Administration at St. Cloud State University. I would like to invite you to participate in a study that examines whether leaders in higher education feel they must take on traditional masculine traits of leadership to attain leadership roles within two-year, public institutions. You were selected as a possible participant because you are identified as holding a title on your campus that signifies a leadership position on your campus. This research project is being conducted by Kimberley Turner-Rush, for a dissertation to add a critical component to the current research on gender and leadership in higher education.

The purpose of this study is to improve our understanding of the perception that leaders on campus may hold as it pertains to leadership traits required for advancement at two-year, public institutions. If you decide to participate, you will simply complete the survey that will be emailed to you within one week. Completion of the survey will take approximately 10 to 12 minutes of your time. There are no foreseeable risks associated with participation in this study. The questions on this survey were developed by reviewing the research on available and identifying the factors that have been found to be important.

We realized that the limited numbers of leaders on campus may lead some of the information obtained to be fairly specific to an individual. Because of this, the data will only be examined in group format. Your information will be confidential and no answers that could identify a specific individual will be used. You may choose to be included in a random survey of

participants to receive a $100 Amazon gift card. The collection of this information will be

separate from your survey responses.

     If you have any additional questions please contact the researcher, at k

kjturnerrush@stcloudstate.edu. Participation/Withdrawal Participation is voluntary. Your

decision whether or not to participate will not affect your current or future relations with St.

Cloud State University or the researcher. If there are any questions you are not comfortable

answering, you do not need to answer them. We ask you to please remember this information is

confidential and designed to help us better understand leadership traits among college

administrators. If you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw at any time without penalty.

Your completion of the survey indicates that you are at least 18 years of age and you consent to

participation in the survey.

Appendix C: Invitation Email

Subject: Gender and Leadership in Higher Education Survey Link

My name is Kimberley Turner-Rush, and I am a doctoral student in Higher Education Administration at St. Cloud State University. About a week ago, you received an introductory email inviting you to participate in a study to examine whether leaders in higher education feel they must take on traditional masculine traits of leadership to attain leadership roles within two-year, public institutions. You can find the survey at: <u>Gender and Leadership In Higher Education</u>, upon completion of the survey, you will be asked whether you wish to participate in the drawing for a $100 Amazon gift card. A link provided will take you to another form in order to maintain confidentiality in the survey.

As a reminder, your participation in this study is voluntary, and it is greatly appreciated. This research has been reviewed and approved by the Institutional Review Board at St. Cloud State University. For any questions regarding this survey please contact one of my Co-Chairs, Dr. Jennifer Jones at jbjones@stcloudstate.edu or Dr. Emeka Ikegwuonu at emeka.ikegwuonu@stcloudstate.edu.

As a reminder:

- Your participation is voluntary.

- Your identification and response will be kept confidential.

- You can elect to withdraw at any time.

- Raw data collected will be secured for up to one year, after which time it will be destroyed.

- Minimal risk is involved.

If you require additional information about the survey or have questions, please email me at

kjturnerrush@go.stcloudstate.edu.

Appendix D: Reminder One Email

Subject: REMINDER Gender and Leadership in Higher Education Survey Link

My name is Kimberley Turner-Rush, and I am a doctoral student in Higher Education Administration at St. Cloud State University. About a week ago, you received an email inviting you to participate in a study to examine whether leaders in higher education feel they must take on traditional masculine traits of leadership to attain leadership roles within two-year, public institutions. *It is important to the study to hear from as many leaders as possible. Please consider completing the survey today.*

As a reminder, you can find the survey at: <u>Gender and Leadership In Higher Education</u>, upon completion of the survey, you will be asked whether you wish to participate in the drawing for a $100 Amazon gift card. A link provided will take you to another form in order to maintain confidentiality in the survey.

If you require additional information about the survey or have questions, please email me at kjturnerrush@go.stcloudstate.edu.

Appendix E: Final Reminder Email

Subject: REMINDER Gender and Leadership in Higher Education Survey Link

My name is Kimberley Turner-Rush, and I am a doctoral student in Higher Education Administration at St. Cloud State University. About a week ago, you received an email inviting you to participate in a study to examine whether leaders in higher education feel they must take on traditional masculine traits of leadership to attain leadership roles within two-year, public institutions. *Your voice is important to the profession and to this research project. The survey will be closing soon, so don't wait.*

As a reminder, you can find the survey at: <u>Gender and Leadership In Higher Education</u>, upon completion of the survey, you will be asked whether you wish to participate in the drawing for a $100 Amazon gift card. A link provided will take you to another form in order to maintain confidentiality in the survey.

If you require additional information about the survey or have questions, please email me at kjturnerrush@go.stcloudstate.edu.

Appendix F: Survey Instrument

Start of Block: Demographic information

DEM1 Which of the following best describes your gender identification?

○ Female (1)

○ Male (2)

○ Transgender Female (5)

○ Transgender Male (9)

○ Gender Non-Binary (3)

○ Gender Queer/Fluid (10)

○ Other (Please provide) (8) _____

○ Prefer not to say (11)

DEM2 Which of the following best describes your race?

○ Asian (4)

○ Black or African American (5)

○ Native American or Alaskan Native (1)

○ Latina/Latino/Latinx/Latine (7)

○ Mixed Race (two or more) (8)

○ Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander (6)

○ White (2)

○ Other (please specify) (9) _____

○ Prefer not to say (10)

DEM3 Which of the following best describes your current status?

○ Single, never been married (1)

○ Divorced (4)

○ Married (2)

○ Other (please provide) (5) _____

DEM4 Which of the following best describes your current situation?

☐   Preschool-Aged Children at Home (1)

☐   Elementary School-Aged Children at Home (4)

☐   Middle School-Aged Children at Home (2)

☐   High School-Aged Children at Home (3)

☐   Children are in College (5)

☐   Children are no longer living at home (6)

☐   No Children (7)

☐   Other (please specify) (8)

_____

End of Block: Demographic information

Start of Block: Institution Information

INST1 Which of the following best describes your type of institution?

○ Urban or Metropolitan Campus (1)

○ Rural Campus (3)

○ Suburban Campus (4)

○ Fully Online Campus (5)

INST2 Which of the following most closely identifies the size of your student population?

○ Very Small (less than 500 students) (1)

○ Small (500 to 1,999 students) (2)

○ Medium (2000 to 4,999 students) (3)

○ Large (5,000 to 9,999 students) (4)

○ Very Large (10,000 or more students) (5)

INST3 Which of the following most closely identifies the region where your institution is located?

○ Northeast (PA, NY, VT, NH, MA, CT, NJ, RI, ME) (1)

○ Midwest (ND, SD, MN, NE, KS, IA, MO, WI, IL, MI, IN, OH) (2)

○ South (KY, WV, DC, VA, DE, MD, TN, NC, SC, GA, AL, FL, MS, AR, LA, OK, TX) (3)

○ West (WA, OR, MT, ID, WY, CA, NV, UT, CO, AZ, NM, HI, AK) (4)

INST4 Which of the following most closely reflects your current title?

○ Assistant or Associate Provost (2)

○ Assistant or Associate Vice President or Chancellor (3)

○ Chief of Staff or Senior Advisor to the President/Chancellor (11)

○ Vice President or Vice Chancellor for Student Affairs (4)

○ Vice President or Vice Chancellor for Academic Affairs / Provost / Chief Academic

Officer (5)

○ Vice President for Advancement (8)

○ Vice President for Finance and Administration (9)

○ President or Chancellor (12)

○ Other (please provide) (10) _____

End of Block: Institution Information

Start of Block: Organizational Structure

Org Structure Indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements based on your overall experience in higher education.

	Strongly Agree (1)	Somewhat Agree (2)	Somewhat Disagree (3)	Strongly Disagree (4)
Higher education institutions are led with a hierarchical structure. (1)	○	○	○	○
Taking time away from work is viewed as negative. (12)	○	○	○	○
More than half of the leadership at my institution identifies as male. (2)	○	○	○	○

During my career in higher education, the majority of my supervisors have been male. (5)	○	○	○	○
It is often uncomfortable to express my opinions to leaders. (7)	○	○	○	○
I feel secure in my role when requesting time away from work. (10)	○	○	○	○
I am paid the same wage as colleagues with the same title. (17)	○	○	○	○

| My work and ideas are valued by leadership. (19) | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
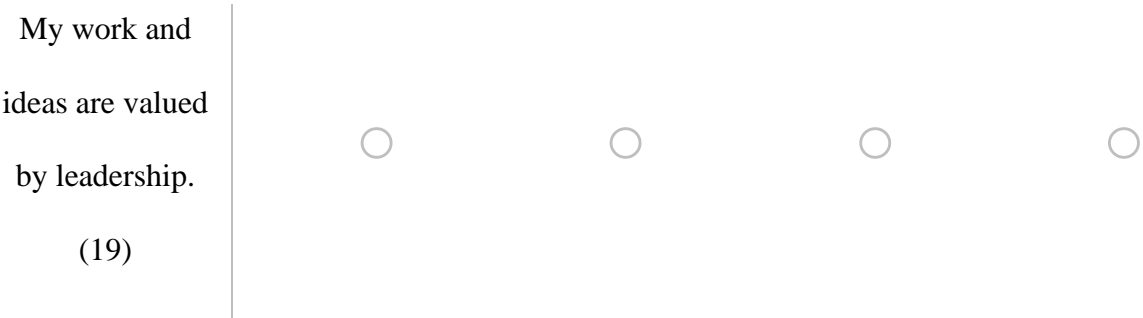
End of Block: Organizational Structure

Start of Block: Job Satisfaction

Job Satisfaction Please indicate how strongly you agree with the following statements.

	Strongly Agree (1)	Somewhat Agree (2)	Somewhat Disagree (3)	Strongly Disagree (4)
Leaders provide feedback on performance that strengthens my professional growth. (1)	○	○	○	○
I am encouraged to lead with my strengths. (2)	○	○	○	○
I receive encouraging feedback on performance evaluations. (3)	○	○	○	○

During performance evaluations, leaders are hesitant to give constructive feedback. (4)	○	○	○	○
The person providing my performance feedback identifies as the same gender as me. (5)	○	○	○	○
I often find myself imitating the leadership style of those supervising me. (6)	○	○	○	○

I receive encouragement and affirmation from those above me. (8)

○   ○   ○   ○

End of Block: Job Satisfaction

Start of Block: Leadership

Lead1 Indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements.

	Strongly Agree (1)	Somewhat Agree (2)	Somewhat Disagree (3)	Strongly Disagree (4)
I am aware of my strengths and weaknesses. (1)	○	○	○	○
I actively seek honest feedback. (3)	○	○	○	○
I am comfortable expressing my feelings. (4)	○	○	○	○
I work hard at understanding myself. (6)	○	○	○	○
I am confident expressing my opinions. (7)	○	○	○	○

I am aware of other people's opinions of me. (8)	○	○	○	○
I consider myself to be resilient. (9)	○	○	○	○
Most of my colleagues do not share my gender identity. (17)	○	○	○	○

I am willing to let my guard down with others, even when I feel I should protect myself. (12)	○	○	○	○
I can openly share my feelings with others. (13)	○	○	○	○
I let others know who I am as a person. (14)	○	○	○	○
I admit my mistakes to others. (15)	○	○	○	○

I have easily found mentors that share my gender identity. (16)

○　　　　○　　　　○　　　　○

I have a feeling of belonging among my peers. (18)

○　　　　○　　　　○　　　　○

Lead2 Indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements.

	Strongly Agree (1)	Somewhat Agree (2)	Somewhat Disagree (4)	Strongly Disagree (5)
Being vulnerable means being viewed as weak. (1)	○	○	○	○
I embrace uncertainties and failures. (2)	○	○	○	○
Vulnerability and trust are strongly connected. (3)	○	○	○	○
I feel safe being vulnerable in front of my colleagues. (4)	○	○	○	○
I avoid admitting mistakes to my peers. (5)	○	○	○	○

Lead3 Indicate how strongly you feel the following traits are associated with leadership.

	Strongly Agree (1)	Somewhat Agree (2)	Somewhat Disagree (5)	Strongly Disagree (6)
Competitive (1)	○	○	○	○
Compassionate (2)	○	○	○	○
Forceful (3)	○	○	○	○
Assertive (4)	○	○	○	○
Approachable (5)	○	○	○	○
Influential (6)	○	○	○	○
Empathetic (7)	○	○	○	○
Advising (8)	○	○	○	○

Problem Solving (9)	○	○	○	○
Vulnerable (10)	○	○	○	○

End of Block: Leadership

Start of Block: Higher Education and Leadership

Q10 Indicate your level of agreement with the following statements as they relate to your experience in your leadership role in higher education.

	Strongly Agree (1)	Somewhat Agree (2)	Somewhat Disagree (3)	Strongly Disagree (4)
I am able to be myself in my leadership role. (13)	○	○	○	○
I feel supported in my leadership position by my peers. (5)	○	○	○	○
I feel I am supported by my supervisor. (7)	○	○	○	○
Leaders who identify as women on campus speak out for change. (9)	○	○	○	○

The leaders on my campus are comfortable showing vulnerability. (10)	○	○	○	○
I feel I am accepted by my peers on campus. (11)	○	○	○	○
I change the way I lead dependent on supervisor expectations. (14)	○	○	○	○

Q16 How strongly do you agree or disagree with the following statements regarding your

personal path to leadership in higher education?

	Strongly Agree (1)	Somewhat Agree (2)	Somewhat Disagree (3)	Strongly Disagree (4)
I experienced an equitable tenure/promotion process for faculty and staff. (1)	○	○	○	○
My experience included an identifiable wage gap between employees identifying as women and those identifying as men. (2)	○	○	○	○

In my path to leadership, the majority of employees on my campus(es) identified as women. (3)	○	○	○	○
There was a sense of belonging on my campus(es) among those with the same gender identification. (4)	○	○	○	○

End of Block: Higher Education and Leadership

Appendix F: Instrument to College Information for Gift Card Drawing

To be included in the drawing for a $100 Amazon gift card, please provide:

Your First and Last Name

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```

Email Address (this is where the gift card will be sent)

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```

Telephone (option - only if there is a problem with the email address will this be used)

```
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```