
Theses and Dissertations

2023

Women of color in higher education institutions: strategies to attain administrative leadership positions

Oghenemano O. Evero
ooevero@yahoo.com

Follow this and additional works at: <https://digitalcommons.pepperdine.edu/etd>



Part of the [Higher Education Administration Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Evero, Oghenemano O., "Women of color in higher education institutions: strategies to attain administrative leadership positions" (2023). *Theses and Dissertations*. 1339.
<https://digitalcommons.pepperdine.edu/etd/1339>

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by Pepperdine Digital Commons. It has been accepted for inclusion in Theses and Dissertations by an authorized administrator of Pepperdine Digital Commons. For more information, please contact bailey.berry@pepperdine.edu.

Pepperdine University
Graduate School of Education and Psychology

WOMEN OF COLOR IN HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS: STRATEGIES TO
ATTAIN ADMINISTRATIVE LEADERSHIP POSITIONS

A dissertation submitted in satisfaction
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership

by

Oghenemano O. Evero

July, 2023

Laura Hyatt, Ed.D. – Dissertation Chairperson

This dissertation, written by

Oghenemano O. Evero

under the guidance of a Faculty Committee and approved by its members, has been submitted to and accepted by the Graduate Faculty in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

Doctoral Committee:

Laura Hyatt, Ed.D., Chairperson

Gwendolyn Mathews, Ph.D., Committee

Latrissa Neiworth, Ed.D., Committee

© Copyright by Oghenemano O. Evero (2023)

All Rights Reserved

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
LIST OF TABLES	vi
LIST OF FIGURES	vii
DEDICATION	viii
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	ix
VITA	x
ABSTRACT.....	xii
Chapter 1: Women of Color in Leadership.....	1
Chapter Structure and Organization of Study	3
Theoretical Framework	3
Design of Study.....	4
Background and Statement of the Problem	5
Purpose of Study	9
Research Questions	10
Significance of Study	10
Assumptions of Study	11
Limitations of Study	11
Terminology.....	12
Chapter Summary	14
Chapter 2: Literature Review	17
LMX Theory	18
Women and Women of Color in HEI Leadership Positions.....	31
Barriers Impacting Advancement	34
Strategies to Overcome Barriers	41
Chapter Summary	49
Chapter 3: Methodology	52
Chapter Structure	52
Purpose Statement & Research Questions.....	52
Qualitative Research and Narrative Inquiry	53
Data Source	54
Data Collection	57
Data Analysis and Display.....	60
Ethical Considerations	61

Research Quality Assurance	62
Chapter Summary	66
Chapter 4: Results and Data Analysis.....	67
Chapter Structure	67
Research & Interview Questions	67
Participant Selection Process	68
Overview of Study Participants	69
Data Collection	70
Data Analysis	71
Establishing Research Quality Assurance	73
Research Results	78
Research Question 1 and Corresponding Data	79
Research Question 2 and Corresponding Data	81
Research Question 3 and Corresponding Data	83
Follow-up Question and Corresponding Data	85
Chapter Summary	86
Chapter 5: Discussion and Conclusion	88
Chapter Structure	88
Overview of the Study	89
Review of Theoretical Framework and Current Literature.....	90
Review of Methodology	92
Review of Participants Selection, Data Collection, and Analysis	93
Review of Research Quality Assurance.....	94
Review of Human Subject Protection.....	94
Overview of Results.....	95
Discussion of Results.....	97
Implications of Results	102
Recommendations for Future Research	104
Chapter Summary	105
REFERENCES	106
APPENDIX A: CITI Program Completion Certification	119
APPENDIX B: Notice of Approval for Human Research.....	120
APPENDIX C: Recruitment Invitation.....	121
APPENDIX D: Informed Consent Form	122
APPENDIX E: Interview Instrument.....	126

LIST OF TABLES

	Page
Table 1: Research Questions and Corresponding Interview Questions.....	63
Table 2: Participant Information.....	70
Table 3: Research Themes, Question, and Codes.....	73
Table 4: Intercoder Comparison Sheet for Researcher Question 1.....	76
Table 5: Intercoder Reliability	78
Table 6: LMX Strategies Demonstrated by Leaders.....	98

LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
Figure 1: Number of Initial Themes for Each Research Question.....	79
Figure 2: Summary of Themes for Research Question 1.....	81
Figure 3: Summary of Themes for Research Question 2.....	83
Figure 4: Summary of Themes for Research Question 3.....	85

DEDICATION

I dedicate this to my mother, Mary Odiri Evero and my late grandparents, John-Mark Odioko Ogba and Lydia Onome Ogba. My grandfather had a saying in my native dialect that translates as: others are building houses out of bricks and stones, he was building houses out of people. One of the ways he built houses made of people was by investing in education. At an early age, my grandparents and my mother emphasized the value of education and worked hard to give me the best opportunities. Your sacrifice was not in vain and this accomplishment is as much yours as it is mine.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I want to thank my lord and savior Jesus Christ who graced me with the wisdom and strength to make it thus far in my education and career. I also want to thank my parents, Dr. Dennis Evero and Mrs. Mary Evero, the Evero family, the Ogba family, and my friends who have supported me through my educational journey. Thank you for your encouragement and prayers.

I would like to thank Dr. Laura Hyatt, my dissertation chair. Dr. Hyatt has been a great coach and advisor through this process. I would also like to thank the members of my dissertation committee, Dr. Latrissa Neiworth and Dr. Gwendolyn Mathews. Your expertise, thoughtful feedback, and contribution made this dissertation better for it. I would like to acknowledge the participants of my research study who volunteered their time to answer my questions. Your participation will contribute to furthering the study of leadership, especially for women of color in higher education institutions.

VITA

SUMMARY

Oghenemano “Mano” has almost a decade of administrative experience in several industries including Nursing Education and Graduate Medical Education. Currently, Mano is the Manager of Academic Affairs at Pomona Valley Hospital Medical Center, where she oversees the administrative operations of the Graduate Medical office and the Family Medicine Residency program. Before joining Pomona Valley Hospital Medical Center, Mano worked as a program assistant at West Coast University. Mano has given back to the community through nonprofit participation with religious organizations, health care organizations, and higher education.

Originally from Delta State, Nigeria, Mano was born and raised in Benin City, Nigeria. She relocated to the United States as a teenager in 2005. Mano obtained a Bachelor’s of Science degree in Biology from the University of California, Los Angeles and went on to attend the University of Southern California, Keck School of Medicine where she obtained her Master’s of Science in Global Medicine degree.

EDUCATION

Doctor of Education, Organizational Leadership Pepperdine University, Graduate School of Education and Psychology	Sept., 2019–2023 Los Angeles, CA
Master of Science, Global Medicine University of Southern California, Keck School of Medicine	Dec., 2014 Los Angeles, CA
Bachelor of Science, Biology University of California-Los Angeles	Dec., 2012 Los Angeles, CA

RELATED EXPERIENCE

Manager, Academic Affairs Pomona Valley Hospital Medical Center	Mar., 2021–Present Pomona, CA
Program Assistant, Nursing West Coast University	May, 2018–Mar., 2021 Ontario, CA

Administrative Assistant, Simulation Center
West Coast University

Feb., 2017–May, 2018
Ontario, CA

Proctor
West Coast University

May, 2016–Feb., 2017
Ontario, CA

Assistant Director, Departments
Cope Health Solutions
Volunteer Position

Dec., 2016–May, 2017
Glendale, CA

Department Coordinator, Critical Care Departments
Cope Health Solutions
Volunteer Position

Dec., 2015–Nov., 2016
Glendale, CA

ABSTRACT

Race and gender continue to be contributing factors to the disparity and lack of representation that exists among higher-education leaders. This study examines the lived experience of women of color to identify the strategies they utilized to attain administrative leadership roles at a Higher Education Institution (HEI). Participants included women of color leaders with at least 5 years of experience in higher education and in a leadership role. Participants also had advanced degrees. Using a narrative inquiry design, the study involved semi structured interviews to gather data from the sample population. The seven (7) women of color HEIs administrative leaders who participated in the study had more than 12 to 20 years in HEIs and held titles ranging from assistant director to vice president. The findings of the study revealed several leader-member exchange strategies and approaches leaders displayed that encouraged women of color to pursue and attain administrative leadership positions in a California HEI.

Keywords: diversity, leadership, higher education administration, women of color

Chapter 1: Women of Color in Leadership

The COVID-19 pandemic highlighted gaps in leadership (Tevis et al., 2021). It has also brought attention to gender and racial issues. As with other industries, higher education continues to be impacted by the lack of gender and racial representation, especially in senior leadership positions. Therefore, it is vital to understand the intersection of gender, race, and leadership in higher education administration in order to identify strategies needed to attain racial and gender equity.

In recent decades and across various countries, there has been a mass entrance of women into the workforce (Gupta, 1983; Kent, & Moss, 1994; Read & Kehm, 2016; Redmond et al., 2017). Also, it is expected that women of color will rise to more than 50% of the population (Catalyst, 2020). They will also become more educated than their male counterparts (Catalyst, 2020). This means women and women of color will play a large role and contribute more to the workforce and the economy. However, they are still underrepresented and are currently a minority in leadership roles compared with men (Catalyst, 2020; Gupta, 1983; Kent, & Moss, 1994; Read & Kehm, 2016; Redmond et al., 2017). They are still underrepresented in the senior ranks of corporate executives, even after breaking through the glass ceiling, women continue to face gender discrimination (Adams et al., 2009; Brady et al., 2011; Ryan et al., 2010). This could be because of structural barriers, including a lack of opportunities or lack of information about opportunities (Adams et al., 2009).

People of color have made progress in the social, political, and economic realms, which has resulted in the belief that racism no longer exists; however, that it is confined to be isolated incidents and is an indication that racism still exists but more subtly and invisibly (McCoy & Rodricks, 2015). Women are less likely to be considered as leaders, and even in sectors where

more women are in leadership positions, they still lag behind men in status, salary, and position. This is seen across various industries, businesses, politics, religious institutions, and academia where the disparity is more for Black, Hispanic, and Asian women. Among *Fortune* 500 companies, less than 3% of board directors are women from these groups (C. Hill et al., 2016). The same trend is seen at the staff level in S&P 500 companies. In addition, although women are outperforming men, women earn approximately 20% less than their male counterparts (Lennon et al., 2013). In the United States, although women of color represent 18% of the population, they make up approximately 3% of the C-suite and occupy 4.6% of board seats in *Fortune* 500 companies (Catalyst, 2020; Emrich et al., 2017).

More than ever, people of color make up a large proportion of the student population in postsecondary institutions (Espinosa et al., 2019). Although diversity in higher education has increased with advances in Black student enrollment, such diversity is not reflected at the faculty or administrative levels (Espinosa et al., 2019; Ward & Wolf-Wendel, 2016). Unlike the student population, representation is lacking among faculty and administrators in Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) and includes underrepresentation of faculty of color, including African Americans, American Indians, Asian or Asian Americans, and Latinas/os (Johnson, 2017; McCoy & Rodricks, 2015). Even decades after the equal employment opportunity legislation, people of color still occupy a relatively small portion of faculty positions within U.S. postsecondary education institutions (Gasman et al., 2015).

Some issues that influence female's advancement in higher education include bias, discrimination, and the concept of the glass ceiling (Redmond et al., 2017). In addition to gender barriers, race could also become a challenge for career advancement (Allen et al., 1995). Such issues of advancements to leadership positions are significantly worse for women of color in the

workplace (Bhatt, 2013; Johnson, 2017). In the higher education report, the Association for the Study of Higher Education suggested that inequality for women and minorities transcends simple boundaries and glass ceilings and is more evident at a higher level of power (Evans & Chun, 2007).

Chapter Structure and Organization of Study

To understand the factors contributing to the success of the few who have broken through the glass ceiling, Chapter 1 of this study provides a general overview of the shift in demography of students in HEIs, background, and provides context for the problem statement and purpose of the study. Discussed also are the purpose and significance of the study, the research questions that will guide the current research, an introduction to the theoretical framework that will be utilized, and the study design, both of which will be discussed in later chapters. In this chapter, the researcher also discusses the assumptions and limitations of study, abbreviations, and operational definitions used throughout the study.

Theoretical Framework

Various studies that examined women of color in higher education leadership have used critical race theory as a theoretical framework (Moffitt, 2017; Wright, 2019; Zell, 2017). To add to the body of knowledge, the researcher sought to examine this topic from a different lens by utilizing the leader-member exchange (LMX) theory as a theoretical framework. LMX theory is a common way to conceptualize the relationship between a leader or supervisor and subordinate (Collins et al., 2014). This leadership theory focuses on the relationships between a leader and a subordinate and encourages the use of diverse leadership styles to develop relationships with subordinates (Tse & Troth, 2013). Based on LMX theory, the strength of the relationship has predictive outcomes at the individual, group, and organizational levels (Gerstner & Day, 1997).

This approach to leadership differs from traditional leadership models that focus on traits and behaviors because development of a relationship between a leader and group member depends on (a) organizational structure, and (b) characteristics of both leader and individual members (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

In addition to LMX theory, the researcher utilized relational leadership as a supporting theory to support/enhance the main theoretical framework. The relational leadership model is a natural continuation of LMX, therefore, emphasizing several components that are based on the relationship between leader and work group member (Brower et al., 2000; Komives et al., 2013; Uhl-Bien, 2006). The complementary aspect of LMX and relational leadership highlights the impact the relationship between a leader and an employee can have on performance and opportunities for advancement. The combination of both leadership theories presents itself as a resource that can be utilized for growth, development, and advancement of women of color in HEIs.

Design of Study

The study aims to understand what strategies have enabled women of color pursue and attain administrative leadership positions. The research method for this study is qualitative and the design is narrative inquiry. Qualitative research is used to obtain information about people's experiences and their perceptions of the world around them (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). This research approach is preferred over quantitative and mixed-methods research because utilizing qualitative research will enable the researcher to understand participants' journeys in great detail by relying on interviewees' lived experiences.

Narrative research design is used to describe, collect, and tell stories of people's lives (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019). This form of qualitative research focuses on a small sample and

gathers data through collecting stories and reporting experiences. Narrative research is used when individuals are willing to tell their personal stories to offer specific and personal insight to an issue (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019; Creswell & Poth, 2018). Narrative research best captures life experiences of a single or small number of individuals (Creswell & Poth, 2018).

Narrative inquiry is context sensitive because information about experience, culture, and other historical context is embedded into the stories (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Analysis of narrative research involves retelling the stories of individuals interviewed to develop themes and interpreting patterns (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Narrative study is characterized by qualitative data collection that involves studying a small number of participants and documenting their stories in their own words. It also consists of data analysis that describes the data collected and developing themes. The themes are interpreted to identify larger meanings from study findings (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019).

Background and Statement of the Problem

The United States demographic is rapidly changing and is reflected in the increased diversity seen among the student population of most American universities and colleges (Espinosa et al., 2019; Helms et al., 2019). In the 2020 impact report, the Association of Independent California Colleges and Universities (AICCU) is made up of more than 80 independent nonprofit colleges and universities. These institutions enroll approximately 22% of undergraduates and 58% of graduate students in California (AICCU, 2020). These institutions are also committed to diversity, with their student populations consisting of 37% Caucasian, 24% Latino, 13% Asian American, 6% African American, 20% Pacific Islander, American Indian, mixed race, unknown race, and nonresident alien (AICCU, 2020). However, the campaign for college opportunity (2018) reported that the governing boards of California's HEIs does not

reflect the racial and gender diversity of its student body and is evident in California higher education systems. Although approximately half of California Student Aid Commission members, California State University board of trustees and community college governors are women, there still exist some gaps that needs to be addressed. Out of 13 University of California Board of Regents members, less than half are women and there is only one African American and one Asian American, Native Hawaiian, and Pacific Islander. Additionally, of the CSU Board of Trustees, there is only one Asian American, Native Hawaiian, and Pacific Islander appointed and one Asian American, Native Hawaiian, and Pacific Islander community college governor.

In 2015, women accounted for more than half of all college students, and only 32% of full professors (Johnson, 2017). Additionally, women occupy more entry-level, service, and faculty positions; they are not ascending to leadership roles at the rate as their male counterparts partly because of a pipeline myth or the idea that there are few women qualified to occupy leadership positions (Johnson, 2017). However, data from the American Council on Education indicated that there are qualified women to fill such positions because, since 2006, women have earned more than 50% of all doctoral degrees (Johnson, 2017). However, the qualified and capable women in academics are leaning away from leadership opportunities as a result of antiquated workplace structures (Tevis et al., 2021).

Additionally, the disparity among women in leadership positions across higher education continues to be a challenge even for women who have the potential, leadership skills, and experience to fill these positions. Qualified women may not be approached or encouraged to consider senior leadership positions (Longman & Anderson, 2011). Women also have assumed leadership roles formally and informally and have similar leadership styles and aptitude as men (Tevis et al., 2021).

Although diversity in higher education has increased with advances in enrollment of students of color, including Black students, this population also has the lowest enrollment rates at both undergraduate and graduate levels, and its members continue to experience adversity (Espinosa et al., 2019; McCoy & Rodricks, 2015). This reflects the effects of structural barriers that impact students and communities of color. Students of color have expressed that they experienced culture shock, as they had difficulty transitioning socially and culturally, especially if they are first-generation students (McCoy & Rodricks, 2015). It is also documented that students of color experience microaggressions, lack of support, and limited resources. The availability of resources such as racially and ethnically diverse faculty and staff aid the minority student's transition into and success at colleges and universities. Although HEIs' student bodies have become more diverse, diversity is still lacking, specifically women of color, in higher education administrative and leadership positions (McCoy & Rodricks, 2015; Sibert et al., 2022).

Diversity in HEI is vital for student success because interacting with people of different backgrounds creates an environment where learning and empathy are fostered while preparing students be more effective in the society (Bollinger, 2003). This is truer today, as the United States of America is experiencing a transformation in demographic structure. In the last decade, 92% of the nation's population growth has been among people of color (National Equity Atlas, 2018). As the nation grows to become increasingly multiracial and multicultural, it is imperative that the nation responds to the changes and takes action accordingly.

Also, diversity has the potential to add value to an organization (Tevis et al., 2021; Yang & Konrad, 2011). Additional benefits of having racial and ethnic diversity in the education system and in the workplace include increased productivity, innovation, and cultural competency (Espinosa et al., 2019; Lennon et al., 2013; The White House Project, 2009). It is vital that

individuals in charge of policy making in institutions, organizations, and communities understand the factors that impact access and success for students of color in higher education. Although factors such as income, age, social-economic status, and geography can impact education access and success, race prevails in determining outcomes in institutions (Espinosa et al., 2019).

The administrators at HEIs have the ability to create inclusive spaces that foster resilience and cultivate resistance to interrupt hegemonic discourse in students of color experience (McCoy & Rodricks, 2015). As the leaders at colleges and universities have far-reaching influence and can influence educating future leaders, deeper consideration of the evolving student population requires institutions to make decisions affecting students from multiple perspectives and experience (Lennon et al., 2013; Surna, 2018). Therefore, it is necessary for senior-level administrators to engage in dialogue to understand better their experiences in order to determine what course of action to take to enhance it.

Women's representation on boards of directors results in higher return on equity, sales, and invested capital (C. Hill et al., 2016). The benefits of diversity also include high-performance outcomes, improved corporate responsibility, and less susceptibility to group thinking. It also aids to reduce the pay gap between men and women in the workforce. Racially and gender diverse leadership is necessary for improving the success of all students, and the lack of representation at the leadership level impacts student success, specifically, students of color at HEIs (Surna, 2018).

There are indications that progress has been made because more women are breaking through glass ceilings and appointed to leadership positions (Acar, 2015; Hannum et al., 2015; Redmond et al., 2017; Ryan et al., 2010). There is still work to be done to create a climate of

opportunity and address the factors still hindering women of color from achieving true parity. The lack of representative leadership in HEIs can lead to decisions being made based on less diverse considerations that would have an impact on minority students' success.

The underrepresentation of women and people of color in leadership and faculty positions also results in a less diverse curriculum, learning, and social space and can have detrimental ripple effects across communities (Longman, 2018; McCoy & Rodricks, 2015). With this, the approach colleges and universities take to address access and success for communities of color has become important. It is recommended that institutions need to create a more inclusive campus community and identify ways to ease students' transition because much of their experience and development at HEIs is shaped by various factors that influence the system in which they operate. A more inclusive environment also would address microaggressions. To achieve this, a more diverse group of individuals in certain executive positions must be established because leadership that is representative of the diversity of the student body can result in student success, a determinate factor of the overall health of the institution (Lennon et al., 2013; Surna, 2018).

Purpose of Study

In recent years, several studies have explored the barriers and challenges women of color face in their journey to attain leadership positions at HEIs (Moffitt, 2017; Wright, 2019; Zell, 2017). However, an essential part of success is knowing how to overcome these barriers by improving advancement and support for women (Acar, 2015; Airini et al., 2011; Catalyst, 2001). Therefore, the purpose of the study is to understand what leader-member exchange strategies have enabled women of color pursue administrative leadership positions in California Higher Education Institution. The goal is to have participants share the barriers they encountered on

their journey, the strategies that enabled them to overcome the barriers, the advice they have for women of color who aspire to follow in their footsteps, and what actions current leaders and HEIs can take to increase representation of women of color in leadership roles with their institutions.

Research Questions

This study is guided by this main research question: What leader-member Exchange (LMX) strategies have enabled women of color to pursue administrative leadership positions in California HEIs? Following are additional questions:

- RQ 1: What mentoring strategies encouraged women of color to pursue administrative leadership positions?
- RQ 2: What respectful strategies encouraged women of color to pursue administrative leadership positions?
- RQ 3: What communication strategies encouraged women of color to pursue administrative leadership positions?

Significance of Study

This study is significant for multiple stakeholders including aspiring women of color, universities and colleges, students of color, policy makers, and society in general. First, these strategies can apply to young women of color who are aspiring to advance toward occupying an administrative leadership position within a HEI. Gaining an understanding of the strategies that enabled women of color overcome barriers, attain and occupy an administrative leadership position in a HEIs will provide information that can be utilized in improving diversity in higher education through organizational learning (Allison, 1999; Johnson, 2017).

Additionally, the strategies identified in this study can be adopted by current HEI administrative leaders, HEIs and other organizations to amend policies and establish workplace structures that promote race and gender balance in leadership (Redmond et al., 2017; Tevis et al., 2021). By understanding the factors that contributed to these minority women's ability to advance to administrative leadership positions, it can also provide a template that can be adopted to address diversity and inclusion in leadership positions in organizations across multiple industries (Redmond et al., 2017; Tevis et al., 2021; Ward & Wolf-Wendel, 2016; Yang & Konrad, 2011). Finally, the strategies identified from this study can significantly influence policies at a broader level to promote racial and gender equity.

Assumptions of Study

This qualitative research study is based on several assumptions and they include:

- Participants of the study have experienced one or more of the barriers and have similar strategies enabled them overcome challenges.
- Women of color are underrepresented in administrative leadership roles at colleges and universities.
- There exist qualified women of color who could occupy leadership positions within HEIs.

Limitations of Study

The goal of this study is to understand what strategies have enabled women of color pursue and attain administrative leadership positions in a college or university. This research study is qualitative, and data will be collected through interviews for women of color who currently occupy an administrative leadership role at a California HEI. As the data will be based

on interviewees' recollections of experiences, there are some limitations that are inherent in the study:

- Participants will share experiences based on events that occurred in the past. With this, respondents will answer interview questions from memory, which may limit the perceived accuracy of participants' understanding and reflections.
- The researcher is a woman of color working in higher education administration and is aware of personal biases that may play a role in the research. The researcher will work to prevent those biases from having a significant impact on the study.
- A small population from which to select samples. A smaller sample size may affect the certainty of the findings of the study (Kumar, 2014).

Terminology

Abbreviations

- HEI: Higher Education Institution
- LMX: Leader-Member Exchange
- ICR: Inter coder Reliability

Operational Definitions

- *Career Success*: Progression in pay/salary, promotion, and overall career satisfaction (Ng et. al., 2005; Wayne et al., 1999).
- *Employee*: For the purpose of this study, the term employee will be used interchangeably with subordinate and member and work group to describe a person or group of people who reports directly to another person in a higher supervisory/management/leadership role.

- *Glass Ceiling*: “A long-standing metaphor for the intangible systemic barriers that prevent women from obtaining senior-level positions” (Johnson, 2017, p. 4).
- *Higher Education Administrators*: Administrators at HEIs include president, vice president, vice chancellor, chief executive officer, chief academic officer, chief human resources officer, chief diversity officer, academic deans (Pritchard et al., 2020).
- *HEI/Universities and Colleges*: HEIs offer degrees ranging from Associates to Doctoral degrees (Ph.D., Ed.D., MD., DDS., JD., and DD).
- *Higher Education Leadership*: Institutional leadership included members and chairs of the board of governing boards/board of trustees who are involved in policy making and coordinating budgets for the institution (Helms et al., 2019). Other leadership positions such as president, chancellor, provost, vice-chancellor, and chief academic officers are also involved in strategic planning and responsible for the overall quality and performance of the institution.
- *Mentor*: Someone who serves to enhance another person’s skills and development (Smith, 1982).
- *Person (People) of Color*: People of color can be simply defined as persons who are non-White and include individuals who identified as Asian, African American, or Black, Hispanic, Native American, or an ethnicity other than White (Allison, 1999; Espinosa et al., 2019).
- *Pipeline Myth*: “The persistent idea that there are too few women qualified (e.g., degree holding) for leadership positions” (Johnson, 2017, p. 2).
- *Sociocultural Factors*: Forces within culture and society that affect thought, feelings,

and behavior: culture, custom, lifestyle, value, education, language, religion, traditions.

- *Sponsor*: One who uses influence to aid in another person's entry and advancement in career (Smith, 1982).
- *Stereotype*: Categorizing people on the basis of race, gender, age, or other characteristics (C. Hill et al., 2016). Stereotypes negatively affect both men and women and can create bias in decision maker's judgement. It also impacts how one sees themselves as well as how others are viewed.

Chapter Summary

As the demographic makeup of the nation evolves, so does the workforce. In recent years, we've seen an increase of women and people of color in the workforce (Gupta, 1983; Kent, & Moss, 1994; Read & Kehm, 2016; Redmond et al., 2017). Although women entering the workforce is a reality that is growing globally, women still encounter barriers and obstacles and they still remain marginalized, especially in leadership positions (Gupta, 1983; Kent & Moss, 1994; Read & Kehm, 2016; Redmond et al., 2017; Tevis et al., 2021). This is true especially for women of color who remain underrepresented in executive roles and face various barriers and forms of discrimination (Adams et al., 2009; Brady et al., 2011; Ryan et al., 2010).

The lack of representation of women of color in leadership roles crosses multiple industries, including academia or HEIs (Adams et al., 2009; Brady et al., 2011; Ryan et al., 2010). People of color make up a large percentage of the student population, and women of color populations continue to grow in colleges and universities. Women of color are expected to become more educated than men of color (Catalyst, 2020; Espinosa et al., 2019). However, this increase in diversity is not reflected in the faculty and administrators at HEIs (Gasman et al.,

2015; Johnson, 2017; McCoy & Rodricks, 2015). The lack of representation can be attributed to issues that stem from race and gender; these include discrimination, bias, and glass ceiling (Allen et al., 1995; Redmond et al., 2017).

The disparity for women of color in higher education administrative roles becomes a larger problem because the demographics of student populations at colleges and universities continue to change and the change is not reflected in the institutions' leadership (Espinosa et al., 2019; Helms et al., 2019). The lack of diversity also poses an issue for the HEI overall health and student outcome (Lennon et al., 2013; Surna, 2018). This is because exposure to diversity in university and colleges is positively correlated to higher levels of innovation, productivity, and student success (Espinosa et al., 2019; Lennon et al., 2013; Surna, 2018; The White House Project, 2009). The lack of diversity among faculty and administration may also impact the learning environment of the institution because the presence of diverse staff and administrators contributes to the institution's ability to create inclusive spaces for students (Bollinger, 2003; McCoy & Rodricks, 2015).

Therefore, the purpose of the study is to understand what leader-member exchange strategies have enabled women of color pursue administrative leadership positions in California Higher Education Institution. The findings of this study have the potential to impact several stakeholders, including, (a) students of color success at HEIs, (b) young women of color who aspire to ascend into a leadership position in a HEI, (c) college and university hiring practices, and (d) policies that impact institutions and society in general.

Chapter 2 provides an extensive literature review of current status of women of color in administrative leadership positions in HEIs and the challenges and strategies to overcome barriers. Chapter 3 is an outline of the research design and methodology the researcher uses in

the study. In this chapter, the researcher discusses the type of study, desired population to sample, criteria for participation in study, process of participant selection, interview process to obtain data, strategies to analyze data, and the process for validity and reliability. The researcher discusses the findings in Chapter 4; summary of findings, discussion, and implications of results and recommendations for future study are in Chapter 5.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

There has been an increase in diversity across various sectors, yet it is not reflected as HEIs faculty, staff, and administrators remain predominantly White (Espinosa et al., 2019). The number of racially and ethnically diverse faculty on college campuses remains small and out of alignment with student populations. Black, Latinx, and Native American faculty also are scarce in particular disciplines, including science, technology, engineering, math, humanities, and social science. Disparities and underrepresentation are more notable at research universities. The number of women holding leadership positions in HEIs has increased; however, individuals of various racial/ethnic groups, especially women of color, are still underrepresented in executive leadership positions (Surna, 2018). In 2016, the number of people of color who were college and university presidents increased, but 83.2% of college presidents were White (Espinosa et al., 2019). Blacks, Hispanics, Asians, American Indians or Alaska Natives, Middle Eastern or Arab Americans, and individuals who identify as more than one race accounted for 16.8% of all college and university presidents. In the same year, women represented 30.1% of all university and college presidents and women of color represented only 5.1% of all college and university presidents.

Through this literature review, the researcher seeks to provide an understanding of the causes of existing disparities in HEI administrative leadership positions by discussing, (a) LMX as a theoretical framework to examine what role the relationship between a leader and member plays in advancement to leadership positions, (b) Relational leadership as a supplemental theory to support the theoretical framework, (c) current state of women of color in higher education administrative leadership, (d) barriers women of color face in career advancement, and (e) some strategies to overcome such barriers.

LMX Theory

LMX is a system of interconnected dyadic relationships that can be used to understand the quality of relationships between supervisors and subordinates (Bauer & Green, 1996; Ford & Greguras, 2006; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Wayne et al., 1999; Zhang et al. 2012). LMX theory is an extension of the vertical-dyad model and is based on relationships between leaders and group members (Liden et al., 2006). This dyadic leadership theory proposes that leaders use different styles of leadership to develop relationships with subordinates in the work group (Tse & Troth, 2013). LMX differs from other leadership theories because it focuses on the dyadic relationship between a leader and their members. According to LMX theory, the relationship has predictive outcomes at the individual, group, and organizational levels (Gerstner & Day, 1997). This approach has provided an alternative to traditional leadership that focuses on leader traits and behaviors. The development of a relationship between a leader and group member depends on, (a) organizational structure, and (b) characteristics of both leader and individual members (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The quality of exchanges in dyad also can evolve and increase interactions that result in developing a stronger relationship (Ford & Greguras, 2006).

Evolution of LMX Theory

LMX was first introduced in 1970s by scholars Fred Dansereau, James Cashman, George Graen, and William Haga (Dansereau et al., 1973; Dansereau et al., 1975). They set out to develop a leadership model because models developed previously were progressing slowly (Dansereau et al., 1975). These leadership models included two assumptions: (a) members of an organizational who report to the same supervisor are homogeneous and can be considered as a single work group, (b) a supervisor behaves in the same manner toward each member of their work group. Dansereau et al.'s (1975) goal was to develop an alternative approach to leadership

that is free of these assumptions. Their approach focused on a vertical dyad and relationship between a supervisor and subordinate. This created room for each dyad/relationship to be unique, which made both members of the dyad the focus of their investigation. Their research analyzed the supervisor's behavior and the agreement between the supervisor and members of the work group. This was aligned with an earlier study that suggested the vertical dyad approach possessed potential to understanding leadership (Dansereau et al., 1973). As a result, their model of leadership suggested that the superior does not rely only on an employment contract; rather they seek interpersonal relationships with subordinates in order to effectively influence their behavior (Dansereau et al., 1975).

Throughout the years, what originated as an alternate to leadership style has evolved to a model for generating effective leadership through development and maintenance of relationships between leader and group members (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1991, 1995). Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) categorized how LMX evolves/develops into four stages: (a) vertical dyad linkage and work socialization with the focus on the discovery of differentiated dyads, including in-group and out-group; (b) LMX where the focus is on the relationship quality and its outcomes; (c) LMX stage that focuses on developing dyadic partnership; and (d) LMX as a systems-level perspective that involves moving beyond the dyad between leader and member. The studies by these scholars focused on the quality of the dyad or the exchange between the leader and member and its outcome for leader, individual member, work group, and the organization member (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1991, 1995). Some of the factors analyzed include the process of establishing the dyad between leader and member, frequency of communication, and characteristics of leader and follower (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Graen & Uhl-Bien (1991) suggests that leaders can create relationships with followers by presenting their followers the opportunity to take on new

responsibilities and roles. Upon creating relationships, leaders are also encouraged to nurture high-quality LMX relationships with followers.

Throughout the years, several LMX studies revealed that LMX was related to member performance, overall and supervisory satisfaction, role conflict, commitment, and turnover intentions (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Janssen & Van Yperen, 2004; Vecchio & Brazil, 2007). Over time, this suggests that LMX relationships will develop into a negotiation between leader and member. Therefore, it may result in some individuals in the dyad being able to develop and maintain high-quality relationships with their leaders. Some frequent themes associated with LMX include helping and caring, with emphasis on the supportive nature of the dyad in the form of mentorship and good communication (N. S. Hill et al., 2014; Tse & Troth, 2013). This also requires also requires developing respect and building trust with subordinates (Tse & Troth, 2013).

Recent studies have examined potential outcomes of LMX from individual and group levels. This includes the investigation on LMX relationships and racially diverse dyads by Randolph-Seng et al. (2016). Their findings were based on the relationships supervisors form with their direct reports of different levels of quality (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Lagace, 1990). Therefore, followers in high-quality LMX relationships receive treatment that goes beyond the formal employment contract, and subordinates of such dyads may receive greater levels of trust, attention, communication, rewards, special privileges, and support.

LMX Vertical Dyad

The vertical dyad is the relationship between a superior and member (Dansereau et al., 1975). The focus on the dyad is an alternative leadership approach that does not follow any restrictions of previous leadership models. The vertical dyad reflects the process linking a

member and leader that allows for every dyad to be unique. The vertical-dyad approach focuses on each member of the dyad: the leader and follower. The leader may engage in behaviors that involve leadership (based on influence) and supervision (based on authority; Dansereau et al., 1975). Leadership involves the vertical exchange between a superior and member while supervision is solely based on the formal employment contract. Such a contract requires members to submit to superiors in exchange for compensation. This subordinate can carry out the contract with little to no social exchange with the superior.

In contrast, when employing leadership, the nature of the exchange does not rely solely on a formal contract (Dansereau et al., 1975). Instead, a leader seeks different ways to influence the behavior of the member by offering outcomes of influence in decision-making, communication, support, and job latitude. The member then reciprocates with commitment and greater expenditure of time and energy. This approach is anchored in an interpersonal exchange relationship that creates an interdependency between leader and member. The different nature of exchange of the vertical dyad raises concerns about the extent to which members receive attention and interaction from the leader (Dansereau et al., 1975). The differential quality of LMX relationships creates unequal status and positions in work group (Tse & Troth, 2013). The unequal status results in followers been categorized into either in-group or out-group. The behavior and exchange between leader and members of the in-group are characterized by high trust, more support, more rewards, and more effective performance review (Bauer & Green, 1996; Heneman et al., 1989; Wilhelm et al., 1993; Zhang et al., 2012). This is a contributing factor to developing and maintaining high levels of commitment and it is associated with in-group status because the leader depends on the in-group members to complete important tasks. Members of the in-group receive higher attention from supervisors than members of the out-

group, suggesting that the superiors believed that the differential attention is necessary for adequate functioning within the unit. Individuals in the in-group spend more time communicating with supervisors and received more support from superiors than the out-group members (Dansereau et al., 1975). Over time, this resulted in the supervisor's evaluation of the in-group to be more favorable. This difference is also evidenced in job satisfaction, as in-group members expressed higher satisfaction rates than out-group members.

On the other hand, individuals in the out-group have ineffective performance and more blame attributed to them (Heneman et al., 1989; Wilhelm et al., 1993). Since the leader does not depend on the out-group to complete tasks, there is infrequent interaction and exchange between the leader and subordinates in this group. Characterized also with out-group members is low trust, less support, and fewer rewards. Another outcome of having in-groups and out-groups is that the supervisor invests disproportionate amounts of time and energy to develop a subset of their members and may encourage them to negotiate duties and relationships (Dansereau et al., 1975). This exchange produces a clique between superiors and the in-group and precludes any form of movement in or out of groups.

Stages of LMX Development

The development of a LMX can be categorized into four stages (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Stage 1 is the linkage and socialization that focuses on the discovery of differentiated dyads, including in-group and out-group. When the leaders and members of the dyad are in the initial process of role making (organizing their role), the vertical exchange is the extent to which the superior allows the member to negotiate job-related matters (Dansereau et al., 1975). Because a high-quality exchange requires time and investment to develop and maintain, the expectation is

that only a few strong leader-member relationships will exist in a work group (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

In the second stage of LMX, the focus is on the quality of relationship and its related outcomes (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). There is a positive relationship between the quality of exchange and various outcomes. During this stage of LMX development, effective leadership results in high-quality exchange relationships between a leader and follower. The development of such strong relationships is a result of behaviors and characteristics of both leader and member. High-quality LMX relationships also have positive outcomes for followers, leaders, and the organization. This is a shift from the vertical dyad linkage alone and goes beyond the outcomes of the dyadic relationship.

Stage three is the approach to developing dyadic partnerships and focuses on generating effective leadership process through relationships (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). It emphasizes how leaders may work with each follower to develop a partnership. To determine this, scholars set out to determine what would happen if leaders were trained to offer all subordinates the opportunity to develop high-quality relationships (Graen, Novak et al., 1982; Graen et al., 1986; Scandura & Graen, 1984). These studies provided insight into how LMX and developing high-quality relationships through vertical collaboration can be utilized to address employee growth need (Graen, Novak et al., 1982; Graen et al., 1986). The results showed that subordinates who accepted the offer developed high-quality LMX relationships. In addition to high-quality LMX relationships, other outcomes of this approach include improved performance, increased productivity, improved dyadic loyalty, and overall job satisfaction. (Graen, Novak et al., 1982; Graen et al., 1986; Scandura & Graen, 1984). This becomes an avenue to create opportunities for challenge and new learning for individuals who have high-growth needs (Graen, Novak et al.,

1982; Graen et al., 1986). Over time, the vertical collaboration between leader and follower was instrumental in role making and increasing social exchanges. At the this stage, the leader and member have developed mutual respect and trust for one another. Since LMX is a strong predictor of turnover, members are more likely to remain in an organization when they perceive themselves as actively exchanging support, resources, and extra effort (Graen, G.B. et al., 1982). This is because the increased quality of exchange increased productivity and satisfaction (Scandura & Graen, 1984). Those who report exchanging enough to meet contractual requirements were likely to leave the organization and subordinates who report high-quality exchanges with the leader emphasized that the leader talked to them frequently about job effectiveness, performance, and was involved in helping them complete difficult assignments (Graen, Liden et al., 1982).

The final stage is a systems-level approach that involves moving beyond an independent dyad between leader and member to a system of interdependent dyadic relationships (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). A longitudinal study by Liden et al. (1993) revealed that leader's expectation of member and member's expectations of leader were strong predictors of the quality of the LMX. Making expectations known to each other at the start of the leader-member relationship resulted in higher-quality exchanges. Liden et al. also determined that the leader and member's perceptions of similarity and liking in the early stages of working together was another predictor of the quality of the LMX relationship.

At the organizational level, the factors examined include performance, turnover, job satisfaction, and career progress (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Janssen & Van Yperen, 2004). To understand the process of developing an effective leadership relationship and the partnership between leader and member, it is essential to understand how managers discriminate among their

subordinates. Leaders play an essential role in promoting psychological empowerment and positive work outcomes (N. S. Hill et al., 2014; Yang & Konrad, 2011). Some features of leadership styles include building good relationships with colleagues, direct supervisors, and senior leadership as a critical component to being successful, and it can be done by getting involved, speaking up, and showing commitment (O'Connor, 2018; Read & Kehm, 2016). When leaders and subordinates have quality LMX exchanges, both leaders and members feel better, accomplish more, and, as a result, the organization prospers (Northouse, 2018). Therefore, one can say organizations stand to gain more from having leaders who are able to develop and maintain good working leader-member relationships.

The behavior of a leader toward members with regard to delegation may also influence trust and play a larger role in determining a member's status (Bauer & Green, 1996). With a supervisor's support, subordinates perform at a higher level and are rewarded with career success (Wayne et al., 1999). The quality of the relationship and exchange between supervisor and subordinate is significant for salary progression, career progression (promotability), and career satisfaction.

The emphasis on how managers may work with each person and develop partnership on a one-on-one basis rather than discriminate among members may seem more favorable to some members than others (Dansereau et al., 1975; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) went on to suggest that employees should be provided access by managers making an initial offer to develop an LMX partnership with each subordinate. This will increase the potential for effective leadership and higher-quality relationships. The exchange in this approach is not based only on behavior but also includes trust, mutual support, and respect, which result in high degree of influence and higher-quality relationships between leaders and members (Graen

& Uhl-Bien, 1995). In this exchange, leaders count on followers to provide honest feedback, assistance, and partnership with additional tasks while followers rely on leaders for support, encouragement, and investments in career (Bauer & Green, 1996; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

The advancement of each dyad varies, as some may not progress beyond the initial stage where the leader and member still perceive one another as strangers (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). In situations such as these, the interactions are limited and contractual (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Zhang et al., 2012). Other LMX relationships may progress to an acquaintance stage where the leader and member develop a relationship, but it is still limited and may revert to the stranger stage. The next stage focuses on addressing the issues of developing high-quality relationships and departs from the in-group/out-group model into a more equitable approach of leadership within an organization (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

Antecedents of LMX

A determinant of subordinates' status is that leaders see themselves in the member because they share similar attributes and compatibility in terms interpersonal skills, technical competence, and more (Dansereau et al., 1975; Heneman et al., 1989). This is because there are higher and more favorable attributions for members who share similarities with the leader because they are more receptive to information that aligns with the leader's categorization. The similarities or differences between leader and member may affect the development process of the leader-member relationship (Scandura & Lankau, 1996). Even the existence or perception of similarity between a manager and a subordinate resulted in higher performance rating compared to others (Pulakos & Wexley, 1983). Wayne and Liden (1995) stated that supervisors' perception of similarity to subordinates is positively related to a supervisor liking the subordinate in an organizational setting, and similarity in demography influences performance rating. Leader-

member similarity may lead to similar perceptions of work environment that can reduce conflict (Scandura & Lankau, 1996). Additionally, leader-member similarity can increase clarity of role demands and a positive relationship with the supervisor (Turban & Jones, 1988). However, when working to attain a more diverse workforce, this becomes a concern, because similarity in gender may encourage homogeneity not heterogeneity or diversity (Bauer & Green, 1996).

Another area where there is a correlation that impacts the quality of leader-follower relationship/exchange, is attitudinal or personality similarity between members of the dyad (Phillips & Bedeian, 1994; Zhang et al., 2012). Building high-quality exchanges requires the development of interpersonal trust, delegation, and similarity in leaders and members (Bauer & Green, 1996). Similarity in proactive personality between leader and follower results in having similar goals that can facilitate dyadic interactions and, over time, develop better dyadic relationships and higher LMX quality (Zhang et al., 2012). Similarity in personality also influences dyadic outcomes such as performance evaluations and is associated with leaders' decisions to delegate to members who receive favorable evaluations (Bauer & Green, 1996). The level of similarity between leader and subordinate becomes a factor because extraverts are likely to interact with leaders more than introverts might and may develop higher-quality relationships with leaders (Phillips & Bedeian, 1994).

In addition to personality, demographical variables may impact the development of networks that are vital for leadership development (Scandura & Lankau, 1996). Similarity or lack of similarity in demographic attributes of superior and subordinate also provide insight into the LMX process and how it affects group member status and jobs outcomes (McGinn & Milkman, 2013; Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989). When comparing characteristics of the members of dyads, dissimilarity in demographic characteristics including gender and race, impacted

subordinates' performance ratings and supervisors' affect for subordinates (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989). It can be concluded that social constructs such as race and gender may affect the relationship development in LMX (Scandura & Lankau, 1996; Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989).

Similarity in gender may become a variable to attaining high-quality exchanges (Bauer & Green, 1996). Gender similarity is potentially influential in building trust and becomes a powerful predictor of in- or out-group status (Bauer & Green, 1996). With this, one can infer that differences in gender and ethnicity have the potential to impact negatively the dyadic relationship and group member status or performance rating (Bauer & Green, 1996; Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989). Subordinates in mixed-gender dyads indicated that their performance was rated more poorly than those in same-gender dyads (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989). Members of mixed-gender dyads also reported more role ambiguity and conflict. Similar results were seen in Vecchio and Brazil's (2007) study, demonstrating that LMX is sensitive to gender similarity, and same-sex dyads reported higher LMX levels than different sex dyads. This may be a result of differences in what behaviors are of importance to males and females because women value communal leader behavior and strong interpersonal relationships with supervisors, which helps them become more embedded in their jobs (Collins et al., 2014). The socioemotional support and stability also affect women's job outcomes but affected male subordinates less, which is consistent with the LMX tenet of leaders developing unique relationships with their subordinates. Critics of this concept suggest that leaders interacting with male and female subordinates differently is unpalatable and that male subordinates may feel that female colleagues are receiving special attention and may result in resentment (Collins et al., 2014).

Unlike gender, when examining any other demographic similarity or dissimilarity and its impact on LMX, there are inconsistent results in the relationship between race and LMX

(Randolph-Seng et al., 2016). Multiple studies have found no support that race or ethnic similarity/dissimilarity can impact LMX (Bauer & Green, 1996; Matkin & Barbuto, 2012; Stark & Poppler, 2009). However, other scholars and theories in the diversity literature suggest that similar demographical (background) dyads will produce stronger LMX (Ibarra, 1995; Liden et al., 1993; Meglino et al., 1989; Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989). Therefore, this implies that if a leader and subordinate have similar racial background, the quality of the LMX relationship will be higher compared to the quality of a relationship of a cross-race dyad. This aligns with results from other studies that suggest that subordinates with similar backgrounds with leaders were treated more favorably and they received higher performance ratings (Pulakos & Wexley, 1983; Turban & Jones, 1988).

These conflicting results led Randolph-Seng et al. (2016) to investigate the relationship between race and LMX by exploring racially diverse relationships between leaders and subordinates and examining demographic data obtained in past studies. Their findings revealed that dyad racial similarity/dissimilarity was related to employee performance and LMX quality. The study showed that in dyads where leader and member were of different races, the relationship was described as less positive than those where both leader and subordinate were of the same race. This confirms Ragins's (1995) findings, suggesting that race may play a role in the development of LMX relationships because the relationship between leader and member are differentiated in terms of power. With this, it is implied that racially homogeneous leader-member relationships experience fewer challenges. Therefore, although differences in race do not have a direct impact on the LMX, they have an impact on employee performance by highlighting the existence of unintentional bias and stereotype based on race as a factor that needed to be considered as impacting the quality of exchange between leader and follower.

LMX and Relational Leadership

Since LMX focuses on leader-subordinate relationships, it serves as an antecedent to relational leadership (Brower et al., 2000). The overlap of LMX and relational leadership can provide a better understanding of the development leader-member relationship and the outcomes consequential to the relationship. Relational leadership is an extension of LMX and is the next logical step because it specifies how a trusting relationship between subordinate and leader is formed (Brower et al., 2000; Uhl-Bien, 2006). The relational model of leadership involves several components that include ethics, purpose, empowerment, inclusivity, and process orientation (Komives et al., 2013). The components of this model emphasize work groups having a common set of values and vision, empowering members of the group to embrace their full potential and giving them the ability to share diverse views. Therefore, this model of leadership requires a way of engaging with others in which the leaders hold themselves in relation with, and therefore morally accountable, to others (Cunliffe & Eriksen, 2011). Leadership from a relational perspective is based on the idea that leaders should understand relational mechanisms and be aware of the factors that influence interactions (Cunliffe & Eriksen, 2011). Relational leadership involves recognizing the intersecting ideologies, ways of speaking, value judgments, nature of dialogue, and the potential that lie within the interplay of voices within dialogic or conversational spaces.

Leadership is a relational construct because leaders should be able to work in and through any relationship in order to foster healthy relationships with members (Carmeli et al., 2012; Stephenson, 2011). A relational view of leadership highlights the importance of relational purpose, which helps explain the complexity of leadership task, the role of leaders as relational managers, and results in increased awareness of a relational element (Russell, 2003). When

leaders are relationally attentive, they are able to cultivate connections that convey the willingness to build high-quality relationships and are key to nurturing bonding social capital.

The relationships between leaders and subordinates have the potential to generate energy that can enhance subordinates' performance (Amah, 2017). High-quality leader-member relationships generate higher energy, which is pivotal to developing high-quality mentoring relationships. The energy in the leader-member relationship is an important resource that enhances productivity, employee engagement, trust, and turnover (Amah, 2017; Cunliffe & Eriksen, 2011; Hemsall, 2014). Leaders who display relational leadership are instrumental in building positive relationships in organizations because relational leadership helps nurture trust among members and helps improve collaboration and communication (Carmeli et al., 2012; Cunliffe & Eriksen, 2011). A high-quality relationship between leader and team member also can help facilitate learning, professional growth, and leadership development in their roles (Carmeli et al., 2012; Giles & Bills, 2017; Hemsall, 2014). The ability to grow requires space and opportunities for professional learning, sense of autonomy, and leaders who are supportive and encouraging (Giles & Bills, 2017).

Women and Women of Color in HEI Leadership Positions

In the 2019–2020 school year, women and individuals of racial/ethnic minorities occupied more lower-level and lower-paying administrative positions (Pritchard et al., 2020). Relative to the higher education workforce, people of color are underrepresented in senior leadership. At the highest levels of senior academic administration, there is also a lack of diversity, particularly women of color remain underrepresented (Gasman et al., 2015; Lennon et al., 2013; Sibert et al., 2022). Although women make up about half of all administrators, they still occupy the lowest paid dean positions and account for only 20% of the top five paid

positions (Pritchard et al., 2019). In academia, women comprise 24.53% of positional leaders, with women of color accounting for 11.4% of instructors, 10.6% of assistant professors, and only 3.7% of professors (Lennon et al., 2013). Given that women hold a share of positions at entry levels, in service and teaching only, they are not ascending to leadership positions, as their male counterparts are (Johnson, 2017). The same trend is seen and exacerbated for women of color and is attributed to pipeline myth/issues. Per Johnson (2017), women earned more than 50% of all bachelor's degrees since 1982, master's degrees since 1987, and doctoral degrees since 2006. With such achievement, they still only made up 30.1% of all presidents in 2016, even though women are more likely to have a Ph.D. or Ed.D. than their male counterparts (Espinosa et al., 2019; Johnson, 2017). Having female role models in higher education leadership can impact future generations, as the leaders of these postsecondary institutions make decisions that shape the lives of their students (Longman, 2018).

The results of a study of more than 100 elite research 1 (R1) universities revealed that White males account for 60% of academic deans/provosts, 78% of university presidents, and 90% of university system presidents (Sibert et al., 2022). The results of this study also indicated that women comprise only 10% of presidents while women of color are almost absent in HEI president positions. Caucasian women comprise 17% of all permanent presidents and the aggregate of women of color is less than 5%. Of the 124 permanent presidents, only two (1.6%) are of Asian, Black, and Hispanic descent. Of this population, Hispanic women are the most underrepresented. Besides the position of presidency, Black women represented 5% of academic deans and board members, which is better than other women of color. Indigenous women accounting for only 0.2% of presidents, board members, and other leadership positions.

The nontenure track jobs also often exclude women from attaining the top positions because universities pull from tenured faculty to fill top administrative positions (Lennon et al., 2013). Women's underrepresentation as tenured and full professors becomes a limiting factor for opportunities to advance into administrative leadership roles at colleges and universities (C. Hill et al., 2016). As a result, men outnumber women in dean, provost, and president positions. Women of color fill an even smaller percentage of leadership positions. Such issues are impacting advancement and upward mobility and have become a pervasive and growing concern among many scholars and intellectuals (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017; Gasman et al., 2015).

The disparity and underrepresentation of women of color in HEI administrative leadership roles is seen more in private colleges and universities, as public institutions have claimed higher diversity than private ones (Lennon et al., 2013; Sibert et al., 2022). This claim is supported by the U.S Department of Education (2016), which stated that compared to 4-year private nonprofit institutions, there is higher diversity at 2-year and public institutions, especially at the instructional level; public institutions report higher percentages for faculty members of color.

Some reasons there is less diversity in leadership positions is the dearth of college and university senior-level administrators of color, which can be attributed to discriminatory practices. Minority administrators often exhibit feelings of isolation attributable to being the token person of color. These factors can contribute to the different experiences among women in different groups (C. Hill et al., 2016). Women of color confront ethnic and racial discrimination in addition to experiencing gender bias differently than White women. Women of color also experience racial bias differently than men in the same racial or ethnic group. The intersectional identity as a woman and a person of color creates different experiences that leave women of

color marginalized (Crenshaw, 1988; McCoy & Rodricks, 2015; Wingfield, 2009). Although race is at the forefront, its intersection with other forms of identity such as gender must be examined as well because individuals can have overlapping traits and interests based on a combination of intersecting identities (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017; Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995; McCoy & Rodricks, 2015; Parker & Lynn, 2002; Solorzano & Yosso, 2001; Tate, 1997). This is important because racial exclusion cannot account for exclusion based on other identities because there are other systems such as genderism and sexism that converge to reinforce systemic conditions.

Examining how things look from the perspective of intersectional individuals provides understanding of their predicament (Parker & Lynn, 2002). It is vital to address the marginalization and seek ways in which connections can be made with other women on common issues and bring them into the public discourse. By paying attention to the multiplicity of social life, institutions and organizations will better address issues faced by women of color and other individuals with intersectional identity. If the aspect of intersectionality is ignored, it leaves major sectors of the population marginalized.

Barriers Impacting Advancement

Multiple questions can be asked, but one that stands out is “Why are men overrepresented in leadership roles” (C. Hill et al., 2016, p. 15). Organizational culture, policy, and economics are factors and barriers that shape both male and female choices and opportunity. Women are not simply denied leadership opportunities; rather, the opportunities disappear at various points along their way. Bias against women is subtle, overt, and still exist, therefore creating a hostile work environment that can shape careers (C. Hill et al., 2016). The lack of understanding and support, and experienced discouragement, sabotage, and unfair treatment are factors that make

the road to leadership positions more difficult (C. Hill et al., 2016). The factors that can impact career advancement could be categorized into personal, interpersonal, and organizational/structural barriers (Airini et al., 2011; Gupta, 1983). The existence of one or more of these factors has the potential help or hinder career progression (Airini et al., 2011).

Personal

Personal barriers are the characteristics, background influences, and socialization patterns that serve as hinderances for women in the workforce (Gupta, 1983). Strong self-belief or self-efficacy in their ability to succeed and control the direction of their careers is a contributing factor (Airini et al., 2011). Prior to entering the workforce, women face some barriers that are influential on their journey to leadership positions (Redmond et al., 2017). Depending on their socioeconomic status, the individual may be the first to attend college, and without adequate support and mentorship, it results in the loss of confidence to aspire and plan for a career (Redmond et al., 2017).

Also, women battle against the societal and cultural stereotypes of the roles of a female. One of the issues faced is the difficulty of balancing being a working professional and having a family (Bryant & Constantine, 2006; Johnson, 2017; Redmond et al., 2017). Historically, the cultural norms against women climbing the career ladder have acted as a barrier and a deterrent to women aspiring to work and assume managerial positions or advance in an organization (Andruskiw & Howes, 1980; Johnson, 2017; Redmond et al., 2017). As a result, personal choices regarding lifestyle may weigh on women's decision about career planning (Airini et al., 2011). Women may consider family responsibilities and mental health to take priority over climbing the corporate ladder (Airini et al., 2011; Bryant & Constantine, 2006; Lennon et al., 2013). Now

more than ever, women have greater access to the academic workplace (Ward & Wolf-Wendel, 2016). However, it has not translated into advancement as a result of work and family concerns.

Balancing work and family responsibilities is another challenge for women seeking leadership positions, especially for those raising children (C. Hill et al., 2016). Successfully having a work-life balance requires continuously integrating home and work roles, which can be difficult when offered a promotion, as it entails an increased time commitment (Redmond et al., 2017; Schieman et al., 2009). In instances when females decide to take time out of their careers, the process of reentering the workforce becomes another obstacle. Johnson (2017) reported that women presidents and chief academic officers are less likely to be married and have children but are more likely to alter their career paths in order to care for a spouse/partner, parent, or dependent.

Therefore, it is clear that life outside work influences women's career decisions and trajectory into leadership roles (Johnson, 2017; Ward & Wolf-Wendel, 2016). Although the integration of work and family may be a deterrent for advancement, it also raises questions about gender expectations and ideal worker norms (Schneidhofer et al., 2010; Ward & Wolf-Wendel, 2016). It is suggested that for women's careers to progress, the implementation of policy and practice must be examined at the organizational level as well.

Interpersonal

Interpersonal factors examine the interactions between aspiring women and the dominant power group. Besides personal barriers, women continue to battle against the societal and cultural stereotypes of the roles of a female (Johnson, 2017; Redmond et al., 2017). Stereotyping has led to myths about sex roles concerning abilities, motivation, and commitment to a career (Gupta, 1983). The argument is that women do not have the skills to be effective leaders, and

yet, contrary to those myths, women are task oriented. Such stereotypes combined with lacking the right experience will further reduce their confidence level, resulting in them becoming unwilling to apply for jobs. This has resulted in women's skills and achievements being undervalued, leading to females internalizing such ideology (C. Hill et al., 2016). Stereotypes about race and gender intersect uniquely and powerfully, resulting in further disparity for women of color (C. Hill et al., 2016; Gray et al., 2018; Herrbach & Mignonac, 2012).

Women also may be sensitive to the systems of influence within organizations, as the structure may undermine women's aspiration and, as a result, conform to the traditional model/approach to management (Airini et al., 2011). This may include conforming to management culture that is restrictive in order to be perceived as self-reliant, physical, and emotionally tough (Airini et al., 2011; C. Hill et al., 2016). Women of color find it necessary to adjust personal style in order to fit in their work environment (Catalyst, 2001; Giscombe & Mattis, 2002). This includes toning down expressiveness for others and becoming more aggressive and direct. Downplaying the differences also downplays race and gender (Airini et al., 2011). This results in women feeling isolated or not belonging in the workplace. It may also result in women feeling unqualified and considering themselves to be impostors (Clance & Imes, 1978; Hutchins & Rainbolt, 2017). Imposter phenomenon occurs among women, minorities, and individuals early in their careers as they strive to develop their professional identity and progress in their careers (Hutchins & Rainbolt, 2017). This results in women lacking self-confidence and doubting their abilities (Clance & Imes, 1978; Hutchins & Rainbolt, 2017). Individuals who struggle with this feeling fear being perceived as weak, so they hold back from seeking out resources and support to address this feeling (Hutchins & Rainbolt, 2017).

Various sociodemographic predictors such as race, ethnicity, gender, age, and marital status are influential in attaining leadership opportunities and can affect career success (C. Hill et al., 2016; Ng et al., 2005; Schneidhofer et al., 2010). Gender and race were reported to be negatively related to career success (Allen et al., 1995). Demographic factors such as gender, race, and ethnicity also impact pay; causing pay disparity to remain rampant (American Association of University Women, 2018). This has resulted in women being less likely to reach the highest-paying leadership positions compared to their male counterparts. The additive effect of race makes this pay gap experience more damning for women of color. The disparity in pay can be categorized as a structural barrier.

Organizational/Structural

Organizational/structural barriers are the organizational practices, policies, and procedures designed to preserve the status quo and influence recruitment, selection, evaluation, reward systems, communication, and an organization (Bajdo & Dickson, 2001; Gupta, 1983). The intersection of race and gender continues to be a foundation for exclusion and influences hiring and promotion practices (Bhatt, 2013; Gray et al., 2018; Herrbach & Mignonac, 2012; Ward & Wolf-Wendel, 2016). Historically, colleges and universities have excluded minorities from faculty and staff, and, as a result, minorities have been at the center of bias, exclusion, and discrimination based on race and gender (Bhatt, 2013; Gray et al., 2018). As a result of affirmative action, the effort to increase representation in the field has improved (Evans & Chun, 2007). In more recent decades, the movement to provide equal opportunity has shifted from the hiring process to facing discrimination for promotion and advancement. The time constraints, stress, and slow rate of promotion of minorities and women have created dissatisfaction, which has influenced turnover among faculty.

Some of the practices include a biased selection in the hiring process, limited advancement opportunity, lack of support or mentorship, and isolation. These institutional practices contribute to the glass ceiling in a male-oriented industry. Besides attempting to have a balance of work and personal life, women also lack necessary support in the work environment (Redmond et al., 2017). The lack of encouragement and minimization of accomplishments becomes a subtle barrier that is difficult to detect (Evans & Chun, 2007). For African American female administrators, additional lack of support can be evident in budget constraints, and limited resources can influence one's decision to transition out of the role or organization. To escape the discrimination and biases faced in the workplace, women often opt out and forgo promotion and opportunities to occupy leadership positions (Redmond et al., 2017). This decision is also influenced by the avoidance of messy politics, sexist culture, and maintaining a work-life balance.

When women apply to higher-level jobs in educational administration, strategies and relevant information about the position maybe withheld from them until it is too late (Gupta, 1983). In the business world, networking often occurs around activities such as golfing or hunting, to which women are usually not invited (Gupta, 1983; C. Hill et al., 2016). This is done both consciously and unconsciously, as information regarding new jobs spread by word of mouth before it is officially posted, and because females are not a part of the social and professional networks to which male executives belong, they do not receive that information (Adams et al., 2009; Gupta, 1983). Both formal and informal means of communication are necessary in women's advancement, but because women frequently occupy lower positions, they either do not receive information, or they receive it later than men do (Adams et al., 2009; Gupta, 1983). This limits the time and opportunity for women to network, significantly impacting women with

substantial family responsibility (C. Hill et al., 2016). Women and women of color are often hired and placed in low-power educational administration positions such as advising and counseling (Gupta, 1983). Such positions have no clear path for advancement, which reduces the chances of women having normal progression to higher positions in educational administration.

There are other factors within organizations that influence women's involvement in leadership roles within a HEI (Airini et al., 2011). Developing and maintaining collegial relationships were described as helpful for women seeking advancement to leadership roles (Airini et al., 2011). Some potential outcomes include increased confidence, visibility when a project is completed, recognition, and access to job opportunities (Airini et al., 2011; Yang & Konrad, 2011). For others, relationships with seniors or peers might be unsupportive and destructive. Some of the negative experiences include bullying, intimidation, inappropriate advances, and overly critical criticism. The culture of females supporting one another is also lacking and promotes a lack of trust (Redmond et al., 2017). This results in few females in leadership roles and, in turn, fewer female role models and mentors for individuals looking to advance into a leadership positions. Underrepresentation also creates the perception that other females are considered the competition and, as such, they are considered on the way to the top (Evans & Chun, 2007). With such behaviors, emerging female leaders have negative experiences that may influence their decisions to transition out of the organization or that industry.

Another factor that has previously put women at a disadvantage is the lack of career planning (Gupta, 1983; Johnsrud, 1991). Without this, women will progress through their careers randomly, rather than being more analytical in identifying where they want to be and determining what action steps are necessary to enhance career advancement (Gupta, 1983; Johnsrud, 1991). Access to networks is critical in the journey to leadership positions (C. Hill et

al., 2016). For women of color specifically, some of the most frequently identified barriers to advancement are the lack of connections, role models, mentors, or sponsors of the same race or ethnic group (Catalyst, 2001). Additionally, not being assigned tasks that provide high visibility and that affect their ability to be noticed within an organization is another identified barrier.

Strategies to Overcome Barriers

To increase diversity significantly in leadership roles, active engagement in the process is needed and the solutions must be strategic to achieve educational and occupational parity (Olson & Jackson, 2009). Some proposed strategies that are positively related to career success include mentorship, sponsorship, and professional development program opportunities (Giscombe & Mattis, 2002; Ng et al., 2005; Ragins, 1995). These strategies are dependent on the relationship and the exchange between a leader/supervisor and subordinate (Amah, 2017; Chun et al., 2012; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Scandura & Lankau, 1996; Wayne et al., 1999; Zhang et al., 2012).

Mentorship

Mentorship and mentoring programs are a type of intervention to attract, develop, and retain high-performing individuals whose growth can be accelerated by working with experienced leaders who can provide career guidance (Emrich et al., 2017; Olson & Jackson, 2009). Mentoring is valuable and affects performance and career growth and development (Amah, 2017). Mentorship is also complementary to LMX because it is dependent on the quality of the relationship between the mentor and the protégé (Amah, 2017; Scandura & Lankau, 1996). Mentors have multiple functions: (a) provide coaching, sponsorship, protection, and fostering positive visibility to attain career growth; and (b) provide support, friendship, acceptance, counseling, and role modeling (Amah, 2017; King & Ferguson, 2001; Ragins, 1995). Mentorship provides the opportunity to develop relationships with experienced leaders who can provide

advice that impacts the trajectory of their protégés' careers (King & Ferguson, 2001; Olson & Jackson, 2009). For the relationship between a mentor and protégé to be successful, the mentor must act as an advocate by fostering career opportunities that can be significant for promotability (Olson & Jackson, 2009; Wayne et al., 1999). Studies shows that positive mentoring relationships provide access to networks with influential colleagues and are critical to success because they influence career development and promotion rates (Catalyst, 2001; Olson & Jackson, 2009). Early in one's career, having a mentor can provide resources and development for promising women of color, and the frequent high-quality exposure with successful female role models helps improve women's concept of their leadership abilities and career ambitions (Catalyst, 2020; C. Hill et al., 2016). In a 2017 survey of more than 1,000 professionals, the majority of the respondents indicated that the relationship with their mentor was extremely important to their careers (Emrich et al., 2017).

There is positive relationship between mentorship and advancement, as mentors help protégés develop interpersonal influence (Ragins, 1995). Mentoring relationships are important for people from diverse backgrounds who are aspiring to advance to build relationships with a network of leaders (King & Ferguson, 2001; Olson & Jackson, 2009). Formal mentoring programs contributed to people from diverse backgrounds and their promotion to higher leadership positions (Olson & Jackson, 2009). A formal mentoring program helps facilitate increased diversity in leadership positions and works to attain gender parity (Emrich et al., 2017; Johnson, 2017; Olson & Jackson, 2009). In a 2017 study, 75% of the respondents reported that their mentorship relationship was important to their career development, especially for women and minorities (Emrich et al., 2017). This study also suggests that women, more than men,

placed more importance on advice about opportunities and professional strengths (Emrich et al., 2017).

In a study with women occupying senior leadership roles in HEIs, the women of color participants mentioned the lack of opportunities and support as a barrier they experienced (Hannum et al., 2015). Receiving encouragement and support from mentors and a broader network is identified as a contributing factor for career success. Of the female participants, only 20% of White respondents and 7% of minority participants indicated having the benefit of a role model. The respondents in another study echoed similar trends, emphasizing the role of mentors and suggesting that mentors are critical to one's success as a leader (O'Connor, 2018). Such mentors are vital to speak truth into the lives of current and emerging female leaders, which will help them to become more effective leaders.

The results of other studies suggests that women and women of color should actively establish networks while seeking coaches and mentors who are supportive and encouraging because they are usually navigating unfamiliar territory as they transition into senior leadership positions (King & Ferguson, 2001; Redmond et al., 2017). In Redmond et al. (2017), the respondents indicated not having strong female mentors or role models "because there were no senior females in positions to do the mentoring" (p. 347). Mentorship also provides support needed to overcome self-doubt and lack of confidence (Clance & Imes, 1978). The social support that mentorship provides is a coping mechanism to mitigate the feeling of being an impostor (Hutchins & Rainbolt, 2017).

At the organizational level, mentoring is a frequent way for men to succeed (Gupta, 1983). Supervisory mentoring is developmental and related to salary and growth over time (Goleman, 2000; Gupta, 1983). Mentoring can consist of supervisors assigning tasks,

socioemotional support, and career development (Liu et al., 2011; Scandura & Schriesheim, 1994). A mentor shows protégés the ropes, advocates for their cause, and prepares them for advancement. This relationship-based strategy to attain diversity is complementary to the relationship between a leader and member (Scandura & Lankau, 1996). The results of another study showed that more than 50% of the minority participants and about 65% of total participants stated that their primary mentor relationship was with a supervisor who provided support and career advice (Emrich et al., 2017). Adding mentoring to a leader-subordinate relationship helps expand the exchange and increases the commitment and resources needed for the developmental process (Scandura & Schriesheim, 1994).

Protégés, specifically minority protégés, have expressed stronger tendencies to choose mentors with similar backgrounds, situations, and positions they aspire to attain (Emrich et al., 2017). Mentors also tend to select protégés with similar backgrounds, but with few women of color available to mentor other women of color, it then creates an obstacle for people of diverse backgrounds seeking that opportunity (Catalyst, 2001; Gupta, 1983; Olson & Jackson, 2009). This is a problem that is disproportionately impacting minority women who desire to get a mentor (Catalyst, 2001). Therefore, it is essential that more women in senior administrative roles should serve as mentors, but because few women are available to serve as mentors, women tend not to have mentors, which has made it more difficult for women to find mentors (Catalyst, 2001; Gupta, 1983). Just as mentorship is beneficial for women, sponsorship also provides more benefits because it provides opportunities regarding career advancement (C. Hill et al., 2016).

Sponsorship

Sponsorship, as with mentorship, provides visibility, opportunities for the recipient, and is positively related to career success (C. Hill et al., 2016; Turner, 1960). A sponsor is an

individual who has influence to aid in a subordinate's career advancement (Smith, 1982). The practice of sponsorship is an institutionalized way of promotion attainment in the work setting (Johnsrud, 1991). Such practices are particularly prevalent in senior-level administrative positions because they allow a hiring official to designate a known candidate at the time a position is posted. This is beneficial within an organization because it helps identify existing employees as potential candidates. Therefore, sponsorship can be seen through high-quality LMX relationships because the quality of a relationship between the leader and member depends on existing organizational structure and the characteristics of the leader and members (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Wayne et al., 1999; Zhang et al., 2012). As the quality of exchanges evolve and interaction increases, they result in a stronger relationship that determines an employee's status, culminating in higher performance and career success (Bauer & Green, 1996; Ford & Greguras, 2006; Wayne et al., 1999).

In an organizational setting, having a sponsor is beneficial because it is identified as critical to career success, since sponsors are able to provide access to professional networks and resources (Allen et al., 1995; Ng et al., 2005). Organizational sponsorship predictors represent the extent to which organizations provide special assistance to employees to aid in career success (Ng et al., 2005). Sponsors have the capability to share privileged information about navigating through the bureaucracy, provide recommendation for positions, and act as role models for individuals who aspire to follow in their footsteps (Allen et al., 1995; Ng et al., 2005). Allen et al. (1995) went on to state that for participants in their study, a sponsor was an indication to others in the field that they were highly competent and worthy of attention. Sponsorship thereby provides a way to identify deliberately and engage individuals with leadership potential (Dai et al., 2013). Subordinates who have been selected for sponsorship get attention, support, and

career-related advice from supervisors/managers (Wayne et al., 1999). Such investments enhance cognitive ability, which improves performance, leading to stronger career success, higher salary, and promotion (Ng & Feldman, 2010). Therefore, women of color who aspire to attain leadership positions experience challenges in finding a sponsor (C. Hill et al., 2016). They have limited access to networks that can provide information about opportunities, promotions, resources, and professional advice (Randolph-Seng et al., 2016). This can be attributed to strength of the exchange/relationship with leaders.

Although sponsorship is useful to identify and promote internal hires, it may also be a hinderance to attaining diversity because sponsorship can be used to maintain the status quo rather than increasing the number of women within an organization, therefore, serving as a limitation to improving diversity (Johnsrud, 1991). Sponsorship helps resolve any observed differences in systems of stratification where there is an established elite hierarchy (Turner, 1960). The system was designed to restrict members of the elite group from taking advantage, but promotion decisions may become influenced by politics and individuals might promote those who are already in the elite group or those with whom they share similarities (Ng et al., 2005; Turner, 1960). This then creates an opening for bias and for recipients of sponsorship to be determined based on factors such as gender (Ng et al., 2005). Additionally, it could perpetuate the characteristics of those making promotion decisions, therefore, contributing to a group/population having advantage and discriminating against others by eliminating them for promotion within an organization. To attain parity, there is a need to recruit, engage, and retain individuals with talent and potential to grow (Dai et al., 2013). This can be done by clarifying organizational hierarchy and making career advancement opportunity accessible.

Leadership/Professional Development

Career support, as with mentorship, is correlated and can be substituted with career development support/programs (Chun et al., 2012). Such programs support and promote a deeper sense of belonging that enhances organizational commitment. Leaders are more likely to provide career developmental support to subordinates through high-quality LMX relationships (Chun et al., 2012). For the purpose of this study, leadership development is an avenue to provide career support for marginalized groups in HEI leadership, specifically women of color.

Leadership development is an approach to increasing leadership skill level for an individual and can be provided through formal or informal programs (Söderhjelm et al., 2018). Participation in a development program can be beneficial to creating self-managed institutions. It can also help improve the approach to building leadership teams and can be used to address gender disparity in leadership (Airini et al., 2011; C. Hill et al., 2016). This is because leadership development enhances marketability as individuals learn and develop skills on the job, which enable them to perform their job more effectively and lead to rewards such as promotion, pay increases, and career satisfaction (Dai et al., 2013; Kot-Radojewska, 2018; Wayne et al., 1999). This is seen in a study that showed that receiving formal leadership development had a positive impact in participants's experience and journey to current leadership positions (Hannum et al., 2015).

However, women have to seek out experiences and development program opportunities on their own in order to move into higher-paid jobs (Ng et al., 2005). Historically, models of leadership and leadership development programs have been normed on male perspectives about career progression; therefore, leadership development programs need to be carefully designed to address the needs of aspiring female leaders (Longman & Anderson, 2011). In addition,

leadership training should help prepare women for administration in order to create a larger pool from which organizations can draw high-level position candidates (Andruskiw & Howes, 1980). To accomplish this, internships and other training and development programs should be incorporated into education early in employees' careers. This will require current female administrators to act as role models and show how administrative principles are applied. Education has strong influence on career satisfaction for women, but if they already have lower career expectations, then the opportunity to invest in education and skill development may be readily satisfying (Kot-Radojewska, 2018; Ng et al., 2005).

Increasing the number of women in senior positions within HEIs is important for shaping the perception of leadership (Read & Kehm, 2016). It requires challenging behaviors, policies, and practices to facilitate a climate that can result in change. To support the advancing of female leaders in HEI, a support structure designed to overcome barriers must be established (Redmond et al., 2017). Institutional actions can include providing direct opportunities, creating more defined career pathways, and establishing leadership development and mentorship programs. This is critical because development opportunities and planning for women of color aid in preparing them for potential openings in senior positions and result in career satisfaction (Giscombe & Mattis, 2002; Read & Kehm, 2016; Redmond et al., 2017; Yap et al., 2010).

When effective, a leadership program can aid in identifying and building leadership qualities in individuals within an organization (Abbas & Yaqoob, 2009). Such programs aim to develop leaders by improving individuals' skills, increase participants' self-esteem, and improve performance, job involvement, and organizational commitment (Abbas & Yaqoob, 2009; Kot-Radojewska, 2018; Stephenson, 2011). Gaining such skills helps increase empowerment that improves employees' decision-making processes and helps them become more autonomous.

Overall, it is important to increase human capability that can provide a competitive advantage for promotion and advancement.

Chapter Summary

This review of current literature provided an overview of the lack of diversity, specifically for women of color in HEI administrative leadership positions. Also reviewed in this chapter are the theoretical framework and leadership theory that provided context to this problem. LMX is the theoretical framework the researcher used to analyze the relationship between a supervisor and subordinate. In addition to LMX, the relational leadership model was used to highlight the value of the relationship between leader and subordinate. This model of leadership emphasizes the relationship as a vital instrument to develop high-quality exchange, trust, collaboration, learning, and professional growth (Carmeli et al., 2012; Giles & Bills, 2017; Hempsall, 2014). Chapter 2 also included a discussion on the current state and experiences of women of color occupying administrative leadership roles in colleges and universities and the strategies they used to overcome any obstacles in their careers.

LMX focuses on the evolution of the relationship from initial stranger phase to mature relationship that allows for negotiation between members of the dyad. The process of developing dyadic partnership begins in the stranger phase, during which the leader and subordinates are strangers and the interactions are formal and contractual (Graen, Novak et al., 1982; Graen et al., 1986; Scandura & Graen, 1984). If leaders offer opportunity to develop high-quality exchanges, the relationship will progress to acquaintance stage; the exchanges are not all contractual and the leader and follower begin to share more information and resources on a work and personal level. Over time, the relationship will grow to a mature partnership; when exchanges are highly developed, the leader and follower can rely on each other for support and

loyalty. The level/quality of interaction in this relationship influences several outcomes and determines subordinate status and whether they will be classified as in-group or out-group (Bauer & Green, 1996; Dansereau et al., 1975).

Employee group status and level of interaction with the leader are influenced by several factors, including similarity, or lack of, between leader and subordinate (Liden et al., 1993; Wayne & Liden, 1995; Zhang et al., 2012). Similarity in attitude, personality, and demography such as race and gender can influence the interaction in the dyad, impacting the relationship development between leader and member (Bauer & Green, 1996; Scandura & Lankau, 1996; Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989; Turban & Jones, 1988; Wayne, & Liden, 1995; Zhang et al., 2012). When the members of the dyad are of different race and gender, there is a negative correlation to performance, job outcome/satisfaction, the quality of LMX, and rewards/promotions. This then becomes a determinant for other factors such as jobs and performance review (Bauer & Green, 1996; Heneman et al., 1989; Tsui et al., 1997; Wilhelm et al., 1993; Zhang et al., 2012).

The review of current literature also confirmed existing gaps in leadership for women of color in higher education leadership, as the racial and ethnic makeup of HEI staff, faculty, and administrators remain low and do not reflect the diversity of the student population (Espinosa et al., 2019). Although the number of women occupying HEI leadership positions has increased, women of color are still lagging behind the curve for several reasons, including juggling work and family responsibilities, cultural and societal expectations/stereotypes, hiring practices, and the lack of support and opportunities for advancement (Andruskiw & Howes, 1980; Bajdo & Dickson, 2001; Espinosa et al., 2019; Gupta, 1983; C. Hill et al., 2016; Johnson, 2017; Redmond et al., 2017; Surna, 2018). Some strategies to overcoming barriers to an administrative leadership

role in HEIs include securing mentorship and sponsorship from more experienced leaders in the field and taking necessary steps to grow and develop skills needed for advancement.

To combat the gender and racial power gaps embedded within HEIs, bold systemic change is needed to create new models that challenges the status quo, instead of reinforcing it (Sibert et al., 2022). Things need to be done differently in order to change the culture, systems, and mechanisms in place (Hempsall, 2014). There is a need for institutions to provide better support and opportunities for individuals to develop as leaders throughout their careers and to manage the internal leadership pipeline more effectively.

Chapter 3: Methodology

Chapter Structure

This qualitative research study is designed to understand the strategies that enabled women of color to attain administrative leadership positions in HEIs. This study was designed to contribute to the body of knowledge through verifiable research methods. Therefore, all aspects of the study design are necessary for accuracy, interpreting participants responses, and translating them to practices by women of color. In this chapter, the researcher provides descriptions of the selected methodology, components of the research design, and an overview of the protection of human subjects. Also outlined in this chapter are the process of data collection, interview protocol, and data analysis. The researcher also includes the measures taken to ensure credibility (validity) and consistency (reliability) of the procedure and researcher's methods for minimizing personal bias.

Purpose Statement and Research Questions

The purpose of the study is to understand what leader-member exchange strategies have enabled women of color pursue administrative leadership positions in California Higher Education Institution. This study is framed around the following research questions:

- RQ1: Main Question: What LMX strategies have enabled women of color to pursue administrative leadership positions in California HEIs?
 - a. What mentoring strategies encouraged women of color to pursue administrative leadership positions?
 - b. What respectful strategies encouraged women of color to pursue administrative leadership positions?

- c. What communication strategies encouraged women of color to pursue administrative leadership positions?

Qualitative Research and Narrative Inquiry

This study is a qualitative research study that is intended to explore lived experiences of individuals associated in a study (Roberts & Hyatt, 2019). Qualitative research is used to study research problems by addressing meaning ascribed to a social or human problem (Creswell & Poth, 2018). This type of research is best suited when the variables of a problem are unknown and used to explore a problem to gain understanding of the issue and the context in which the participants address the problem (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019; Creswell & Poth, 2018).

Given that this study is an interpretative study, there are several frameworks that could be used alongside qualitative studies (Creswell & Poth, 2018). The framework used in this qualitative study is social constructivism. Creswell and Poth (2018) described social constructivism as a way to understand the world the participants live in and how it works. This framework recognizes that one's background shapes their interpretation and it focuses on the participants' views and interpretations of their account of experience (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Delgado, 1989). This philosophical approach for social constructivism requires a literary style of writing and an inductive method of obtaining ideas. This includes methods such as interviews, observation, and text analysis. This approach is in alignment with narrative inquiry as the study design.

Narrative inquiry as a method of obtaining data for a qualitative study is applicable for this research, as narrative inquiry relies on subjective data (Wang & Geale, 2015). Narrative inquiry is the exploration of the cultural, social, familial, and institutional narratives from which individuals' experiences are shaped and expressed (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Creswell and Poth

(2018) characterized narrative inquiry to include (a) collecting stories from individuals about lived experiences; (b) the stories shed light on the individuals and how they see themselves; (c) narrative stories occur within specific context, including emotional, physical, and social situations; and (d) stories can be gathered in various ways, including interviews. There are several types of narratives that guide the collection of stories (Creswell & Poth, 2018). The researcher will utilize oral history, which consists of gathering reflections of events with specific context. Details needed to understand the problem can be established by talking with people and allowing them to tell their stories (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Delgado, 1989). This type of research can be conducted by collecting data from a small group of individuals (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019). Data can be collected from several sources, including journals, photos, and interviews. The data is then analyzed and interpreted to determine the larger meaning of study findings.

Data Source

Data for a qualitative study using narrative inquiry design can be gathered through interviews/conversations that are transcribed and used for the basis of reflection (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Creswell & Guetterman, 2019; Creswell & Poth, 2018; Kumar, 2014; Richard & Morse, 2013). As the study seeks to determine the strategies that women of color used to attain leadership positions in HEIs, the sample population will consist of women of color in mid- to high-level administrative roles in a California HEI. This will include colleges and universities that are (a) private and public, (b) nonprofit, and (c) 4-year college or university. The participants' titles may include director, provost, department chair, dean, and chief diversity official. The researcher also seeks to have participants who hold postgraduate degrees, including a master's degrees and doctorate degrees (Ed.D, PhD, J.D, M.D., and more).

Sample Population

Obtaining an adequate sample is vital for a research design to ensure that enough data are collected for analysis (Marshall et al., 2013). The consideration that the size of the desired population is small remains a factor that can reduce the size of the sample population. Another limiting factor is the possibility that an invitation to participate in the study will either be declined, potential participants will not be available, or they may not agree to their responses being transcribed during the interview. Additionally, for qualitative research, reporting details about each participant and analyzing the data from each respondent will take a considerable amount of time (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019).

There is no specific guideline on how many participants should be included in a qualitative study; however, based on the factors discussed above and the suggestions from several literature sources, the researcher aims to interview seven (7) participants (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Creswell & Guetterman, 2019; Marshall et al., 2013; Moser & Korstjens, 2018). This is a size that will be adequate for the richness of data. Although the researcher cannot guarantee that selected participants will be representative of the population, it is expected that the population will share similar strategies; therefore, the findings of the study can be assumed to be representative of the larger population.

Criterion-Based Sampling

Participants for this study will be purposefully sampled to ensure that participants selected for the study meet the criteria discussed below (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Creswell & Guetterman, 2019; Roberts & Hyatt, 2019). Purposeful sampling is also vital to attain maximal variation to ensure that the sample population differs on some traits (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019). This technique will be employed to get a range of racial and ethnic composition among

the participants. Researcher will invite participants that are motivated to share information and not hesitant to speak with the researcher (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019; Kumar, 2014).

The study participants will be identified using convenience sampling to obtain the desired sample size. Participants will be selected based on availability and willingness to participate in the study (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Kumar, 2014). The researcher will identify administrators who meet the inclusion criteria through professional networking site, LinkedIn. network. The researcher will send potential participants the recruitment invitation (see Appendix C) via LinkedIn InMail.

Criteria for Inclusion

Criteria for inclusion are the characteristics that the researcher will utilize to include participants in the study. The criteria are aligned with the research questions, the purpose of the study, and the target population. The criteria to participate in the study include:

- The participants will be women of color.
- The participants will currently occupy a mid- to high-level administrative leadership role.
- The participants will be currently employed in a California nonprofit HEI.
- The participants will have 5 or more years of experience in higher education.
- The participants will have a master's degree or higher.
- The participants will be available for interview virtually with the researcher.
- The participants will be willing to sign the inform consent form to participate in the study.

Exclusion Criteria

Exclusion criteria are the features or characteristics of the potential study participants who meet the inclusion criteria but present with additional characteristics that may interfere with the study success and result unfavorable outcome. Exclusion criteria comprise of potential participants who meet the inclusion criteria but

- Are not willing or available to participate in a zoom interview.
- Are not willing to sign the informed consent form to participate in the study.

Data Collection

Prior to gathering data, the researcher engaged in human subjects education and completed the CITI program's certification course (see Appendix A). In addition, the researcher will obtain approval from Pepperdine University Graduate School of Education and Psychology Institutional Review Board (IRB) to conduct the study (see Appendix B). After approval from the IRB is received, the researcher will send recruitment invitation (see Appendix C) via email to the selected individuals in her professional network providing information about the researcher, the study, and next steps for interested participants. When the researcher receives notification of acceptance to participate in the study, the researcher will send the informed consent form (see Appendix D) to interested individuals for review and signature. The researcher will also schedule a 30- to 45-minute interview and send them a copy of the interview questions.

Interview Protocol

The interview with participants will be conducted one-on-one and will be virtual, using Zoom software. Prior to starting the interview, any outstanding issues will be addressed such as obtaining a consent form from participants and the researcher answering any questions regarding the study (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019). During the interview, participants' responses will be

transcribed via Zoom to have an accurate documentation of the interview (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Creswell & Guetterman, 2019; Kumar, 2014; Richard & Morse, 2013). Although the interviews with participants will be transcribed, the researcher will also take notes of responses in case the transcripts need correction (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Creswell & Guetterman, 2019).

After the interview, the researcher will review the transcriptions for accuracy of response. The transcribed responses will be sent to participants for review for accuracy and an opportunity to make changes, corrections, or suggestions. Upon finalizing that the transcript is accurate, it will be analyzed to provide insight to address the research questions that frame the study (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Kumar, 2014; Richard & Morse, 2013).

Interview Instrument

For this study, the researcher will use semi structured interviews to collect data, a method of gathering information through a person-to-person interaction (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Kumar, 2014). This type of interview involves open-ended questions designed to cover ground pertaining to the research questions (Richard & Morse, 2013). This type of interview also requires the interviewer to ask interviewees the same questions and allows the interviewer to explain questions to respondents and raise supplemental questions and unplanned probes during the interview based on the context of the discussion (Kumar, 2014; Richard & Morse, 2013). This type of interview is useful to explore and dig deeper into the lived experience of the respondents intensively and extensively. This type of qualitative interview is purposefully designed to prompt responses from the participants with little interruption from the researcher and will be effective for identifying diversity and variety (Kumar, 2014; Richard & Morse, 2013).

Kumar (2014) recommended that in wording and structure of interview questions, they should be “clear, succinct, appropriate and relevant” (p. 183). Other recommendations regarding questions are to ensure that they are worded simply with the use of everyday language to ensure that question is not misunderstood. Additionally, the interview questions should not be ambiguous to prevent significantly different responses that can impact the researcher’s ability to draw valid conclusions from information. Kumar (2014) went on to suggest that the interview questions should not lead participants to respond in a certain direction, and they should not be judgmental or presumptuous.

Interview questions can also be closed- or open-ended, but for this study, the interview questions will be open-ended, as possible response categories or options will not be provided in the interview questions (Kumar, 2014). Asking such questions permits the respondents to create their options and allows them to describe detailed information about their lived experiences (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019). In an interview, open-ended questions can provide in-depth information that will allow the participants to express themselves freely without constraints from the researcher’s perspectives or previous findings (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019; Kumar, 2014). Such freedom of expression can serve to eliminate the possibility of bias by the researcher (Kumar, 2014). Another technique that will be used to elicit more information from the participants during the interview is the use of follow-up/subquestions (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Creswell & Guetterman, 2019). These will be employed by the researcher when there is a desire for respondents to clarify points or expand on ideas.

Below are the interview questions the researcher will ask the participants. These questions correspond with the study’s research questions. The questions are also included in the interview instrument (see Appendix E):

1. What mentoring approaches did your leader display that encouraged you to pursue administrative leadership positions?
2. What respectful approaches did your leader display that encouraged you to pursue administrative leadership positions?
3. What communication approaches did your leader display that encouraged you to pursue administrative leadership positions?
4. Potential Follow-Up Question (if expansion is needed): Provide specific examples of the mentoring/respectful/communication approaches your leader displayed.

Data Analysis and Display

Analysis of the data will commence, beginning with a transcription of the interview (Moser & Korstjens, 2018). The researcher will review zoom transcription to ensure that the transcript accurately reflects the interview experience. The transcribed interview will be coded in order to simplify and focus on specific characteristics of the data (Richard & Morse, 2013). Coding is process of organizing data from text to ideas and enables retrieval of data that can be used for interpretation. The researcher will utilize analytic coding techniques to identify themes—common threads in the data from interview responses—and sort them into categories to produce insightful findings (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Moser & Korstjens, 2018; Richard & Morse, 2013). This approach will help the researcher link the data to themes and conceptualize them into ideas. This is also a way to be alerted to new themes emerging and allows for the development, exploration, and comparison of new concepts.

Data display uses techniques to present findings in an easy, clear, and understandable manner (Kumar, 2014). The researcher will present data in a comprehensive, extensive, and effective way. This will be done through descriptions and definitions of characteristics and

patterns reflected in the data. Such narrative style of data presentation uses text to communicate the findings and helps the reader understand the content and sustain engagement. The researcher also will display the results of data analysis in text and tables. The use of tables clarifies text and serves as a quick reference point for readers.

Ethical Considerations

As there are many stakeholders involved in any study, it is essential to consider any ethical issues in relation research participants, the researcher, and sponsoring institution (Kumar, 2014). Since this research will involve collecting data from human subjects, protecting participants is important to protect the integrity of the research (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Other ethical considerations for researcher also involve guarding against impropriety that may reflect on the interviewees' organization.

Informed Consent

This research involves human subjects; therefore, approval will be sought from Pepperdine University's IRB (see Appendix B). The IRB will review the study for potential risks and impacts on study participants (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). In addition, participants will sign an informed consent form (see Appendix D) that contains elements of protecting human rights, including identification of researcher, sponsoring institution, purpose of study, level of participation, risks, and benefits for participation. The form will also provide information regarding participants' choice to withdraw from the study at any time and include contact information if they have questions. Interviewees' signatures on the form will serve as an agreement to the provisions of the study protocol.

Protection of Human Subjects

It is important to minimize risk to study participants. The researcher will delete any zoom data of the interview once the transcription is finalized. The researcher also will store all electronic data on a password-protected computer. Any hard-copy documents will be secured in a locked file cabinet that is accessible to only the researcher. The researcher will securely store all data for 3 years after the completion of study and destroy it in the allotted time.

To ensure anonymity, participants names and any identifiers will be removed (Richard & Morse, 2013). In the data report, participants will be deidentified; their names and other identifying information will be removed. Each interviewee will be assigned an identifying code such as Participant 1, Participant 2, Participant 3, and so forth. If any information needs to be reported for context, the researcher will obfuscate such information to maintain the confidentiality of participants' identities and organizations discussed.

Research Quality Assurance

Credibility

Credibility is based on determining if the study findings are accurate, trustworthy, and authentic (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Credibility is similar to validity, the degree to which a research instrument measures what it was designed to measure (Kumar, 2014). The researcher will employ multiple ways to ensure consistency in the study, including content validity. Content validity establishes credibility through logic by linking the interview questions to the research questions (Kumar, 2014). To ensure correspondence between interview questions and research questions, the researcher created a table to provide a visual alignment (see Table 1). As the logic of content validity is subjective, other methods of validity will be incorporated into the research protocol (Kumar, 2014).

Table 1*Research Questions and Corresponding Interview Questions*

Research Questions	Interview Questions
What mentoring strategies encouraged women of color to pursue administrative leadership positions?	What mentoring approaches did your leader display that encouraged you to pursue administrative leadership positions?
What respectful strategies encouraged women of color to pursue administrative leadership positions?	What respectful approaches did your leader display that encouraged you to pursue administrative leadership positions?
What communication strategies encouraged women of color to pursue administrative leadership positions?	What communication approaches did your leader display that encouraged you to pursue administrative leadership positions?

Consistency

For the purpose of this study, consistency is used interchangeably with reliability which indicates if the study protocol is consistent (Richard & Morse, 2013). Reliability is defined as consistent, dependable, and predictable (Kumar, 2014). In this context, it means that the research tool and method of analysis are consistent, accurate, and reliable. Reliability of a study indicates that the study protocol is consistent and establishes processes for checking reliability that are essential to ensure consistency (Richard & Morse, 2013). Data collection will be through a semi structured interview, so the participants will be asked the same questions in the same order, creating consistency in the data collection (Richard & Morse, 2013).

The researcher will also enlist assistance from another coder to ensure reliability (Richard & Morse, 2013). The second coder will be selected from doctoral students who have successfully

completed their research courses in a Doctor of Organizational Leadership program. Consistency in data analysis will be achieved, as the researcher will develop a coding frame and definitions of codes (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; O'Connor & Joffe, 2020; Richard & Morse, 2013). The coding frame will be utilized to organize and segment data into categories and into units. The data will be labeled with codes. The coding frames and definitions developed by the researcher will be reviewed and utilized by a secondary coder in order to determine accurately Inter-coder Reliability (ICR).

ICR is a measure of the agreement when data are coded by more than one coder (O'Connor & Joffe, 2020). There are several methods to quantify measures of reliability by multiple coders. For this study, the researcher will calculate it by reporting the percentage of data units that was agreed upon by both coders. The ICR percentage will be determined after the researcher and second coder have reviewed the data and completed analysis. The ICR will be presented in Chapter 4, and overall findings and impact will be discussed in Chapter 5.

In addition to the above strategies, the researcher will utilize Hyatt (2017) 10-step process to support consistency of the data analysis process:

1. The researcher analyzes the raw data and then meet with the peer reviewer to review the data and coding process to identify themes.
2. The researcher will select one transcript for the purpose of familiarizing the peer reviewer with the coding process.
3. The researcher will maintain the analyzed, highlighted version of the transcript.
4. The researcher will give the second reviewer a clean (non-coded) version of the selected transcript.

5. The researcher and peer reviewer will read the transcript to familiarize the reviewer with the data from the transcripts.
6. The researcher will assist the peer reviewer to complete the analysis of the selected transcript.
7. The transcript analysis will be considered complete when the meaning units and structural descriptions are entered.
8. The peer reviewer will analyze the remaining transcripts independent of the researcher.
9. The researcher and the second reviewer will reconvene to review their identified findings and determine a consensus on the conclusions.
10. The criteria for overarching themes will be met if a majority of participants provided responses that supported the data for the theme(s).

Role of Researcher and Reflexivity

Qualitative research is interpretative research that is characterized the researcher's involvement with participants' experiences (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Creswell & Poth, 2018). Qualitative research involves the researcher reflecting on their role in the study and the potential for shaping the interpretation and themes of the study. With this, it is vital that the researcher identify reflexively their personal background and biases that may affect the interpretation of data during the study (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

To minimize bias from the researcher's involvement, the researcher will write notes about the research process and reflect on how their personal experience may shape interpretation and limit discussions about personal experiences in order not to override the methods of the study (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). In addition, the researcher will consider: (a) What is the data

telling the researcher?; (b) What does the researcher want to know?; and (c) What is the relationship between what the data is telling the researcher and what the researcher wants to know? (Srivastava & Hopwood, 2009). Adopting this approach will help the researcher maintain objectivity and identify potential bias.

Chapter Summary

In this chapter, the researcher presented a review of the qualitative research method and design the researcher intends to use for this study. Chapter 3 included a restatement of the research questions, the research methodology, study design, ethical considerations and protocol for human subject protection, sources of data, data collection protocol, and quality assurance strategies. Chapter 4 includes the findings of the study, and Chapter 5, discusses implications of findings and recommendations for future study.

Chapter 4: Results and Data Analysis

Chapter Structure

In this chapter, the researcher shares the results of this study. Also included in this chapter are: (a) the research and interview questions that guided study; (b) a description of the study participants' selection process; (c) an overview of the participants, protocols for data collection, and analysis; and (d) methods taken to establish credibility and consistency for the study.

Research and Interview Questions

This qualitative study is based on LMX as a theoretical framework with the purpose of understanding the LMX strategies that enabled women of color to pursue administrative leadership positions in California HEIs. The main research question that guided this study is: What LMX strategies have enabled women of color to pursue administrative leadership positions in California HEIs? The following questions were developed to inform and provide answers for the main research question:

- What mentoring strategies encouraged women of color to pursue administrative leadership positions?
- What respectful strategies encouraged women of color to pursue administrative leadership positions?
- What communication strategies encouraged women of color to pursue administrative leadership positions?

Based on the above research questions, interview questions were developed and utilized to conduct semistructured interviews for the study.

- What mentoring approaches did your leader display that encouraged you to pursue administrative leadership positions?
- What respectful approaches did your leader display that encouraged you to pursue administrative leadership positions?
- What communication approaches did your leader display that encouraged you to pursue administrative leadership positions?
- Potential Follow-Up Question (if expansion is needed): Provide specific examples of the mentoring/respectful/communication approaches your leader displayed.

Participant Selection Process

Following IRB approval, the researcher proceeded to recruit women of color administrators to participate in the study. Participants were identified and selected through the professional networking site, LinkedIn. Below are the steps the researcher took to identify and selecting participants:

1. The researcher conducted a general search on LinkedIn; the researcher conducted this search by using the phrase “women of color leadership in higher education.”
2. The researcher used filters to limit search results to those in California.
3. The researcher reviewed the resulting profiles to determine who met the inclusion criteria.
 - a. The LinkedIn profiles included a photograph of the potential participants, their pronouns, their current role, and past work experiences.
4. On a spreadsheet, the researcher created a list of potential participants who met the inclusion criteria.

- a. The spreadsheet indicated their race, job titles, degree, and approximated years of experience.
 - b. Participants were also asked to confirm age range, race, and years of experience during the interview.
5. The researcher sent recruitment invitation (See Appendix C) to potential participants via LinkedIn InMail.
6. Upon receiving email from potential participants who expressed interest in the research study, the researcher sent a follow up email to:
 - a. Schedule a date and time for the virtual interview. The researcher provided multiple availabilities (dates and time) from which participants could select.
 - b. Provide informed consent form for the potential participant for review. The consent form was sent via adobe acrobat for convenience in obtaining participants' e-signature prior to interview commencing.
 - c. Share interview questions with participants; participants were informed that follow-up questions may be asked based on their responses.
7. Once a date and time of interview were agreed upon, the researcher sent a calendar invitation to the participant.
8. The invitation included the Zoom link needed for participants to join the scheduled interview on the agreed upon time.

Overview of Study Participants

The researcher sent the recruitment invitation via LinkedIn InMail to 33 women of color who met the inclusion criteria. Twelve responses were received, and a total of seven women of color participated in this study. The participants of this study occupied administrative leadership

position in a California HEI. The institutions where they hold leadership roles included public, private, religious, and nonreligious affiliated institutions. Participants' titles included assistant director, director, vice provost and vice president. The participants also had between 12 and 20 years of experience in higher education.

The majority of the participants have spent their entire careers in higher education, and some of the participants had experience in other industries such as marketing and technology prior to entering higher education. Five of the study participants had most or all of experience in higher education in California. The study participants were of Black/African American and Hispanic/Latinx descent. See Table 2 for a description of each participant.

Table 2

Participant Information

Participants Pseudonym	Current Position	Degree	Race/Ethnicity	Age Range	Years of Experience in HEI
P1	Assistant Director	M.A.	Latinx	40–49	12
P2	Director	Ed.D.	Black	30–39	13
P3	Director	Psy.D.	Black	50–59	15
P4	Vice Provost	Ph.D.	Latinx	40–49	15
P5	Vice President	Ph.D.	Latinx	40–49	20+
P6	Vice President	Ph.D.	Black	30–39	13
P7	Associate Director	M.A.	Latinx	30–39	15

Data Collection

Study data were collected through semistructured interview. Zoom software was used to conduct and transcribe the interviews. On the agreed upon date and time, the interview began

with the researcher confirming that the informed consent form was signed. The researcher also answered any questions the participants had prior to interview commencing. Below is an outline of the steps taken during the interview.

1. Prior to transcription commencing, the participants were asked to change their display name to reflect Participant. This was done to maintain participants' anonymity during data collection.
 - a. The closed-caption (transcription) feature was initiated after Zoom display reflected Participant.
2. The researcher provided a brief overview of the study, including the purpose of the study.
3. Participants were asked to confirm their current role/title, race/ethnicity, age range, and number of years in higher education.
4. The participants were asked to introduce themselves and give a brief overview of their career journey.
5. After the participant's introduction, the researcher proceeded to ask the interview questions.
 - a. Participants were asked the same interview questions in the same order.
6. The interviews averaged approximately 40 minutes and the transcript was approximately eight to 10 pages in length.

Data Analysis

The researcher reviewed the interview transcript for accuracy. The researcher also made necessary changes to the transcript to correct any grammatical errors and to ensure the transcript did not include any information that could be used to identify the participant. The corrected

interview transcript was sent to participant for review for accuracy and an opportunity to offer comments and make changes as needed.

Upon finalizing interview transcripts, data analysis was performed manually and involved tabulating codes (O'Connor & Joffe, 2020). The researcher utilized a coding process to organize the interview responses from text to ideas. This process enabled the themes and common threads to be identified and sorted into categories to produce insightful findings (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Moser & Korstjens, 2018; Richard & Morse, 2013). The researcher developed a coding frame (definitions of codes) that was utilized to organize and segment data into categories and units (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; O'Connor & Joffe, 2020; Richard & Morse, 2013). The coding frame and definitions developed by the researcher were also reviewed and utilized by a peer reviewer (secondary coder) to calculate accurately ICR.

In its application, LMX is characterized by the (a) leader mentoring and offering opportunities to followers, (b) leader developing respect and building trust with subordinates, and (c) the quality of LMX relationships is based on good communication (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1991; N. S. Hill et al., 2014; Tse & Troth, 2013). These characteristics obtained through the researcher's literature review and interpretation of the data content, and the themes and definition in Table 3 were created and utilized to analyze the study data. All of the participants commented on the overarching themes and offered specific strategies or examples. For the purpose of this study, the criteria for theme were met when most (50% or more) of the participants' responses aligned with the concepts for the theme.

Table 3*Research Themes, Question, and Codes*

LMX Overarching Themes	Research Questions	Common Concepts/Themes
Leader offer mentorship and opportunities to followers.	What mentoring strategies encouraged women of color to pursue administrative leadership positions?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Assign tasks and assignments • Provide opportunity for growth • Challenge beyond my comfort zone • Provide networking opportunities • Provide encouragement • Believe in and seeing potential me • Provide resources • Provide visibility
Leader develops respect and build trust with followers.	What respectful strategies encouraged women of color to pursue administrative leadership positions?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interested in my ideas • Caring and empathetic • Open to feedback • Mutual Respect • Vulnerable • Regular check-in • Being authentic • Inclusive • Recognition/give credit
Leader develops high quality relationship with followers based on good communication.	What communication strategies encouraged women of color to pursue administrative leadership positions?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Active listening • Approachable • Direct communication • Multiple points to connect/communicate • One-on-one meeting • Can speak openly • Open, honest, transparent communication

Establishing Research Quality Assurance***Establishing Credibility***

The researcher utilized content validity to establish credibility by linking the interview questions to the research questions (Kumar, 2014; see Table 1). The researcher also utilized an expert reviewer who provided feedback on linking the interview questions to the research

questions and theoretical framework. Another step the researcher took to establish credibility was by reviewing each transcript, correcting any mistakes that were made by Zoom software through speech recognition, deidentifying participants. The researcher offered participants the opportunity to review the transcripts and provide corrections, changes, and suggestions.

Establishing Consistency

Kumar (2014) likened consistency to dependability, reliability, and predictability. Consistency means that the research tool and method of analysis are consistent, accurate, and reliable. For the purpose of this study, consistency is used interchangeably with reliability, which indicates if the study protocol is consistent (Richard & Morse, 2013). Establishing processes for checking reliability are essential to attain consistency for the study.

Consistency was established during the data collection and analysis process. To attain consistency during data collection, the researcher asked the participants the same questions in the same order during the semistructured interview (Richard & Morse, 2013). To achieve consistency during the data analysis process, the researcher enlisted the assistance of a second coder/peer reviewer (Richard & Morse, 2013).

The second coder was selected from Pepperdine University GSEP doctoral students who have successfully completed their Quantitative Research Design, Qualitative Research Design and Analysis and Descriptive Statistics courses in the Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership program. The researcher and the peer reviewer shared their interpretations of the data, discussed any differences, and arrived at a consensus. The researcher utilized Hyatt's (2017) 10-step process to support consistency:

1. The researcher analyzed the raw data and then met with the peer reviewer to review the data and coding process to identify themes.

2. The researcher selected one transcript that was used for the purpose of familiarizing the peer reviewer with the coding process.
3. The researcher maintained the analyzed, highlighted version of the transcript.
4. The second reviewer was given a clean (noncoded) version of the selected transcript.
5. Before the analysis, the researcher and peer reviewer read the transcript to familiarize the reviewer with the data from the transcripts and to answer any questions the peer reviewer had about the selected transcript.
6. The researcher assisted the peer reviewer to complete the analysis of the selected transcript by bracketing for reduction, synthesis of the text for structural and descriptions, and conclusions.
7. The analysis of transcript was considered complete after the meaning units and structural descriptions are entered.
8. The peer reviewer reviewed and analyzed the remaining transcripts independently of the researcher and applied the same process.
9. Upon completion of the review process for all transcripts, the researcher and the second reviewer reconvened to review their identified findings, discuss the differences, and determine a consensus on the conclusions.
10. Generally, the criteria for overarching themes were met when a majority of participants provided responses that supported the data for the theme(s).

The final step the researcher took to achieve consistency was by calculating the ICR. ICR is a measurement of the agreement between the researcher and the second coder (O'Connor & Joffe, 2020). There are multiple ways to calculate ICR; however, the most common method is to report the percentage of data units that was agreed upon by researcher and second reviewer.

ICR can be calculated for a subset of the study's data. O'Connor and Joffe (2020) indicated that double-coding and calculating ICR for 10%–25% of the data is sufficient to ensure trustworthiness of the entire data set. The subsample to calculate ICR can either be selected randomly or using a justifiable criterion. ICR is also a means of reflexivity by which analysis is improved through the dialogue between the researcher and second reviewer (O'Connor & Joffe, 2020). This creates the opportunity for clarification and discussion to identify why and how interpretation conflicts exist. For the purpose of this study, the researcher and second reviewer independently conducted a round of coding for all of the study's data. Afterward, they met to discuss differences, revised the coding frame, and came to a consensus on final themes. Table 4 contains the comparison and the agreed upon theme(s) by the researcher and peer reviewer.

Table 4

Intercoder Comparison Sheet for Researcher Question 1

Participants Pseudonym	Researcher's Theme(s)	Peer Reviewer's Theme (s)	Agreement	Disagreement
P1	• Encourage	• Encourage	1	
	• Tools & Resources	• Tools & Resources	1	
	• Provide Visibility	• Provide Visibility	1	
	• See Potential	• See Potential	1	
	• Role Model	• Role Model	1	
P2	• Provide Visibility	• Provide Visibility	1	
	• See Potential	• See Potential	1	
P3	• Encourage	• Encourage	1	
	• Tools and Resources	• Tools and Resources	1	
	• Provide Visibility	• Provide Visibility	1	
	• See Potential	• See Potential	1	
	• Role Model	• Role Model	1	
P4	• Encourage	• Encourage	1	
	• Tools and Resources	• Tools and Resources	1	
	• Provide Visibility	• Provide Visibility	1	
	• See Potential	• See Potential	1	

Participants Pseudonym	Researcher's Theme(s)	Peer Reviewer's Theme (s)	Agreement	Disagreement
P5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Tools and Resources Provide Visibility See Potential Role Model 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Role Model Encourage Tools and Resources Provide Visibility See Potential Role Model 	1 1 1 1 1 1	1
P6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Encourage Tools and Resources Provide Visibility See Potential Role Model 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Encourage Tools and Resources Provide Visibility See Potential Role Model 	1 1 1 1 1 1	
P7	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Encourage Tools and Resources Provide Visibility See Potential Role Model 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Encourage Tools and Resources Provide Visibility See Potential Role Model 	1 1 1 1 1 1	

Although there is no universally defined threshold for an acceptable ICR percentage, it is recommended that the agreement between the researcher and peer reviewer to be measured be based on ICR percentages (Landis & Koch, 1977). An ICR percentage between 0 and .20 is slight agreement, between .21 and .40 is fair agreement, between .41 and .60 is considered moderate agreement, between .61 and .80 is substantial agreement, and between .81 and 1 almost perfect agreement. Based on the information presented in Table 5, the average ICR percentage for the data was 0.90, which indicates an almost perfect agreement of trustworthiness and reliability of the data analysis process.

Table 5*Intercoder Reliability*

Participants Pseudonym	ICR
P1	0.88
P2	0.86
P3	0.89
P4	0.90
P5	0.90
P6	1.0
P7	0.89
Average	0.90

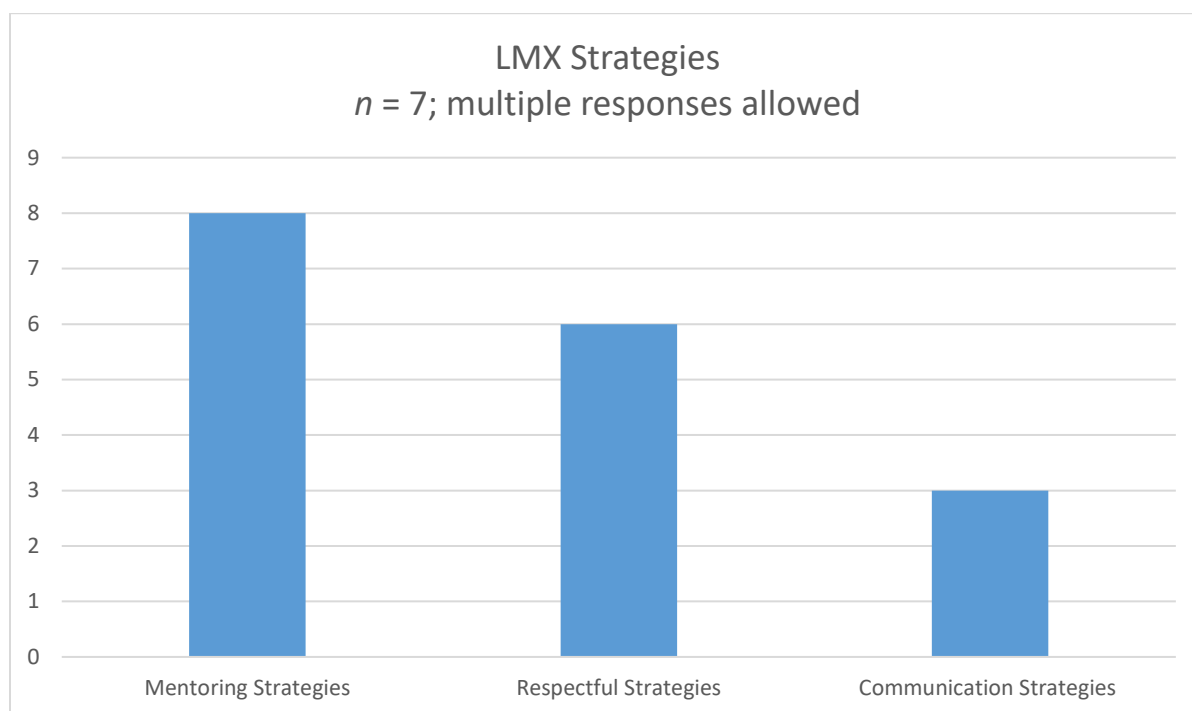
Research Results

The main research question for this study is: What LMX strategies have enabled women of color to pursue administrative leadership positions in California HEIs? Three subquestions were developed in order for the researcher to answer the main question. The subquestions and interview questions were based on the overarching LMX themes: mentorship, respect, and good communication. Each interview question resulted in responses that spoke directly to the interview question and, subsequently, the research question.

Of the seven participants, 100% answered all of the questions, therefore, strengthening the consistency of the study. During data analysis process, numerous statements and responses were identified and matched to interview questions. From the data analysis, numerous themes were identified to indicate various LMX strategies that leaders displayed (see Figure 1). These themes were further analyzed and sorted based on the overarching LMX themes.

Figure 1

Number of Initial Themes for Each Research Question



Research Question 1 and Corresponding Data

What Mentoring Strategies Encouraged Women of Color to Pursue Administrative Leadership Positions?

Interview Question 1: What mentoring approaches did your leader display that encouraged you to pursue administrative leadership positions? The majority of the participants agreed that the following mentoring strategies were essential in their leader member relationship(s) and encouraged them to pursue administrative leadership roles in an HEI: (a) provided encouragement, (b) provided opportunities for visibility, (c) were role models, (d) saw and cultivated potential, and (e) provided tools and resources (see Figure 2). Below are specific examples that speak to the mentoring strategies and approaches that their leader(s) displayed:

- Participant 1 shared that the leader she worked with provided coaching and mentorship. She encouraged us to be fearless and empowered us to have the courage to do something that was challenging. She also offered opportunities about positions and encouraged me to pursue my doctorate. (P1)
- “It was her continual encouragement and suggestions and ideas that helped me navigate where I am and to eventually move up. She continually encouraged me to branch out of my comfort zone to provide me with resources, support, and ideas about ways I could do my job better. She made it possible for me to enhance my visibility by putting me on a strategic task force and committees.” (P3)
- Participant 7 shared that the person who hired her into that job, took a chance on her and made a good faith investment in her potential. This made her very motivated to want to make good on their investment. (P7)
- “I was encouraged by my dean and by our chief diversity officer to consider going into leadership and administrative roles.” From early on she said, ‘I hope you really consider this pathway and went on to say, you could be a provost.’ When the opportunity arrived, “I was invited to step into the interim vice provost role” until I was hired permanently. (P4)
- “The leaders I worked with pushed me to think about what the future looks like, not just the present.”. (P2)
- “People poured into me. Colleagues, mentors, sponsors encouraged me, which allowed me to go into leadership position.”. (P6)
- “I remember she would give me these projects where I would be like what? I couldn’t believe she like wanted me to do them, but she just believed in me so much that it

made me believe in myself. She would have me do these things that seem massively intimidating, but she would say go for it, and she never made me feel afraid of failure.” (P5)

Figure 2

Summary of Themes for Research Question 1



Research Question 2 and Corresponding Data

What Respectful Strategies Encouraged Women of Color to Pursue Administrative Leadership Positions?

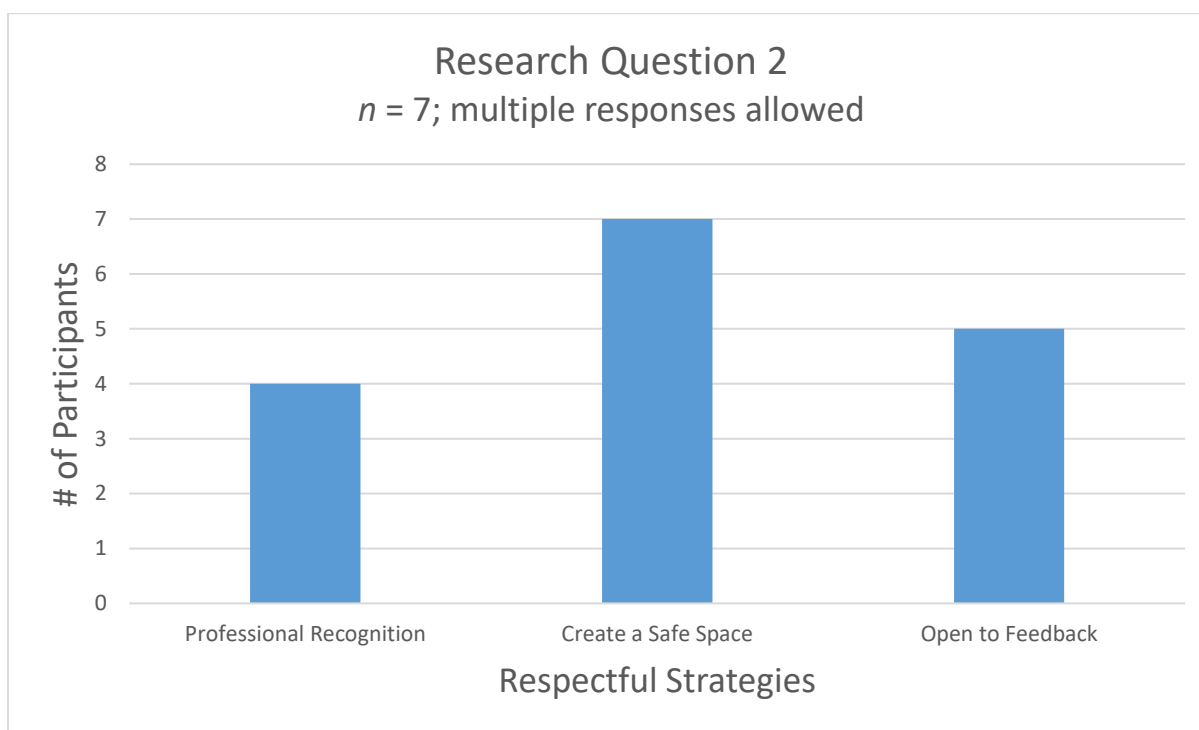
Interview Question 2: What respectful approaches did your leader display that encouraged you to pursue administrative leadership positions? The majority of the participants agreed that following respectful strategies was essential in their leader member relationship(s) and encouraged them to pursue administrative leadership roles in an HEI: (a) giving professional

recognition, (b) created a safe space, and (c) were open to feedback (see Figure 3). Here are some examples of participants' remarks that speak to the respectful strategies and approaches that their leader(s) displayed:

- “Although she was tough with me, she always made sure that her colleagues and everyone was extremely respectful of me. She always made me feel like I was really a valued thought partner. Whenever I say something, there was a lot of weight to it and I felt very valued and very listened to.” (P5)
- “The way that she interacted with me was always with respect, in consideration, willingness to listen; There were never any kind of microaggressions or passive aggressive behavior. I always felt like I could tell her anything and I could trust her.” (P3)
- “It was them pulling me into the fold of things. It could be something that doesn't even necessarily go with my job. But they're like she has these skills. So, we're going to bring her over here. And I guess it's like the saying, your name is being spoken in rooms you haven't even entered yet.” (P2)
- “I think they're all people that showed early on that they were genuinely interested in my ideas, my feedback. They really wanted to involve me in decision-making processes and showing me how it's done in making sure that I spoke up. Ask questions, shared my point of view”. (P4)
- Participant 7 described Psychological safety as a respectful strategy. She shared that the ability to just fully show up as her authentic self, and for people to know her and see the unique value she could bring to an organization or an institution, made her feel very confident and valuable. (P7)

Figure 3

Summary of Themes for Research Question 2



Research Question 3 and Corresponding Data

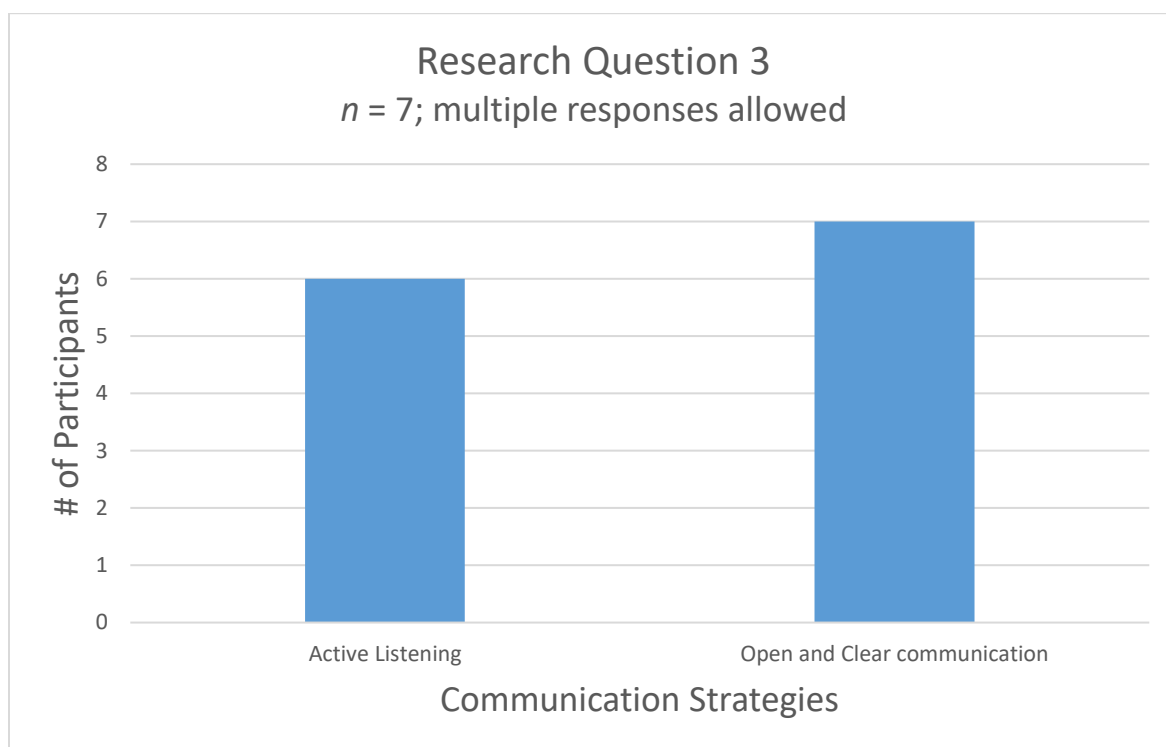
What Communication Strategies Encouraged Women of Color to Pursue Administrative Leadership Positions?

Interview Question 3: What communication approaches did your leader display that encouraged you to pursue administrative leadership positions? The majority of the participants agreed that active listening, and open and clear communication were the communication strategies in their leader-member relationship(s) and encouraged them to pursue administrative leadership roles in an HEI (see Figure 4). Below are specific examples that speak to the communications strategies and approaches that their leader(s) displayed:

- “Communicating with a sense of humor, being approachable, thoughtful, and open to feedback. That one-on-one time is key, and then also having different opportunities to connect and check-ins.” (P4)
- “She would always choose her words carefully. So, she would use language to figure out how to get through to people, how to communicate with them where they were at, how to surface issues that were unstated and bring them out but without causing massive friction.” (P3)
- “The communication one typically is very honest and very direct. I have been called out several times in the past about not having not additional publications. There are people in my circle or who are colleagues will say, What’s up? Where is your publication?” (P6)
- “We just maintained constant communication and I felt like we had very honest transparency communication. I truly did feel like I could be my authentic self with her and I didn’t feel judged, whether my personal life or my professional life; I did not feel judged ever, which I appreciated.” (P5)

Figure 4

Summary of Themes for Research Question 3



Follow-up Question and Corresponding Data

The final question of the interview was an open-ended question. The researcher asked participants to offer any other strategies that they thought were relevant to the study. Although the question was not linked to any research question, the participants responses spoke to and strengthened their responses to previous interview questions. Six of the seven participants answered this question and below are examples of the responses received.

- “Having people who have believed in me, who have seen my work and really value what I can do, and who welcomed me.” (P4)
- “She’s so supportive of me and I just feel really blessed.” (P5)

- “How can we have a level of accountability of folks who are holding leadership roles and upper administrative roles if we’re not having 360 reviews where folks feel safe to be able to provide that feedback.” (P1)
- “Have your tribe of like-minded people around you, I say, people who identify as the same markers as you. We’re all at different places in our career, but it’s just a safe space for us to encourage each other and talk openly about things.” (P2)
- “Capitalizing on opportunities from professional association. Professional associations became a mechanism for professional and development.” (P6)

Chapter Summary

Chapter 4 presented the study results that identified what LMX strategies have enabled women of color to pursue administrative leadership positions in California HEIs. This chapter also includes a review of the purpose statement, research questions, methodology, and research design. The researcher also presented the steps that were taken to identify and select study participants, the data collection and analysis process, steps taken for ethical consideration, and research quality assurance. Creswell and Creswell’s (2018) data analysis steps were followed as a guide during the data analysis process. The researcher also followed Hyatt’s (2017) 10-step process during the data analysis and calculated the ICR in an effort to increase study consistency.

The data analysis presented in Chapter 4 was based on responses collected from women of color HEI administrative leaders with the aim of answering the main research question: What LMX strategies have enabled women of color to pursue administrative leadership positions in California HEIs. This chapter ended with the findings to the study’s subresearch questions: (a) What mentoring strategies encouraged women of color to pursue administrative leadership positions?; (b) What respectful strategies encouraged women of color to pursue administrative

leadership positions?; and (c) What communication strategies encouraged women of color to pursue administrative leadership positions?

The data revealed several approaches that were displayed by their leader(s) and have encouraged the study participants to pursue administrative leadership roles in California HEIs. The mentoring strategies that emerged from the data include encouragement, opportunities for visibility, role modeling, seeing and cultivated potential, and providing tools and resources. Additionally, leaders giving professional recognition, creating a safe space, and being open to feedback were respectful strategies identified in the data. The data also showed that active listening and open and clear communication were communication strategies that leaders displayed. In the final chapter of this study, the researcher discusses the summary and implications of study findings and recommendations for future research.

Chapter 5: Discussion and Conclusion

As women and women of color are becoming more educated, there has been a mass entrance of this population into the workforce (Catalyst, 2020; Gupta, 1983; Kent, & Moss, 1994; Read & Kehm, 2016; Redmond et al., 2017). However, women of color continue to experience barriers and remain underrepresented in leadership roles (Adams et al., 2009; Brady et al., 2011; Ryan et al., 2010). This gap in leadership were highlight by the COVID-19 pandemic, and the lack of representation in senior leadership positions has brought attention to racial and gender issues (Tevis et al., 2021).

These issues exist across several industries, including higher education, as the diversity of the growing student population is not reflected at the faculty and administrative level (Espinosa et al., 2019; Johnson, 2017; McCoy & Rodricks, 2015; Tevis et al., 2021; Ward & Wolf-Wendel, 2016). The disparity for women of color in higher education remains in existence as a result of issues such as bias and discrimination, which transcend simple glass ceilings and are more evident at a higher level of power (Allen et al., 1995; Evans & Chun, 2007; Redmond et al., 2017). Therefore, it is necessary to identify strategies to address these barriers in order to improve advancement and support for women of color (Acar, 2015; Airini et al., 2011; Catalyst, 2001)

Chapter Structure

This chapter summarizes this study and includes an overview of the problem, the purpose statement, and the research questions. Brief reviews of the theoretical framework, methodology, data analysis process, ethical considerations, and steps taken to achieve credibility and consistency are included as well. This chapter also provides an overview of the findings, the

discussions and implications of findings, the researcher's recommendation for future research, and a summary.

Overview of the Study

Review of the Problem

There has been an increase in the diversity of the student population of most American university and colleges (Espinosa et al., 2019; Helms et al., 2019). However, the diversity seen in the study body is not reflected in the governing boards and other high-level leadership roles (The Campaign for College Opportunity, 2018; McCoy & Rodricks, 2015; Sibert et al., 2022).

Although women account for more than half of all college students and have earned more than 50% of all doctorate degrees since 2006, they account for only 32% of full professors, continue to occupy entry-level positions, and are not ascending to leadership positions (Johnson, 2017).

The lack of diverse faculty and administrators impacts communities of color because it could result in microaggressions, lack of support and resources, and culture shock for students of color (McCoy & Rodricks, 2015). The lack of representation of women and people of color in leadership and faculty positions can result in a less diverse curriculum, learning, and can have detrimental ripple effects across communities of color (Longman, 2018; McCoy & Rodricks, 2015).

Therefore, a more diverse group of individuals in certain executive positions should be established because leadership that is representative of the diversity of the student body can result in student success, a determinate factor of the overall health of the institution (Lennon et al., 2013; Surna, 2018). Because universities and college leaders have far-reaching influence, they have the ability to change this by to engaging in the dialogue to understand and determine

necessary course of action to increase diversity and representation (Lennon et al., 2013; McCoy & Rodricks, 2015; Surna, 2018).

Purpose of Study

Although some progress has been made, there is still a lack of diversity and representation among faculty and administrators in HEIs (Johnson, 2017). Therefore, it is necessary to address the factors that impact women of color's ability to attain administrative leadership positions in HEIs (Hannum et al., 2015). With this in mind, the purpose of this qualitative study is to understand the LMX strategies have enabled women of color to pursue administrative leadership positions in California HEIs.

Research Questions

The research questions were developed based on the application of LMX as a theoretical framework. This research study was guided by this main research question: What LMX strategies have enabled women of color to pursue administrative leadership positions in California HEIs? The following are additional questions that guided the study:

- What mentoring strategies encouraged women of color to pursue administrative leadership positions?
- What respectful strategies encouraged women of color to pursue administrative leadership positions?
- What communication strategies encouraged women of color to pursue administrative leadership positions?

Review of Theoretical Framework and Current Literature

The theoretical framework used for this research study is LMX theory. LMX is an alternative to traditional leadership approach (Gerstner & Day, 1997). LMX is an extension of

the vertical-dyad model that focuses on the relationship between a leader and a subordinate, with expected outcomes that have the potential to impact the individual, group, and organization (Collins et al., 2014; Gerstner & Day, 1997; Liden et al., 2006). This leadership theory proposes that leaders develop relationships with subordinates in the work group (Tse & Troth, 2013).

In addition to LMX, the researcher also used relational leadership theory to highlight some of the components of LMX. Relational leadership theory complements LMX as a framework because it emphasizes the importance of relationships to develop trust, learning, professional growth, and high-quality exchange (Carmeli et al., 2012; Giles & Bills, 2017; Hempsall, 2014). As an extension of LMX, the model of relational leadership highlights several components, including purpose, empowerment, and inclusivity (Komives et al., 2013). Therefore, this approach to leadership requires leaders to engage and be accountable to members (Cunliffe & Eriksen, 2011). It also requires leaders to understand the mechanisms of relationships and their ability to impact subordinates' performance (Amah, 2017). These aspects of relational leadership serve as a foundation to develop high-quality LMXs (Carmeli et al., 2012; Cunliffe & Eriksen, 2011).

The review of current literature also revealed that although progress has been made, there still exist gaps in higher education leadership for women of color (Espinosa et al., 2019). Women of color still occupy lower-level administrative positions and remain underrepresented in senior administrative positions (Pritchard et al., 2020). Such disparity exists more in 4-year HEIs than in 2-year community colleges (U.S. Department of Education, 2016). The underrepresentation can be attributed to discrimination and bias based on race and gender (C. Hill et al., 2016). Other factors that impact advancements for women of color include personal, interpersonal, and organizational/structural barriers (Airini et al., 2011; Gupta, 1983). These barriers include: (a)

successfully managing family and career responsibilities, (b) navigating cultural and societal expectations, and (c) organizational practices and policies (Bajdo & Dickson, 2001; Gupta, 1983; C. Hill et al., 2016; Johnson, 2017; Redmond et al., 2017). To increase parity and address the disparities for women of color in the HEI experience, several strategies have been identified and include mentorship, sponsorship, and leadership development programs (Giscombe & Mattis, 2002; Ng et al., 2005; Ragins, 1995).

Review of Methodology

This study was a qualitative research study to explore the experiences of women of color HEI administrators. The study was designed to understand the strategies that enabled the participants to pursue administrative leadership roles in an HEI. A qualitative methodology was best suited because it could be used to address research questions that have social or human problems ascribed to them (Creswell & Poth, 2018). This study also utilized social constructivism as a social framework. This framework was used to understand the participants' world and how it worked. Social constructivism was appropriate for this research study because it recognized the influence one's background has on their interpretation and account of experiences (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Delgado, 1989). The utilization of this framework was aligned with study design: narrative inquiry.

Narrative inquiry is used to explore the cultural and social narratives from which participants' experiences were shaped and expressed (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Data for this narrative inquiry can be obtained by collecting stories from participants. Their stories, through interviews, shed light on their experiences and their interpretation within specific contexts and situations.

Review of Participants Selection, Data Collection, and Analysis

Data were collected from a sample population that consisted of women color currently in administrative roles in a California 4-year HEIs. The study participants had more than 12-years' experience in higher education and had titles that included director, vice provost, and vice president. The participants also held advanced degrees, master's degrees, or doctorate degrees.

Upon obtaining IRB approval, the researcher identified and invited selected potential participants who met the inclusion criteria. Potential participants were sent the recruitment invitation (see Appendix C) via LinkedIn InMail. Potential participants who expressed interest received a follow up email to schedule the virtual interview; they were also sent a copy of the informed consent form (see Appendix D) and interview questions in the interview instrument (see Appendix E).

On the agreed upon date and time, the researcher conducted the interview via Zoom. The researcher answered any outstanding questions and ensured that the informed consent form was signed before interview commenced (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019). The participants responses were transcribed using the closed-captioning feature on Zoom. Upon completion of interview and transcription, study participants were sent a copy of the interview transcript to review and given an opportunity to make corrections, changes, and suggestions as needed.

After finalizing the interview transcripts, they were coded to simplify and focus on specific characteristics of the data (Richard & Morse, 2013). Coding is the process of organizing data from text to ideas and enables retrieval of data that can be used for interpretation. The researcher utilized coding techniques to identify common threads and themes in the data and sorted them into categories in order to produce insightful findings (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Moser & Korstjens, 2018; Richard & Morse, 2013). For a qualitative research study, this

approach was necessary in order for the researcher to link the data to themes, and allowed for the development, exploration, and comparison of new concepts.

Review of Research Quality Assurance

Credibility for this research study was achieved through content validity by linking the interview questions to the research questions (Kumar, 2014; see Table 1). The researcher also enlisted the assistance of a second reviewer for peer debriefing to support credibility. Consistency for this study was also achieved by calculating the ICR and utilizing Hyatt's (2017) 10-step process.

Review of Human Subject Protection

Given that this research study involves human subjects, protecting participants and guarding against impropriety was necessary in order to protect the integrity of the study (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). To achieve this, the researcher completed the CITI program's certification course (see Appendix A) prior to data collection. Prior to study commencing, the researcher also obtained approval from Pepperdine University's Graduate School of Education and Psychology IRB (see Appendix B). This process included a review and approval for the study, risk assessment, and impact on participants.

Additionally, participants were required to sign an informed consent form (see Appendix D) in order to participate in the study. The form contained elements of protecting human rights, including identification of researcher, sponsoring institution, purpose of study, level of participation, risks, benefits for participation, contact information, and participants' choice to withdraw from the study at any time. Participants signatures on the form served as an agreement to the required provisions of the research study protocol.

The final steps the researcher took to protect the participants was by taking steps to maintain anonymity (Richard & Morse, 2013). Participants' identifiers were removed and they were assigned an identifying code such as Participant 1, Participant 2, Participant 3, and so forth. The Zoom data were deleted after the transcript was finalized and the researcher stored all study data on a private password-protected computer.

Overview of Results

This research study sought to understand what LMX strategies have enabled women of color to pursue administrative leadership positions in California HEIs. A total of 10 themes were identified in this study: Five themes addressed mentoring strategies, three for respectful strategies, and two themes addressed communication strategies.

Research Question 1: What Mentoring Strategies Encouraged Women of Color to Pursue Administrative Leadership Positions?

The major themes pertaining to mentoring strategies that emerged from the data were that the leaders (a) provided encouragement, (b) provided opportunities for visibility, (c) were role models, (d) saw and cultivated potential, and (e) provided tools and resources. These themes were addressed by majority of the study participants. Below are some examples of the strategies discussed:

- Strategy (a): "Having other people encourage you to make that jump, or to help you see things in you that you might not yet see in yourself, it was really important" (P4).
- Strategy (b): "She made it possible for me to enhance my visibility by putting me on a strategic task force and committees. When there was a diversity task force that was system wide for UC schools and campuses, she recommended me to be on it, and then that gave me exposure to people." (P3)

- Strategy (c): “She was always someone who I saw as such a good role model” (P1).
- Strategy (d): “She just took an interest in me; she saw that I was passionate about the field so she began to in essence to cultivate me. I mean, she became what we truly call a mentor” (P3).
- Strategy (e): “I always feel like she was really good at giving resources and support” (P5).

Research Question 2: What Respectful Strategies Encouraged Women of Color to Pursue Administrative Leadership Positions?

The majority of the themes that emerged from the data were based on participants’ responses regarding respectful strategies that leaders displayed. The themes identified include: (a) professional recognition, (b) created a safe space, and (c) were open to feedback. These themes were addressed by majority of the study participants. Below are some examples of the strategies:

- Strategy (a): “She’s really good at challenging me and saying I want you to be in front of the president’s cabinet as much as possible, because I need them to know that you are an expert at X, Y, and Z. And they need to see it, and this is the only way they will.” (P2)
- Strategy (b): “Every morning, we all have a check-in. She wanted to know how we were doing, what’s happening in our lives, and how we were feeling? She wanted to know where our head was at the beginning of every day and it was sort of her attempt to create space for us to show up and to know where we were emotionally, mentally, physically at the beginning of every day, so that she knew how to navigate the day.” (P3)

- Strategy (c): “They display really in talking things through and saying, what do you think about this? The provost work with right now always says, hey, I have this idea, but know let me know what you really think like; He just has a genuine interest in drawing on my perspective and expertise.” (P4)

Research Question 3: What Communication Strategies Encouraged Women of Color to Pursue Administrative Leadership Positions?

The main themes regarding communication strategies that emerged from the data were that the leaders displayed (a) active listening, and (b) communicated openly and clearly. These themes were addressed by majority of the study participants. Below are some examples of the strategies: discussed:

- Strategy (a): “Being an active listener, and when she sees opportunities that opens up, she asks, is this something you’re interested in getting involved in?” (P1).
- Strategy (b): “That one-on-one time is key, and then also having different kinds of meetings with the broader leadership team for his office, or with the deans. So, it’s being brought into different communication settings with different strategic groups” (P4).

Discussion of Results

The findings of this qualitative study revealed several mentoring, respectful, and communication strategies that leaders displayed (see Table 6). The findings are intended to provide strategies that can be practiced by current HEIs administrative leaders to encourage and enable aspiring women of color to pursue and attain administrative leadership positions in HEIs. The discussion of these themes is based on the participants’ responses to the interview questions and supported by existing literature.

Table 6*LMX Strategies Demonstrated by Leaders*

Mentoring Strategies	Respectful Strategies	Communication Strategies
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Encourage • Tools and Resources • Provide Opportunity for Visibility • See Potential • Role Model 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Professional Recognition • Create a Safe Space • Open to Feedback 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Active listening • Open and Clear Communication

The data indicate that six of the study participants mentioned that their leaders provided mentorship by encouraging them and providing them with necessary tools, resources, and support needed for their jobs and career growth. Participants shared that the encouragement and support they received ranged from collaborating on projects to encouraging them to pursue opportunities. These strategies are known to result in increased confidence, resilience, and improved skills (Airini et al., 2011; Yang & Konrad, 2011). The encouragement and support received from the leaders they interfaced with and a broader network were contributing factors to their career success, were vital to navigate unfamiliar territory as they transitioned into senior leadership positions, and provided the social support needed to cope with the feeling of being an impostor (Hannum et al., 2015; Hutchins & Rainbolt, 2017; King & Ferguson, 2001; Redmond et al., 2017). Leaders who display(ed) supportive and encouraging mentoring strategies help facilitate learning, professional growth, and development for young leaders because it gives them the ability to grow and sense of autonomy (Carmeli et al., 2012; Giles & Bills, 2017; Hemsall, 2014).

In addition to the above strategies, six participants commented on their leaders being role models. They went on to share that they attempt to model the same behaviors and mentoring strategies that their leaders display(ed). This is essential because the mentors function as a source

of support, a sponsor, and role model (Airini et al., 2011; Amah, 2017; King & Ferguson, 2001; Ragins, 1995; Yang & Konrad, 2011).

All of the study participants also shared that a critical strategy their leader displayed was believing in and seeing the potential in them and empowering them to embrace their full potential (Komives et al., 2013). This aligns with O'Connor (2018), who emphasized the role of mentors and leaders as critical to one's success as a leader because they are able to speak truth into the lives of current and emerging female leaders. This helped them become more effective leaders, as they were able to overcome self-doubt and lack of confidence (Clance & Imes, 1978).

All of the participants shared that a successful mentoring strategy their leader displayed was providing opportunities for visibility. Providing opportunities for visibility consisted of leaders assigning tasks, acknowledging, and giving them credit for their work; providing access to networks and influential colleagues; and advocating for opportunities for them (Catalyst, 2001; Liu et al., 2011; Olson & Jackson, 2009; Scandura & Schriesheim, 1994; Wayne et al., 1999). Fostering positive visibility and high-quality exposure with successful role models is necessary to attain career growth and needed to improve women's concept of their leadership abilities (Airini et al., 2011; Amah, 2017; Catalyst, 2020; C. Hill et al., 2016; King & Ferguson, 2001; Ragins, 1995; Turner, 1960; Yang & Konrad, 2011).

Providing professional recognition was a respectful strategy that four of the study participants indicated that their leaders displayed and contributed to building trust and respect. Leaders giving awards and recognition is linked to members' perception and ability to develop professional respect, trust, and loyalty (Randolph-Seng et al., 2016). Another respectful strategy that emerged from the data is that the leaders the participants work(ed) with were intentional in creating a safe space. All the participants shared that this allowed them to be their authentic

selves and not feel judged. This strategy was an indication that the leader cares and caring is linked to a leader's ability to develop respect and build trust with subordinates (Redmond et al., 2017; Tse & Troth, 2013). This is vital because leaders who display caring and supportive behaviors are able to develop mutual respect and trust with members (Brower et al., 2000; Graen, Linden et al., 1982; Redmond et al., 2017).

The third respectful strategy that emerged from the data is that leaders were open to feedback. Five of the study participants provided examples of their leaders giving them the opportunity to share their views (Komives et al., 2013). This emphasizes that the leader and member are valuable contributors to the relationship and leaders count on followers to provide honest feedback, assistance, and partnership with additional tasks (Bauer & Green, 1996; Brower et al., 2000; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). This also helps improve collaboration and communication between the leader and member (Carmeli et al., 2012; Cunliffe & Eriksen, 2011).

Open and clear communication between leader and participants was a communication strategy that emerged from the data. Of the participants, 100% shared that their leaders prioritized clear and effective communication. They went on to share that their leaders provided them with multiple points of connection and communication, opportunities to share feedback, ask questions, and more. The participants' responses also indicate that the one-on-one time for communication was just as vital as the communication that occurred in group settings. This is essential because leaders' ability to develop avenues for good communication strengthens the relationship between a leader and follower (N. S. Hill et al., 2014; Komives et al., 2013).

The final communication strategy that emerged from the data was active listening and was discussed by six participants. The leaders being active listeners was characterized by them listening with intent and following up when applicable. This strategy highlighted the leader

engaging with members while allowing them to share their views (Cunliffe & Eriksen, 2011; Komives et al., 2013).

Based on the interview responses, all of the study participants shared that the leader–member strategies identified were displayed by leaders early in their career. Some of the participants shared that their leaders, including faculty and department chairs, utilized these approaches when they were in undergraduate and graduate school. This reemphasizes the idea that having a mentor early in one’s career is vital and can provide resources and development for promising women of color, which can improve women’s career ambitions and perspective of their leadership abilities (Catalyst, 2020; C. Hill et al., 2016).

Although not addressed by most participants, in response to the fourth interview question where participants were asked about additional strategies, two of the six participants’ responses addressed the same concern. Both participants commented that one strategy that is not implemented by most institutions is creating a safe space for employees to provide feedback and their voices to be heard. One of the participants suggested that this can be achieved by having 360 reviews through which individuals can provide feedback for their supervisors without fear of retaliation. She went on to share that doing so will create a level of accountability for individuals in leadership roles. This strengthens the study’s findings that creating a safe space and being open to feedback are approaches that have encouraged the participants to pursue higher education administrative leadership roles. It also highlights the concept that higher-quality relationships between leaders and members is based on followers providing honest feedback (Bauer & Green, 1996; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

Three of the seven study participants had some of their career experience in higher education outside California. Two of these participants had more than 5 years’ experience in

higher education in other states. In their responses, they both commented and shared that the level of mentorship, support, and sponsorship they received was higher in other states compared to California. They went on to share that a significant difference with their experience in California is that they have had to seek out opportunities and find their way. One of the participants also mentioned that this has been a hinderance to her growth. This finding raises the question of how strategies may differ in different regions of the country.

Implications of Results

This qualitative study revealed several LMX strategies leaders displayed that have enabled women of color pursue to administrative leadership positions in California HEIs. The mentoring strategies that were identified include encouragement, opportunities for visibility, role modeling, seeing and cultivated potential, and providing tools and resources. Additionally, leaders providing professional recognition, creating a safe space, and being open to feedback were respectful strategies that were revealed in the data. The data also revealed that active listening and open and clear communication were communication strategies that leaders displayed that encouraged women of color to pursue administrative leadership roles in HEIs.

The study results are compelling and consistent with existing literature that LMX is characterized by the (a) leader providing mentorship and opportunities to their subordinates, (b) leader taking steps to develop respect and build trust with subordinates, and (c) the leader developing high-quality relationships with members based on good communication (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1991; N. S. Hill et al., 2014; Tse & Troth, 2013). The study results also indicate an intersection/overlap of the mentoring, respectful, and communication strategies. The study participants shared that some of the strategies their leader displayed served as more than one overarching LMX theme/strategy. Some study participants shared that opportunity for visibility

such as giving credit and recognition served as a mentoring strategy as well as an avenue to develop respect and build trust with their leader (Randolph-Seng et al., 2016).

The results of the study also highlight the complementary aspect of LMX and relational leadership theories. It emphasizes the impact the relationship between a leader and an employee can have on opportunities for advancement (Brower et al., 2000; Komives et al., 2013; Uhl-Bien, 2006). The strategies that emerged presents as tools that can be utilized for the growth, development, and advancement of women of color in HEIs.

The strategies identified in this study are also necessary to address the personal, interpersonal, and organizational/structural barriers that women of color may face (Airini et al., 2011; Gupta, 1983). Seeing the potential and empowering emerging women of color has the potential to address some personal and interpersonal barriers that aspiring women of color may encounter in their journey to attain administrative leadership position in HEIs (Komives et al., 2013). To address some organizational and structural barriers, leaders and mentors can provide encouragement, support, and resources needed to navigate unfamiliar territory (Hannum et al., 2015; King & Ferguson, 2001; Redmond et al., 2017).

A significant implication of the findings of the study is that the strategies identified can be applied at the individual, group, and organizational levels (Gerstner & Day, 1997). The study results are vital for young women of color who aspire to advance to administrative leadership positions in HEIs. Women of color can utilize the study results to identify and seek mentors who are able to display mentoring, respectful, and communication strategies.

The findings also suggests that HEIs leaders play a role in developing the career paths and trajectory for women to color to advance into administrative leadership positions (Airini et al., 2011). This is significant because the study results can be applied by current administrative

leaders in HEIs. The study participants believed that the strategies identified contributed to their career journey and their successfully attaining administrative leadership roles in HEIs. Therefore, to address the disparity and lack of representation, it is vital current female administrators take steps in applying the identified strategies (Andruskiw & Howes, 1980; Catalyst, 2001; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1991; Gupta, 1983; N. S. Hill et al., 2014; Tse & Troth, 2013).

The findings are also significant at the institutional level by highlighting the need for institutions to provide better support and opportunities for individuals to develop as leaders throughout their careers and to manage the internal leadership pipeline more effectively (Hempsall, 2014). They also strengthen the findings of previous literature that call for HEIs to establish structures that provide opportunities for aspiring women of color administrative leaders to get mentorships from more experienced administrative leaders (Abbas & Yaqoob, 2009; Kot-Radojewska, 2018; Redmond et al., 2017; Stephenson, 2011).

Recommendations for Future Research

Current literature shows that mentorship, sponsorship, and leadership development programs are successful strategies women of color have used to overcome existing barriers to attain administrative leadership positions (Giscombe & Mattis, 2002; Ng et al., 2005; Ragins, 1995). Because this qualitative study focused on understanding mentoring strategies that have enabled women of color to pursue administrative leadership positions, further research may benefit from exploring what sponsoring and leadership development strategies enabled women of color to pursue administrative leadership positions in HEIs.

Another recommendation for future research is to explore this topic based on the type of institution. A similar methodology may be utilized to examine how mentoring, respectful, and communication strategies may differ for women of color based on the type of HEI. Such research

could potentially explore strategies in (a) religious versus nonreligious affiliated institutions, (b) private versus public institutions, or (c) large public or regional universities or community colleges.

An additional recommendation for future research is to expand the study to participants outside California. This might be beneficial, as it will provide researchers with the opportunity to identify strategies from a more diverse sample size and include participants of races other than Black/African American and Hispanic/Latinx. In addition to diversifying the racial makeup of the study sample, expanding the study outside California will also provide researchers with the opportunity to conduct a comparative study to explore if and how LMX strategies leaders displayed differ based on region of the country. In so doing, scholars may uncover other themes that could strengthen the research.

Chapter Summary

The purpose of the study is to understand what LMX strategies have enabled women of color pursue administrative leadership positions in California HEIs. The results of this study align with existing literature that suggests that high LMX is characterized by the (a) leader mentoring and offering opportunities to followers, (b) leader developing respect and building trust with subordinates, and (c) the quality of LMX relationships is based on good communication (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1991; N. S. Hill et al., 2014; Tse & Troth, 2013). By identifying several mentoring, respectful, and communication strategies, it provides HEIs administrative leaders with practical tools that can be employed to encourage aspiring women of color to pursue leadership roles in higher education. The findings of this study also add to the existing body of knowledge on women of color leaders and leadership in higher education.

REFERENCES

- Abbas, Q., & Yaqoob, S. (2009). Effect of leadership development on employee performance in Pakistan. *Pakistan Economic and Social Review*, 47(2), 269–292.
www.jstor.org/stable/25825356
- Acar, F. (2015). Gender differences in promotions to top level management positions: An examination of glass cliff in the IT sector. *Procedia—Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 210, 223–230. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.11.362>
- Adams, S. M., Gupta, A., & Leeth, J. D. (2009). Are female executives over-represented in precarious leadership positions? *British Journal of Management*, 20(1), 1–12.
<https://doi-org.lib.pepperdine.edu/10.1111/j.1467-8551.2007.00549.x>
- Airini, Collings, S., Conner, L., McPherson, K., Midson, B., & Wilson, C. (2011). Learning to be leaders in higher education: What helps or hinders women’s advancement as leaders in universities. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 39(1), 44–62.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1741143210383896>
- Allen, K., Jacobson, S., & Lomotey, K. (1995). African American women in educational administration: The importance of mentors and sponsors. *The Journal of Negro Education*, 64(4), 409–422. <http://www.jstor.com/stable/2967264>
- Allison, M. T. (1999). Organizational barriers to diversity in the workplace. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 31(1), 78–101. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00222216.1999.11949852>
- Amah, O. E. (2017). Leadership styles & relational energy in high quality mentoring relationship. *Indian Journal of Industrial Relations*, 53(1), 59–71.
<https://www.jstor.org/stable/26536437>
- American Association of University Women. (2018). *The simple truth about the gender pay gap*.
<https://www.aauw.org/app/uploads/2020/02/AAUW-2018-SimpleTruth-nsa.pdf>
- Andruskiw, O., & Howes, N. J. (1980). That stereotype attitudes influence evaluations of women as administrators in higher education. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 51(5), 475–496.
<https://www.jstor.org/stable/1981402>
- Association of Independent California Colleges and Universities. (2020). 2020 impact report.
https://cdn.ymaws.com/aiccu.edu/resource/resmgr/publications/2020/impactreport2020_final.pdf
- Bauer, T., & Green, S. (1996). Development of leader-member exchange: A longitudinal test. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 39(6), 1538–1567.
<http://www.jstor.org/stable/257068>

- Bajdo, L. M., & Dickson, M. W. (2001). Perceptions of organizational culture and women's advancement in organizations: A cross-cultural examination. *Sex Roles*, 45(5/6), 399–414. <https://search-ebscohost-com.lib.pepperdine.edu/login.aspx?direct=true&db=eft&AN=507704077&site=ehost-live&scope=site>
- Bhatt, W. (2013). The little brown woman: Gender discrimination in American medicine. *Gender and Society*, 27(5), 659–680. <http://www.jstor.com/stable/43669822>
- Bollinger, L. C. (2003). The need for diversity in higher education. *Academic Medicine*, 78(5), 431–436. https://journals.lww.com/academicmedicine/Fulltext/2003/05000/The_Need_for_Diversity_in_Higher_Education.2.aspx
- Brady, D., Isaacs, K., Reeves, M., Burroway, R., & Reynolds, M. (2011). Sector, size, stability, and scandal: Explaining the presence of female executives in *Fortune* 500 firms. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 26(1), 84–104. <https://www-emerald-com.lib.pepperdine.edu/insight/content/doi/10.1108/17542411111109327/full/pdf?title=sector-size-stability-and-scandal-explaining-the-presence-of-female-executives-in-fortune-500-firms>
- Brower, H. H., Schoorman, F. D., & Tan, H. H. (2000). A model of relational leadership: The integration of trust and leader-member exchange. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 11(2), 227–250. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1048-9843\(00\)00040-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1048-9843(00)00040-0)
- Bryant, R. M., & Constantine, M. G. (2006). Multiple role balance, job satisfaction, and life satisfaction in women school counselors. *Professional School Counseling*, 9(4), 265–271. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/42732685>
- The Campaign for College Opportunity. (2018). Left out: California's higher education governing boards do not reflect the racial and gender diversity of California and its student body. *The Campaign for College Opportunity*. <https://collegecampaign.org/wp-content/uploads/2018/07/Governance-Brief-FINAL.pdf>
- Carmeli, A., Tishler, A., & Edmondson, A. C. (2012). CEO relational leadership and strategic decision quality in top management teams: The role of team trust and learning from failure. *Strategic Organization*, 10(1), 31–54. doi:10.1177/1476127011434797
- Catalyst. (2001). *Women of color: Their voices, their journeys*. https://www.catalyst.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/01/women_of_color_executives_voices_journeys.pdf
- Catalyst. (2020). *Too few women of color on boards: Statistics and solutions*. https://www.catalyst.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/01/WOB_TooFewWomen.pdf
- Chun, J., Sosik, J., & Yun, N. (2012). A longitudinal study of mentor and protégé outcomes in formal mentoring relationships. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 33(8), 1071–1094. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/41683986>

- Clance, P. R., & Imes, S. A. (1978). The imposter phenomenon in high achieving women: Dynamics and therapeutic intervention. *Psychotherapy: Theory, Research & Practice*, 15(3), 241–247. <https://doi.org/10.1037/h0086006>
- Collins, B. J., Burrus, C. J., & Meyer, R. D. (2014). Gender differences in the impact of leadership styles on subordinate embeddedness and job satisfaction. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 25(4), 660–671. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2014.02.003>
- Crenshaw, K. (1988). Race, reform, and retrenchment: Transformation and legitimation in antidiscrimination law. *Harvard Law Review*, 101(7), 1331–1387. <http://shain003.grads.digitalodu.com/blog/wp-content/uploads/2014/09/Race-Reform-Retrenchment.pdf>
- Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D. (2018). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative & mixed methods approaches* (5th ed.). Sage Publications.
- Creswell, J. W., & Guetterman, T. C. (2019). *Education research: Planning, conducting and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research* (6th ed.). Pearson.
- Creswell, J. W., & Poth, C. N. (2018). *Qualitative inquiry & research design: Choosing among five approaches* (4th ed.). Sage Publications.
- Cunliffe, A. L., & Eriksen, M. (2011). Relational leadership. *Human Relations*, 64(11), 1425–1449. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726711418388>
- Dai, G., De Meuse, K. P., & Tang, K. Y. (2013). The role of learning agility in executive career success: The results of two field studies. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 25(2), 108–131. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/43488163>
- Dansereau, F., Cashman J., & Graen, G. (1973). Instrumentality theory and equity theory as complementary approaches in predicting the relationship of leadership and turnover among managers. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 10(2), 184–200. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0030-5073\(73\)90012-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/0030-5073(73)90012-3)
- Dansereau, F., Graen, G., & Haga, W. J. (1975). A vertical dyad linkage approach to leadership within formal organizations: A longitudinal investigation of the roles making process. *Organizational Behavior & Human Performance*, 13, 46–78. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/222986304_A_Vertical_Dyad_Linkage_Approach_to_Leadership_Within_Formal_Organizations
- Delgado, R. (1989). Storytelling for oppositionists and others: A plea for narrative. *Michigan Law Review*, 87(8), 2411–2441. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/1289308>
- Delgado, R., & Stefancic, J. (2017). *Critical race theory: An introduction* (3rd ed.). New York University Press.

- Dienesch, R. M., & Liden, R. C. (1986). Leader-member exchange model of leadership: A critique and further development. *The Academy of Management Review*, 11(3), 618–634. <https://doi.org/10.2307/258314>
- Emrich, C., Livingston, M., Pruner, D., Oberfield, L., Page, S., & Pruner, D. (2017). Creating a culture of mentorship. *Heidrick & Struggles*. doi:[10.13140/RG.2.2.10649.11365](https://doi.org/10.13140/RG.2.2.10649.11365)
- Espinosa, L. L., Turk, J. M., Taylor, M., & Chessman, H. M. (2019). *Race and ethnicity in higher education: A status report*. American Council on Education. <https://1xfsu31b52d33idlp13twtos-wpengine.netdna-ssl.com/wp-content/uploads/2019/02/Race-and-Ethnicity-in-Higher-Education.pdf>
- Evans, A., & Chun, E. B. (2007). The theoretical framework: Psychosocial oppression and diversity. *Ashe Higher Education Report*, 33, 1–133. <https://doi-org.lib.pepperdine.edu/10.1002/aehe.3301>
- Ford, J. M., & Greguras, G. J. (2006). An examination of multidimensionality of supervisor and subordinate perceptions of leader member exchange. *Journal of Occupation and Organizational Psychology*, 79, 433–465. <https://doi-org.lib.pepperdine.edu/10.1348/096317905X53859>
- Gasman, M., Abiola, U., & Travers, C. (2015). Diversity and senior leadership at elite institutions of higher education. *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education*, 8(1), 1–14. <https://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0038872>
- Gerstner, C. R., & Day, D. V. (1997). Meta-analytic review of leader-member exchange theory: Correlates and construct issues. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82(6), 827–844. <https://doi-org.lib.pepperdine.edu/10.1037/0021-9010.82.6.827>
- Giles, D., & Bills, A. (2017). Designing and using an organizational culture inquiry tool to glimpse the relational nature of leadership and organizational culture within a south Australian primary school. *School Leadership & Management*, 37(1–2), 120–140. <https://doi-org.lib.pepperdine.edu/10.1080/13632434.2017.1293637>
- Giscombe, K., & Mattis, M. (2002). Leveling the playing field for women of color in corporate management: Is the business case enough? *Journal of Business Ethics*, 37(1), 103–119. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/25074736>
- Goleman, D. (2000, March/April). Leadership that gets results. *Harvard Business Review*. <https://hbr.org/2000/03/leadership-that-gets-results>
- Graen, G. B., Liden, R. C., & Hoel, W. (1982). Role of leadership in the employee withdrawal process. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 67(6), 868–872. <https://doi.org/10.1037//0021-9010.67.6.868>

- Graen, G., Novak, M. A., & Sommerkamp, P. (1982). The effects of leader—member exchange and job design on productivity and satisfaction: Testing a dual attachment model. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 30(1), 109–131. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0030-5073\(82\)90236-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/0030-5073(82)90236-7)
- Graen, G. B., Scandura, T. A., & Graen, M. R. (1986). A field experimental test of the moderating effects of growth need strength on productivity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71(3), 484–491. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.71.3.484>
- Graen, G. B., & Uhl-Bien, M. (1991). The transformation of professionals into self-managing and partially self-designing contributions: Toward a theory of leader-making. *Journal of Management Systems*, 3(3), 33–48. <https://digitalcommons.unl.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1015&context=managementfacpub>
- Graen, G. B., & Uhl-Bien, M. (1995). Relationship-based approach to leadership: Development of leader-member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership over 25 years: Applying a multi-level multi-domain perspective. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 6(2), 219–247. [https://doi.org/10.1016/1048-9843\(95\)90036-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/1048-9843(95)90036-5)
- Gray, A., Howard, L., & Chessman, H. (2018). Voices from the field: Women of color presidents in higher education. *American Council on Education*. <https://www.acenet.edu/Documents/Voices-From-the-Field.pdf>
- Gupta, N. (1983, March). Barriers to the advancement of women in educational administration: Sources and remedies. *The Women's Leadership Project*. <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED257204.pdf>
- Hannum, K. M., Muhly, S. M., Shockley-Zalabak, P., & White, J. S. (2015). Women leaders within higher education in the United States: Supports, barriers, and experiences of being a senior leader. *Advancing Women in Leadership*, 35, 65–75. <https://lib.pepperdine.edu/login?url=https://www-proquest-com.lib.pepperdine.edu/docview/1682223456?accountid=13159>
- Helms, R. M., Brajkovic, L., Godwin, K. A., Evers, N., Mihut, G., & Zhang, Y. (2019). U.S. higher education a brief guide [A guide that provides important information about U.S. colleges and universities]. *American Council on Education*. <https://www.acenet.edu/Documents/brief-guide-to-US-higher-ed.pdf#search=person%20of%20color%20definition>
- Hempsall, K. (2014). Developing leadership in higher education: Perspectives from the USA, the UK and Australia. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 36(4), 383–394. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1360080X.2014.916468>
- Heneman, R., Greenberger, D., & Anonyuo, C. (1989). Attributions and exchanges: The effects of interpersonal factors on the diagnosis of employee performance. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 32(2), 466–476. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/256371>

- Herrbach, O., & Mignonac, K. (2012). Perceived gender discrimination and women's subjective career success: The moderating role of career anchors. *Relations Industrielles/Industrial Relations*, 67(1), 25–50. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/41634302>
- Hill, C., Miller, K., Benson, K., & Handley, G. (2016). Barriers and bias: The status of women in leadership [A report by American Association of University Women that discusses the accomplishments of women in the workplace and examines the barriers and biases women still face]. *American Association of University Women*. <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED585546.pdf>
- Hill, N. S., Kang, J. H., & Seo, M.-G. (2014). The interactive effect of leader-member exchange and electronic communication on employee psychological empowerment and work outcomes. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 25(4), 772–783. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2014.04.006>
- Hutchins, H. M., & Rainbolt, H. (2017). What triggers imposter phenomenon among academic faculty? A critical incident study exploring antecedents, coping, and development opportunities. *Human Resource Development International*, 20(3), 194–214. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13678868.2016.1248205>
- Hyatt, L. (2017, March). *Narrative dynamics—A qualitative approach* [Paper presentation]. The Research Methods Colloquium, Los Angeles, CA, United States.
- Ibarra, H. (1995). Race, opportunity, and diversity of social circles in managerial networks. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 38(3), 673–703. <https://doi.org/10.2307/256742>
- Janssen, O., & Van Yperen, N. W. (2004). Employees' goal orientations, the quality of leader-member exchange, and the outcomes of job performance and job satisfaction. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 47(3), 368–384. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/20159587>
- Johnson, H. L. (2017). Pipelines, pathways, and institutional leadership: An update on the status of women in higher education. *American Council on Education*. <https://www.acenet.edu/Documents/HES-Pipelines-Pathways-and-Institutional-Leadership-2017.pdf>
- Johnsrud, L. K. (1991). Administrative promotion: The power of gender. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 62(2), 119–149. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/1982142>
- Kent, R., & Moss, S. (1994). Effects of sex and gender role on leader emergence. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 37(5), 1335–1346. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/256675>
- King, T. C., & Ferguson, S. A. (2001). Charting ourselves: Leadership development with Black professional women. *National Women's Studies Association Journal*, 13(2), 123–141. <http://www.jstor.com/stable/4316818>

- Komives, S. R., Lucas, N., & McMahon, T. R. (2013). *Exploring leadership: For college students who want to make a difference*. John Wiley & Sons.
<https://ebookcentral.proquest.com/lib/pepperdine/detail.action?docID=1192821>
- Kot-Radojewska, M. (2018). The relationship between the form of employment and employee training and developing opportunities in organizations. *International Journal of Contemporary Management*, 17(1), 119–136.
<https://doi.org/10.4467/24498939IJCM.18.007.8386>
- Kumar, R. (2014). *Research Methodology* (4th ed.). Sage Publications.
- Ladson-Billings, G., & Tate, W. F. I. V. (1995). Toward a critical race theory of education. *Teachers College Record*, 97(1), 47–68. <https://doi.org/10.1177/016146819509700104>
- Lagace, R. R. (1990). Leader-member exchange: Antecedents and consequences of the cadre and hired hand. *The Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management*, 10(1), 11–19.
<http://www.jstor.org/stable/40471781>
- Landis, J. R., & Koch, G. G. (1977). The Measurement of observer agreement for categorical data. *Biometrics*, 33(1), 159–174. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2529310>
- Lennon, T., Spotts, D., & Mitchell, M. (2013). Benchmarking women’s leadership in the United States. *Colorado Women’s College, University of Denver*.
<https://www.issuelab.org/resources/26706/26706.pdf>
- Liden, R. C., Erdogan, B., Wayne, S. J., & Sparrowe, R. T. (2006). Leader-member exchange, differentiation, and task interdependence: Implications for individual and group performance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 27(6), 723–746.
<http://www.jstor.org/stable/4093895>
- Liden, R. C., Wayne, S. J., & Stilwell, D. (1993). A longitudinal study on the early development of leader-member exchanges. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78(4), 662–674.
<https://doi-org.lib.pepperdine.edu/10.1037/0021-9010.78.4.662>
- Liu, Y., Xu, J., & Weitz, B. (2011). The role of emotional expression and mentoring in internship learning. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 10(1), 94–110.
<http://www.jstor.org/stable/41318032>
- Longman, K. A. (2018). Perspectives on women’s higher education leadership from around the world. *Administrative Sciences*, 8(3), 35–35. <https://doi.org/10.3390/admsci8030035>
- Longman, K. A., & Anderson, P. S. (2011). Gender trends in senior-leadership: A 12-year analysis of the CCCU U.S. member institutions. *Christian Higher Education*, 10, 422–443. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15363759.2011.559874>

- Matkin, G. S., & Barbuto, J. E. (2012). Demographic similarity/difference, intercultural sensitivity, and leader–member exchange: A multilevel analysis. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 19(3), 294–302. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1548051812442748>
- Marshall, B., Cardon, P., Poddar, A., & Fontenot, R. (2013). Does sample size matter in qualitative researcher? A review of qualitative interviews in IS research. *The Journal of Computer Information Systems*, 54(1), 11–22. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/08874417.2013.11645667>
- McCoy, D. L., & Rodricks, D. J. (2015). Critical race theory. *Association for the Study of Higher Education Higher Education Report*, 41, 1–117. <https://doi-org.lib.pepperdine.edu/10.1002/aehe.20021>
- McGinn, K., & Milkman, K. (2013). Looking up and looking out: Career mobility effects of demographic similarity among professionals. *Organization Science*, 24(4), 1041–1060. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/42002892>
- Meglino, B. M., Ravlin, E. C., & Adkins, C. L. (1989). A work values approach to corporate culture: A field test of the value congruence process and ITs. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 74(3), 424–432. <https://doi-org.lib.pepperdine.edu/10.1037/0021-9010.74.3.424>
- Moffitt, M. J. (2017). *A narrative study of the experiences of executive administrators of color who work at religiously-affiliated higher education institutions* (Publication No. 10258393) [Doctoral dissertation, Azusa Pacific University]. ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global.
- Moser, A., & Korstjens, I. (2018). Series: Practical guidance to qualitative research. Part 3: Sampling, data collection & analysis. *European Journal of General Practice*, 24(1), 9–18. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13814788.2017.1375091>
- National Equity Atlas. (2018). *Data summary*. https://nationalequityatlas.org/research/data_summary#/?geoSectionName=Nation
- Ng, T. W. H., Eby, L. T., Sorensen, K. L., & Feldman, D. C. (2005). Predictors of objective and subjective career success: A meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology*, 58, 367–408. <https://doi-org.lib.pepperdine.edu/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2005.00515.x>
- Ng, T. W. H., & Feldman, D. C. (2010). Human capital and objective indicators of career success: The mediating effects of cognitive ability and conscientiousness. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 83, 207–235. <https://doiorg.lib.pepperdine.edu/10.1348/096317909X414584>
- Northouse, P. G. (2018). *Leadership theory and practice* (8th ed.). Sage Publishing.

- O'Connor, C. M. (2018). Women of vision: Understanding the ways women lead change. *Christian Higher Education*, 17(4), 198–214.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/15363759.2018.1462741>
- O'Connor, C., & Joffe, H. (2020). Intercoder reliability in qualitative research: Debates and practical guidelines. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1609406919899220>
- Olson, D. A., & Jackson, D. (2009). Expanding leadership diversity through formal mentoring programs. *Journal of Leadership Studies*, 3(1), 47–60. <http://www.ipcrc.net/LDI/pdfs/Expanding-Leadership-Diversity-Through-Formal-Mentoring-Programs.pdf>
- Parker, L., & Lynn, M. (2002). What's race got to do with it? Critical race theory's conflicts with and connections to qualitative research methodology and epistemology. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 8(1), 7–22. doi:[10.1177/107780040200800102](https://doi.org/10.1177/107780040200800102)
- Phillips, A. S., & Bedeian, A. G. (1994). Leader-follower exchange quality: The role of personal and interpersonal attributes. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 37(4), 990–1001.
<https://www.jstor.org/stable/256608>
- Pritchard, A., Li, J., Mcchesney, J., & Bichsel, J. (2019). Administrators in higher education annual report: Key findings, trends and comprehensive tables for the 2018–19 academic year (Research Report). *CUPA-HR*. <https://www.cupahr.org/surveys/results/>
- Pritchard, A., Nadel-Hawthorne, S., Schmidt, A., Fuesting, M., & Bichsel, J. (2020). Administrators in higher education annual report: Key findings, trends and comprehensive tables for the 2019–20 academic year (Research Report). *CUPA-HR*.
<https://www.cupahr.org/surveys/results/>
- Pulakos, E. D., & Wexley, K. N. (1983). The relationship among perceptual similarity, sex, and performance ratings in manager-subordinate dyads. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 26(1), 129–139. <https://doi.org/10.2307/256139>
- Ragins, B. (1995). Diversity, power, and mentorship in organizations: A cultural, structural, and behavioral perspective. In M. M. Chemers, S. Oskamp, & M. A. Costanzo (Eds.), *Diversity in organizations: New perspectives for a changing workplace* (pp. 91–132). SAGE Publications. <http://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781452243405.n5>
- Randolph-Seng, B., Coglisier, C. C., Randolph, A. F., Scandura, T. A., Miller, C. D., & Smith-Genthôs, R. (2016). Diversity in leadership: Race in leader-member exchanges. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 37(6), 750–773.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/LODJ-10-2014-0201>
- Read, B., & Kehm, B. M. (2016). Women as leaders of higher education institutions: A British-German comparison. *Studies in Higher Education*, 41(5), 815–827.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2016.1147727>

- Redmond, P., Gutke, H., Galligan, L., Howard, A., & Newman, T. (2017). Becoming a female leader in higher education: Investigations from a regional university. *Gender and Education*, 29(3), 332–351.
<https://doi-org.lib.pepperdine.edu/10.1080/09540253.2016.1156063>
- Richard, L., & Morse, J. M. (2013). *User's guide to qualitative methods* (3rd ed.). Sage Publications.
- Roberts, C., & Hyatt, L. (2019). *The dissertation journey* (3rd ed.). Corwin: A SAGE Company.
- Russell, M. (2003). Leadership and followership as a relational process. *Educational Management & Administration*, 31(2), 145–157.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0263211X030312004>
- Ryan, M. K., Haslam, S., & Kulich, C. (2010). Politics and the glass cliff: Evidence that women are preferentially selected to contest hard-to-win seats. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 34, 56–64. <https://journals-sagepub-com.lib.pepperdine.edu/doi/pdf/10.1111/j.1471-6402.2009.01541.x>
- Scandura, T. A., & Graen, G. B. (1984). Moderating effects of initial leader–member exchange status on the effects of a leadership intervention. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 69(3), 428–436. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.69.3.428>
- Scandura, T. A., & Lankau, M. J. (1996). Developing diverse leaders: A leader-member exchange approach. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 7(2), 243–263.
[https://doi.org/10.1016/S1048-9843\(96\)90043-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1048-9843(96)90043-0)
- Scandura, T. A., & Schriesheim, C. A. (1994). Leader-member exchange and supervisor career mentoring as complementary constructs in leadership research. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 37(6), 1588–1602. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/256800>
- Schieman, S., Milkie, M. A., & Glavin, P. (2009). When work interferes with life: Work-nonwork interference and the influence of work-related demands and resources. *American Sociological Review*, 74(6), 966–988. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/27801503>
- Schneidhofer, T., Schiffinger, M., & Mayrhofer, W. (2010). Mind the (gender) gap: Gender, gender role types, and their effects on objective career success over time. *Management Revue*, 21(4), 437–457. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/41783663>
- Sibert, A., Punty, M., & Ghoniem, E. B. (2022). The women's power gap at elite universities: Scaling the ivory tower. *Women's Power Gap EOS Foundation*.
<https://www.womenspowergap.org/wp-content/uploads/2022/01/WPG-Power-Gap-at-Elite-Universities-v17.pdf>

- Smith, C. H. (1982). Black female achievers in academia. *The Journal of Negro Education*, 51(3), 318–341. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/2294699>
- Söderhjelm, T., Björklund, C., Sandahl, C., & Bolander-Laksov, K. (2018). Academic leadership: Management of groups or leadership of teams? A multiple-case study on designing and implementing a team-based development programme for academic leadership. *Studies in Higher Education*, 43(2), 201–216. <https://doi-org.lib.pepperdine.edu/10.1080/03075079.2016.1160277>
- Solorzano, D., & Yosso, T. (2001). Critical race and Latcrit theory and method: Counter-storytelling. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, 14(4), 471–495. <https://doi-org.lib.pepperdine.edu/10.1080/09518390110063365>
- Srivastava, P., & Hopwood, N. (2009). A practical iterative framework for qualitative data analysis. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 8(1), 76–84. <https://doi.org/10.1177%2F160940690900800107>
- Stark, E., & Poppler, P. (2009). Leadership, performance evaluations, and all the usual suspects. *Personnel Review*, 38(3), 320–338. <https://doi.org/10.1108/00483480910943368>
- Stephenson, L. (2011). Developing a leadership education framework: A transformative leadership perspective. *Counterpoints*, 409, 321–341. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/42981314>
- Surna, A. (2018). Equitable representation among people of color and women in higher ed. *Journal of College Admission*, 240, 48–53. <https://search-ebscohost-com.lib.pepperdine.edu/login.aspx?direct=true&db=eft&AN=130810884&site=ehost-live&scope=site>
- Tate, W. (1997). Critical race theory and education: History, theory, and implications. *Review of Research in Education*, 22, 195–247. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/1167376>
- Tevis, T. L., Pifer, M., & Baker, V. L. (2021). Women higher education administrators: Approaches to leadership in times of crisis. In H. Schnackenberg & D. Simard (Eds.), *Women and leadership in higher education during global crises* (pp. 36–54). IGI Global. <https://doi.org/10.4018/978-1-7998-6491-2.ch003>
- Tse, H. H. M., & Troth, A. C. (2013). Perceptions and emotional experiences in differential supervisor-subordinate relationships. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 34(3), 271–283. <https://doi.org/10.1108/01437731311326693>
- Tsui, A., & O'Reilly, C. (1989). Beyond simple demographic effects: The importance of relational demography in superior-subordinate dyads. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 32(2), 402–423. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/256368>

- Tsui, A. S., Pearce, J. L., Porter, L. W., & Tripoli, A. M. (1997). Alternative approaches to the employee-organization relationship: Does investment in employees pay off? *The Academy of Management Journal*, 40(5), 1089–1121. <https://doi.org/10.2307/256928>
- Turban, D. B., & Jones, A. P. (1988). Supervisor-subordinate similarity: Types, effects, and mechanisms. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 73(2), 228–234. <https://doi-org.lib.pepperdine.edu/10.1037/0021-9010.73.2.228>
- Turner, R. (1960). Sponsored and contest mobility and the school system. *American Sociological Review*, 25(6), 855–867. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/2089982>
- Uhl-Bien, M. (2006). Relational leadership theory: Exploring the social processes of leadership and organizing. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 17(6), 654–676. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2006.10.007>
- U.S. Department of Education. (2016). *Advancing diversity and inclusion in higher education: Key data highlights focusing on race and ethnicity and promising practices*. <https://www2.ed.gov/rschstat/research/pubs/advancing-diversity-inclusion.pdf>
- Vecchio, R. P., & Brazil, D. M. (2007). Leadership and sex-similarity: A comparison in a military setting. *Personnel Psychology*, 60(2), 303–335. <https://doi-org.lib.pepperdine.edu/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2007.00075.x>
- Wang, C. C., & Geale, S. K. (2015). The power of story: Narrative inquiry as a methodology in nursing research. *International Journal of Nursing Sciences*, 2(2), 195–198. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijnss.2015.04.014>
- Ward, K., & Wolf-Wendel, L. (2016). Academic motherhood: Mid-career perspectives and the ideal worker norm. *New Directions for Higher Education*, (176), 11–23. <https://doi.org/10.1002/he.20206>
- Wayne, S., & Liden, R. (1995). Effects of impression management on performance ratings: A longitudinal study. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 38(1), 232–260. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/256734>
- Wayne, S. J., Liden, R. C., Kraimer, M. L., & Graf, I. K. (1999). The role of human capital, motivation and supervisor sponsorship in predicting career success. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 20(5), 577–595. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/3100430>
- The White House Project. (2009). The White House project: Benchmarking women's leadership. *The White House Project*. http://www.in.gov/icw/files/benchmark_wom_leadership.pdf
- Wilhelm, C., Herd, A., & Steiner, D. (1993). Attributional conflict between managers and subordinates: An investigation of leader-member exchange effects. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 14(6), 531–544. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/2488104>

- Wingfield, A. H. (2009). Racializing the glass escalator: Reconsidering men's experiences with women's work. *Gender and Society*, 23(1), 5–26. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/20676747>
- Wright, M. M. (2019). *Women of color in higher education leadership* (Publication No. 22583940) [Doctoral dissertation, Pepperdine University]. Pepperdine University Archives. <https://lib.pepperdine.edu/login?url=https://www.proquest.com/dissertations-theses/women-color-higher-education-leadership/docview/2310307978/se-2>
- Yang, Y., & Konrad, A. (2011). Diversity and organizational innovation: The role of involvement. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 32(8), 1062–1083. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/41415724>
- Yap, M., Cukier, W., Holmes, M., & Hannan, C. (2010). Career satisfaction: A look behind the races. *Relations Industrielles/Industrial Relations*, 65(4), 584–608. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/23078321>
- Zell, A. L. V. (2017). *Access to success: A phenomenological study on women of color college and university presidents in their ascension to the presidency* (Publication No. 10606424) [Doctoral dissertation, University of La Verne]. ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global.
- Zhang, Z., Wang, M., & Shi, J. (2012). Leader-follower congruence in proactive personality and work outcomes: The mediating role of leader-member exchange. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 55(1), 111–130. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/41413627>

APPENDIX A

CITI Program Completion Certification



Completion Date 25-Dec-2021
Expiration Date 24-Dec-2026
Record ID 46430354

This is to certify that:

Oghenemano Evero

Has completed the following CITI Program course:

Not valid for renewal of certification
through CME.

GSEP Education Division

(Curriculum Group)

GSEP Education Division - Social-Behavioral-Educational (SBE)

(Course Learner Group)

1 - Basic Course

(Stage)

Under requirements set by:

Pepperdine University

CITI
Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative

Verify at www.citiprogram.org/verify/?wa78e503a-3a2d-464e-b5cd-b80f96add9b3-46430354

APPENDIX B

Notice of Approval for Human Research

Pepperdine University
24255 Pacific Coast Highway
Malibu, CA 90263
TEL: 310-506-4000

NOTICE OF APPROVAL FOR HUMAN RESEARCH

Date: February 22, 2023

Protocol Investigator Name: Oghenemano Evero

Protocol #: 22-11-2017

Project Title: Women of Color in Higher Education Institutions: Strategies to Attain Administrative Leadership Positions

School: Graduate School of Education and Psychology

Dear Oghenemano Evero:

Thank you for submitting your application for exempt review to Pepperdine University's Institutional Review Board (IRB). We appreciate the work you have done on your proposal. The IRB has reviewed your submitted IRB application and all ancillary materials. Upon review, the IRB has determined that the above entitled project meets the requirements for exemption under the federal regulations 45 CFR 46.101 that govern the protections of human subjects.

Your research must be conducted according to the proposal that was submitted to the IRB. If changes to the approved protocol occur, a revised protocol must be reviewed and approved by the IRB before implementation. For any proposed changes in your research protocol, please submit an amendment to the IRB. Since your study falls under exemption, there is no requirement for continuing IRB review of your project. Please be aware that changes to your protocol may prevent the research from qualifying for exemption from 45 CFR 46.101 and require submission of a new IRB application or other materials to the IRB.

A goal of the IRB is to prevent negative occurrences during any research study. However, despite the best intent, unforeseen circumstances or events may arise during the research. If an unexpected situation or adverse event happens during your investigation, please notify the IRB as soon as possible. We will ask for a complete written explanation of the event and your written response. Other actions also may be required depending on the nature of the event. Details regarding the timeframe in which adverse events must be reported to the IRB and documenting the adverse event can be found in the *Pepperdine University Protection of Human Participants in Research: Policies and Procedures Manual* at community.pepperdine.edu/irb.

Please refer to the protocol number denoted above in all communication or correspondence related to your application and this approval. Should you have additional questions or require clarification of the contents of this letter, please contact the IRB Office. On behalf of the IRB, I wish you success in this scholarly pursuit.

Sincerely,

Judy Ho, Ph.D., IRB Chair

cc: Mrs. Katy Carr, Assistant Provost for Research

APPENDIX C

Recruitment Invitation



Dear _____,

My name is Oghenemano 'Mano' Evero, and I am a doctoral candidate at Pepperdine University Graduate School of Education and Psychology Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership program. I am conducting a research study to understand what leader-member exchange strategies have enabled women of color pursue administrative leadership positions in California Higher Education Institution (HEIs). Participants of this study will

- Be a woman of color
- Currently occupy a administrative leadership role including but not limited to director, provost, department chair, dean, and chief diversity official.
- Be currently employed in a California nonprofit HEI.
- Have 5 or more years of experience in higher education.
- Have a master's degree or higher.
- Be available for a virtual interview with the researcher.
- Be willing to sign the inform consent form to participate in the study.

I would like to invite you to participate in this study. Participation involves one zoom interview that will be conducted at the mutually agreed upon time. The interview will last 30 to 45 minutes. The interview will be transcribed through zoom for research purposes only.

Participation is voluntary and there is a minimal risk to participate in this study. Your identity will remain confidential during and after the study. Access to the data will be limited to one private computer with a strong password. In compliance with IRB regulations the data obtained will be destroyed 3 years after the completion of study. Please note that this is an academic study, and you will not be compensated for participating in the research.

If you are willing to participate in this study, please respond by email to following e-mail address: Oghenemano.Evero@pepperdine.edu. Upon receipt of your response, I will send you a copy of the consent form, the interview questions, and schedule a date and time for us to conduct the interview. Please note that you can withdraw your participation in the study at any time.

Thank you for your consideration and participation.

Oghenemano O. Evero
 Pepperdine University
 Graduate School of Education and Psychology
 Doctoral Candidate in Organizational leadership

APPENDIX D

Informed Consent Form



IRB #: 22-11-2017

Formal Study Title:

Women of Color in Higher Education Institutions: Strategies to Attain Administrative Leadership Positions

Authorized Study Personnel:

- **Principal Investigator/Researcher:** Oghenemano O. Evero
- **Email:** [REDACTED]
- **Cell:** [REDACTED]

Key Information

If you agree to participate in this study, the project will involve:

- A one-time, 30–45- minute virtual interview with the researcher.
- Risk to participate in this study is no more than minimal.
- You will not be compensated for your participation.
- If you choose to participate and sign the consent form, you will be provided a copy of this consent form.

Invitation

You are invited to take part in this research study. The information in this form is meant to help you decide whether or not to participate. If you have any questions, please ask.

Why are you being asked to be in this research study?

You are being asked to be in this study because you meet the inclusion criteria listed below.

- You are a woman of color; a woman who is Asian, African American/ Black, Hispanic, Native American, or of an ethnicity other than White.
- You currently occupy an administrative leadership role including but not limited to director, provost, department chair, dean, or chief diversity official.
- You are currently employed in a California nonprofit higher education institution
- You have at least 5 years of experience in higher education institution
- You have a master's degree or higher

What is the reason for doing this research study?

The purpose of the study is to understand what leader-member exchange strategies have enabled

women of color pursue administrative leadership positions in California Higher Education Institution.

What will be done during this research study?

Your participation in this study is voluntary and if you volunteer, you will be asked to participate in a one-time interview that will take approximately 30-45 minutes to complete. The interview will be held virtually on zoom. During the interview, you will have the opportunity to answer questions regarding experiences honestly and to the best of your recollection. The interview will be transcribed through zoom closed captioning and the interview transcript will be stored on a password protected device.

How will my data be used?

Your responses will be transcribed, coded and analyzed. Your data will be kept confidential. The researcher will remove all identifiable information and assign an alpha-numeric code to protect your identity. Your response will be sent to researcher within Pepperdine University for additional coding and analysis to achieve study consistency and reliability. Any personal information that could identify you will be removed before the data is shared.

What are the possible risks of being in this research study?

The risk of participation in this research study is no more than minimal. This research presents risk of loss of confidentiality, emotional physical and/or psychological distress. Distress may be possible because this research study involves sensitive questions about your past experiences, you may feel uncomfortable answering interview questions or fatigued from sitting during the interview. The interview will be fluid and can be stopped and rescheduled if the participant is in distress.

What are the possible benefits to you?

You may not get any benefit from being in this research study. However, a potential benefit to you is self-fulfillment as a result of contributing to resources for women of color aspiring to advance in administrative leadership roles in higher education institutions.

What are the possible benefits to other people?

A potential benefit to others is that your participation will contribute to literature that will have the potential to influence diversity initiatives and practices at colleges and universities.

What are the alternatives to participating in this research study?

Your participation is voluntary, refusal to participate will involve no penalty. Instead of being in this research study you can withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights, or remedies because of your participation in this research study is entirely voluntary. The alternative to participation in the study is not participating.

What will being in this research study cost you?

There is no cost to you for being a participant in this research study.

Will you be compensated for being in this research study?

You will not be compensated for your participation in this study.

What should you do if you have a problem during this research study?

Your welfare is the major concern of every member of the research team. If you have a problem as a direct result of being in this study, you should immediately contact the person listed at the beginning of this consent form.

How will information about you be protected?

Reasonable steps will be taken to protect your privacy and the confidentiality of your study data. Participant's identity will be protected and no identifiable information will be collected or disclosed. Interview will be transcribed through zoom closed captioning only and participant will be asked to change display name on zoom to 'Participant' in order to maintain confidentiality during transcription. Upon completion of interview, transcript will be saved on a secure computer and all zoom records will be deleted immediately after transcription. Data will be stored electronically through a secure server and will only be seen by the researcher during the study and for 3 years after the study is complete. Any data obtained will be destroyed 3 years after the completion of study.

The only persons who will have access to your research records are the study personnel, the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of Pepperdine University, and any other person, agency, or sponsor as required by law. The information from this study may be published in scientific journals or presented at scientific meetings but the data will be reported as group or summarized data and your identity will be kept strictly confidential.

What are your rights as a research subject?

You may ask any questions concerning this research and have those questions answered before agreeing to participate in or during the study. For study related questions or concerns, please contact the investigator listed at the beginning of this form. For questions concerning your rights or complaints about the research contact the Institutional

Review Board (IRB):

Phone: 1(310)568-2305

Email: [REDACTED]

What will happen if you decide not to be in this research study or decide to stop participating once you start?

You can decide not to be in this research study, or you can stop being in this research study ("withdraw") at any time before, during, or after the research begins for any reason. Deciding not to be in this research study or deciding to withdraw will not affect your relationship with the investigator or with Pepperdine University.

You will not lose any benefits to which you are entitled.

Documentation of Informed Consent

You are voluntarily making a decision whether or not to be in this research study. Signing this form means that (1) you have read and understood this consent form, (2) you have had the consent form explained to you, (3) you have had your questions answered and (4) you have decided to be in the research study. You will be given a copy of this consent form to keep.

Participant Name:

Name of Participant: Please Print

Participant Signature:

Signature of Research Participant

Date

Investigator Certification:

My signature certifies that all elements of informed consent described on this consent form have been explained fully to the subject. In my judgment, the participant possesses the capacity to give informed consent to participate in this research and is voluntarily and knowingly giving informed consent to participate.

Signature of Person Obtaining Consent

Date

APPENDIX E

Interview Instrument

Demographic Information

Race:

Black/African American
Native American

Other

Asian American

Hispanic/Latina

Age:

30-39

40-49

50-59

60-69

70+

Years in Higher Education:

5–10 years

11-15 years

16-20 years

21+ years

Current Position/Title:

Interview Questions

1. What mentoring approaches did your leader display that encouraged you to pursue administrative leadership positions?
2. What respectful approaches did your leader display that encouraged you to pursue administrative leadership positions?
3. What communication approaches did your leader display that encouraged you to pursue administrative leadership positions?

Potential Follow-Up Question (if expansion is needed)

1. Provide specific examples of the mentoring/respectful/communication approaches your leader displayed.