DISSERTATION

HOW WOMEN PRESIDENTS OF RESEARCH INSTITUTIONS HAVE

NAVIGATED NEGOTIATION IN REACHING THE TOP:

A PHENOMENOLOGICAL STUDY

Submitted by

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ABSTRACT

HOW WOMEN PRESIDENTS OF RESEARCH INSTITUTIONS HAVE

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This study examined the phenomenon of negotiation from the perspective of women who served as college presidents at doctorate granting universities in the United States. During their careers, the women reframed their understanding and relationship to the activity of negotiation. Prior to entering formal negotiations, women self-negotiated and prepared. Knowing themselves led to connecting their personal values in the negotiation process. They strove to achieve win-win outcomes which fostered mutual respect and led to more positive results for all parties involved. Understanding the phenomenon of negotiation through the lived experiences of established female presidents is important to emerging women leaders as the impact of negotiation on their careers and lives is significant.

Keywords: women leadership, higher education, college presidents, women and negotiation, negotiation

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Many people have traveled the road with me leading up to my doctoral endeavor, and many have walked alongside me during this journey. I feel truly blessed to have the most amazing family and friends, role models and colleagues. They have touched my life in countless ways and the collective impact they have had on me is enormous.

Education was highly valued in our family. My parents instilled this value early in my life as a child growing up in Canada. My grandparents, who were my ardent champions, fortified this value. My sister, a strong student herself, has provided academic inspiration and assistance in countless ways throughout my doctoral program and beyond. Thank you to her husband and girls for also supporting my journey.

A huge thanks to my Mom for helping with our kids during critical times in the program. Sadly, I lost my Dad six months before earning my doctorate. His absence at my graduation makes me so incredibly sad, but I know he will be watching proudly.

I am extremely fortunate to have two families—my Thunder Bay family and my Colorado family. The bloodlines of the Jones family in Thunder Bay are deep and strong. What a gift to be born into that family. The Morgans and O'Briens have been my neighborhood family for over 40 years. And over the last couple of decades, the Platanas, Sargents, and Gordons have extended my Thunder Bay family even further. In Colorado over the last 15 years the Edwards, Abbotts, Bianchis, Fannings, Trumpers and many more have enveloped our family in love, support, and encouragement, which makes them cherished members of our Colorado family.

DEDICATION

My children, Devon and Aidan, were babies when I began and finished my master's degree. They were boys when I started my doctorate program. They are teenagers as I conclude my doctorate degree. It is for their future as men that I dedicate my research.

Dedicating research devoted to studying women's leadership to two young men may seem peculiar. But achieving gender equity is of future benefit to both women and men. I think it will be Devon and Aidan's generation that will truly unlock the social change many of us desire and I look forward to watching them be part of that revolution.

I hope that they have learned two primary things from me during my doctoral journey. First, they have been part of a family where their dad is very involved in their day-to-day lives. One of my greatest desires for them is that they know nothing other than a world filled with equal parenting and families who have involved fathers and strong, successful moms. This has been modeled for them and I hope that their future families embody these values. Secondly, in a world of instant gratification, they have seen me sacrifice and work hard over a long period of time to attain something important and of value to me. Through this, they have seen that some of the most rewarding things in life are not easy or quick to achieve and require time, focus, and commitment.

Devon and Aidan, you are part of the equation making this world a more equitable place. I love you and am proud of who you are and the impact I know you will have in this world.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

The rate of women executives has not kept pace with the growing number of women in the workforce, and higher education is no exception. Over the past forty years, data have shown that women in academia are represented at disproportionate rates in leadership positions (White, 2011). These numbers are in spite of the fact that the percentage of qualified women in higher education and the United States' workforce is climbing (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statisitcs, 2018). Adding to the concern is that the percentage of women presidents has slowly grown, rising from 23% to 30% over the last decade (American Council on Education [ACE], 2017, p. 7). This has not kept pace with the gender distribution of the American workforce.

Statistics may suggest a variety of reasons for this: Women do not pursue such opportunities, barriers prevent women from rising to top leadership positions, or some combination of factors impact women's career growth. Understanding the perspectives of women on the issue of career progression and identifying what obstacles exist for aspiring women leaders is critical to producing systemic change.

Studies regarding the barriers that women face in their ascent up the organizational ladder are becoming more prevalent (Berdahl, 1996; Berkovitch, Waldman, & Yanay, 2012; Chin, 2011; Longman & Lafreniere, 2012), and explanations range from systemic sexism, to women self-selecting out of leadership opportunities, to lack of sponsorship and mentorship. The impact of negotiation on one's career is a potential barrier not studied extensively within the context of higher education. Empirical studies exist about negotiation and there is a growing body of knowledge about women and negotiation (Eckel, De Oliveria, & Grossman, 2008), but a gap exists in understanding this phenomenon from the perspective of women in academia.

Undoubtedly, women who serve as presidents have had to navigate this activity at some point in their career, and understanding their lived experiences with this phenomenon can be informative to aspiring women leaders. The blend of these topics is worthy of study in order to prepare future women leaders for the activity of negotiation which will have significant impact on their careers.

Statement of the Problem

Despite the significant changes in the number of educated women and the percentage of women in the work force, the number of women holding leadership positions do not follow these growth patterns. The leadership gender gap is evident in both the private and public sectors. Women in the corporate sector hold just 26.8% of the chief executive officer positions (Northouse, 2016) and 5% of the Fortune 500 CEO positions (Fortune, 2017). Currently, just 19.8% of the seats in the U.S. Congress and 22% of senators are women (Rutgers Eagleton Institute of Politics, Center for American Women and Politics, 2018), and in 2016, only 7% of leadership roles in the U.S. military were held by women (Northouse, 2016, pp. 398-399). These are the most powerful and influential positions in the United States, yet the vast majority are held by men which perpetuates a system of inequity that affects all Americans.

Higher education has not fared much better with narrowing the gender gap, and evidence of this can be found in faculty promotion information. Although the sector and number of faculty and staff positions grew from 2.88 million to 3.97 million (Institute of Education Sciences, National Center for Education Statistics, 2014c) during a 14-year period from 1999-2013, the percentage of women in elite positions remained disproportionately small. In 2013, data showed that women accounted for 54.5% of all positions in higher education (Institute of Education Sciences, National Center for Education Statistics, 2014a), comprising 50% of

assistant professors, 44% of associate professors, and only 31% of full professors (Institute of Education Sciences, National Center for Education Statistics, 2014b). Though this is an increase from 1975 when women accounted for only 25% of assistant professors, 17% of associate professors, and 10% of full professors (Madsen, 2012a, p. 132), the percentage of women shrinks with every step up in seniority level.

Inequities between women and men are evident in the rate of tenure and the attainment of prestigious positions such as endowed chairs. Nationwide from 1990-2000, women experienced an increase in the rate of tenure of just 1.5% compared to 8% of men (Wenniger & Conroy, 2001, p. 5). Emerging faculty leaders are typically promoted because of their research productivity at the outset of their careers. Research productivity often leads to moving up the leadership ladder within the research realm of doctorate granting institutions which proves problematic for women if they are not achieving the same success and recognition for their research.

Similar to other sectors, the gender gap widens with the percentage of women who reach top level positions such as president or CEO. Since 1986, the American Council on Education (ACE) has collected data on college presidents. According to the National Center for Education Statistics, in 2016, 56% of undergraduate students were female (Institute of Education Sciences) yet according to ACE, only 30% of presidents of the institutions where these women studied, were women (2017, p. 29). While the percentage of women serving as university presidents has increased from 5% in 1975 to 30% in 2016 (ACE, 2017, p. 29), the percentage is disproportionate to the number of women students, staff, and faculty.

The scarcity of women presidents in relation to the number of women working in the sector is unbalanced but not surprising given the origins of higher education. Several authors

argued that the patriarchal roots of the structure of academia led to cultures that are unsupportive of women treating them as inferior to men (Helgesen & Johnson, 2010; Vaccaro, 2011; Whitt, Edison, Pascarella, Nora, & Terenzini, 1999). The authors further speculated that these cultures are, in part, why there are not more women leaders. Bowles and McGinn (2005) found that there were a disproportionately high number of women at universities in mid- to low-level positions. These positions were less visible and included less responsibility which did not lead to leadership opportunities. Such systemic and cultural barriers reduce the chance of women reaching the office of the president.

Presidents have to negotiate many things throughout their careers: the system and culture of higher education as well as personal choices along the way. Women face obstacles in their leadership journeys that can differ from men, such as gender bias and stereotypes that impact hiring and promotion practices. Understanding what presidents have had to negotiate and how incumbents have navigated these barriers successfully is the key to a cultural revolution in higher education.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to understand the phenomenon of negotiation from the perspective of women who served as presidents at doctorate granting universities. The foci of the study were to understand how women presidents navigated the activity of negotiation throughout their careers, understand how the phenomenon impacted their rise to the top position, and understand their experiences with negotiation in attaining their presidency. The goal was to understand how negotiation influenced the career growth and leadership development of women presidents at doctorate granting institutions with the hope that the findings would be instructive to future women leaders.

Research Questions

This study examined the lived experiences of women presidents who served as presidents at public or private doctorate granting institutions and their experience with negotiation in their professional lives. The following research questions were explored in the study:

1. How did women college president participants navigate the process of negotiation in securing professional positions prior to becoming president?

2. What were the priorities and foci when negotiating during different points of the participating president's career?

3. What was the process of negotiating that was used by the participants during the process of becoming a college president?

4. How did the negotiating process set up/impact the participant's relationship with the governing board where she ultimately became president?

5. Overall, how did the participating college presidents feel about negotiation, and what would they have done differently negotiating during their careers?

Significance of the Study

Understanding the lived experiences of women presidents with the phenomenon of negotiation will be instructive to aspiring women leaders. The study will also be informative to board members who are charged with hiring presidents and are often responsible for negotiating contract terms. Combined, hopefully this will influence a change in praxis.

Definition of Terms

- *American Council on Education (ACE):* The only organizing body for American colleges and universities which includes all types of accredited, degree-granting institutions (ACE, 2016).

- *Carnegie classification:* The leading structure for classifying colleges and universities in the United States. The framework primarily serves educational and research purposes to compare and contrast similar institutions. It was originally published in 1973, and subsequently updated in 1976, 1987, 1994, 2000, 2005, 2010, and 2015 to reflect changes among colleges and universities (The Carnegie Classification of Institutions of Higher Education, 2018).

- *Chancellor:* The equivalent of the chief executive officer for a system of colleges and universities where more than one institution comprises the group. Depending on the institution's history and culture, this can be synonymous with the title of president. For the purpose of this study, chancellor refers to multi-institution groups.

- *Doctorate granting institution:* The Carnegie Classification of Institutions of Higher Education (2018) stated that these are,

  > institutions that awarded at least 20 research/scholarship doctoral degrees during the update year (this does not include professional practice doctoral-level degrees, such as the juris doctorate, doctor of medicine, etc.). Excludes Special Focus Institutions and Tribal Colleges.

  There are three classifications within this category:
  - R1: Doctoral Universities–Highest research activity
  - R2: Doctoral Universities–Higher research activity
  - R3: Doctoral Universities–Moderate research activity

- *Feminism*: A social change movement that has mobilized people to reconstruct society so that women are equal to men (Beasley, 1999).

- *Gatekeeper*: A person who manages access to a leader and, among other things, is charged with managing the leader's time by maintaining a calendar and determining what

events/functions/meetings the leader will participate in or be part of. This position is

often referred to as the executive assistant to the leader.

- *Gender gap*: "The discrepancy in opportunities, compensation, status, attitudes, etc.

between men and women" (Oxford Dictionaries, 2018).

- *Glass ceiling*: "An invisible barrier within organizations that precludes women from

assuming leadership positions, especially the most senior positions" (Hymowitz &

Schellhardt, 1986).

- *Glass cliff*: "The level of success that women leaders struggle with when they follow in

the footsteps of successful predecessors" (Hargreaves & Fink, 2006, pp. 57-59).

- *Intersectionality*: A theory that considers various aspects of humanity such as race,

gender, class, ability, and ethnicity and posits that they do not exist separately from each

other but rather are interwoven and essential in understanding the total human condition

(Crenshaw, 1989).

- *Microaggression*: Sue (2010) defined microaggression as,

> The everyday verbal, nonverbal, and environmental slights, snubs, or insults,
> whether intentional or unintentional, which communicate hostile, derogatory, or
> negative messages to target persons based solely upon their marginalized group
> membership.

- *Negotiation*: Business Dictionary (2018a) defined negotiation as the

> process between two or more parties (each with its own aims, needs, and
> viewpoints) seeking to discover a common ground and reach an agreement to
> settle a matter of mutual concern or to resolve a conflict.

- *Phenomenology*: **"**The study of structures of consciousness as experienced from the first-

person point of view" (Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy, 2018).

- *President*: The chief executive officer of a single campus college or university.

Depending on the institution's history and culture, this can be synonymous with the title

of chancellor. For the purpose of this study, president refers to single campus institutions.

- *Second shift*: A theory that describes women employed outside the home and the extra duties they encounter at home. In addition to working a forty hour weeks, they were expected to perform "the second shift" which consisted of the majority of domestic duties of their family (Hochschild & Machung, 2012, p. 4).

- *Snowball sample*: A sequential sampling process whereby one participant meets the requirements for inclusion in the study and then recommends the involvement of another participant (Boyle et al., 2018).

- *System*: The conglomeration of multiple institutions of higher education under one administrative umbrella that are situated on different geographic campuses.

- *Tokenism*: "The practice of making only a token effort or doing no more than the minimum, especially in order to comply with a law" (The Free Dictionary by Farlex, 2018).

- *University*: Merriam Webster defined university as,

> An institution of higher learning providing facilities for teaching and research and authorized to grant academic degrees; specifically, one made up of an undergraduate division which confers bachelor's degrees and a graduate division which comprises a graduate school and professional schools each of which may confer master's degrees and doctorates.

- *Values*: "Important and lasting beliefs or ideals shared by the members of a culture about what is good or bad and desirable or undesirable" (Business Dictionary, 2018).

Delimitations

This study focused on women who served as presidents at American universities, both public and private, that grant doctorate degrees. The study did not include women who served as

presidents of four-year institutions, community colleges, or institutions with minimal research activity.

The study focused on women who served in the role as president of the university for a minimum of a year at the time of data collection. Recently retired presidents were added to the potential pool of participants after the study began to help foster anonymity and increased participation rates; however, not all retirees of doctorate granting institutions were included in the study.

Assumptions and Limitations

The study was built around participant interviews with the presidents. A key assumption was that participants' responses were honest and authentic. It was also assumed that they personally engaged in the negotiation process rather than having someone act as their representative. During the interview, this assumption was confirmed with the participants.

Limitations exist with human recall. The passage of time can impact the clarity of memories and perceptions of experiences. An individual's remembrance of what happened in a situation is highly subjective and interpretive, so the findings were limited by the participants' perceptions and memories. The researcher took into account that over time the interpretation of events differs and changes and recall often fades.

Another limitation with the study was that the findings were not generalizable. Rather, the study reflected the participants' memory and perception of their experience with negotiation.

Researcher's Perspective

I grew up in Canada during the 1970's and 1980's at a time when gendered roles were prevalent: Girls were conditioned to believe that the ultimate life goal was to marry a person of the opposite sex and that mothers should stay at home with their children rather than work

outside of the home. Simultaneously, I witnessed a quiet contradiction in society. Many girls were outpacing boys in the classroom and engaging in extracurricular activities at a greater rate, which made them excellent college candidates. Not surprisingly, during this period of time enrollment rates of women began to eclipse men in universities as did the number of female graduates. My female classmates were contributing to this trend. They were college bound and had professional aspirations to match their intelligence and drive.

Despite our conditioning as girls, when women of my generation became mothers, a higher percentage remained in the workforce rather than electing to be stay at home moms. I made this choice myself as a young parent professional. This caused dissonance for me. Even though I was ambitious and felt a strong calling to my profession, I struggled reconciling the message that conditioned girls of my generation—that I ought to put my family first and stay at home to raise my family.

The contradicting societal messages I received as a young woman were compounded by being raised as part of a religion where women were inferior to men. I was raised Catholic and attended parochial schools until eighth grade. Many of the teachers were intelligent, strong women, yet it was apparent that men were held in higher regard and they occupied the most powerful and revered positions, such as principals, superintendents, and priests. Long before I was familiar with the concept of the glass ceiling, it was clear to me that there was a limit to what a woman could realize in terms of positional power within that culture. It struck me as unfair and raised many questions for me to reconcile as a young adult.

During my youth, a woman elected to hold office was unusual, and this also influenced me. Again, I was struck by the injustice of this and wondered what prevented all of the smart, ambitious women that I knew from pursuing this path of service. By the time I began my

doctorate program, there was a female presidential candidate in the United States. Though this appeared to be social progress, watching how she was treated and portrayed as a leader during the election campaign illustrated that gender bias and stereotyping was still pervasive in American society.

I have served in various administrative capacities in universities in both Canada and the United States over the last 20 years. White men continue to hold the majority of power in the system and are privileged in ways not afforded to women. There are systemic flaws. Women are frequently held to different promotion standards, experience career set-backs after utilizing family medical leave, and are paid less than their male counterparts. The daily work environment for women is different than their male colleagues. They are assigned service commitments at disproportionate rates, interrupted more at meetings and are often excluded from power circles. Alarmingly, these different working conditions often go unnoticed by the white male majority.

My interest in leadership has been shaped through all of these experiences. Today I proudly consider myself a feminist leader. I am committed to changing the oppression and marginalization of women within higher education. I hope that my research contributes to a change in praxis both at the micro and macro level.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Higher education, as a sector and a culture, has developed and evolved since its origins. Studying its history informs the culture in which women leaders in higher education operate and provides context for the phenomenon of negotiation. This chapter provides background about the higher education sector, offers a review of the barriers that women face in the workplace, and provides information pertinent to the phenomenon of negotiation specific to women.

Background: A History of Women in Higher Education

Founded in 1636, Harvard, the first college in the United States, was designed to educate students destined to be clergy members, who were likely to be white upper-class males. The focus was on educating upper-class white males which yielded the creation of a patriarchal structure of education. The patriarchal tradition within higher education established during this colonial time created a system where women were disadvantaged because they did not fit the mold of the typical student. Consequently, this created the foundation of a system that treated women as inferior students (Wenniger & Conroy, 2001, p. 1).

The unfair treatment of women in higher education has caused concern for over 200 years. The dissatisfaction with the exclusion of women began early as documented in 1798 when playwright and one of the earliest advocates for women's rights, Judith Murray, wrote, "Female academies are everywhere establishing. . . . I expect to see our young women forming a new era in female history" (as cited in Solomon, 1985, p. 15). The early "academies" (Solomon, 1985, p. 16) Murray spoke of were established to prepare women just for teaching, the only socially accepted occupation for women at the time (Solomon, 1985, p. 16). From the time of Murray's early writings, it took almost another 40 years before the first school was established as

a women's college exclusively. The Georgia Female College was chartered in 1836 as the first

degree-granting college in the world for women, now known as Wesleyan College (1997).

During this time, there were reasons beyond equity that gave rise to the expansion of

educational opportunities for women. The importance of educating women was gaining

attention at the national level as well as in the home. One of the founding fathers of the United

States, Thomas Jefferson, said, "If a nation expects to be ignorant and free in a state of

civilization, it expects what never was and never will be" (Jefferson, 1816) which revealed the

tenor of the country and of the president at that time. Simultaneously, the role of women as

educators and promoters of Christian values within their families became increasingly apparent,

and during puritan times, this was important (Solomon, 1985, p. 12). These influential forces

began driving a change in educational opportunities for women in the United States during the

19th century.

Two hundred years after Harvard opened, a college that admitted men exclusively opened

its doors to women. In 1837, Oberlin College led the way and began admitting women as well as

men (Wenniger & Conroy, 2001, p. 2). However, women were only allowed to enroll in "ladies'

courses" because they were not considered capable of taking men's courses (Solomon, 1985, p.

12). In fact, in 1869 the president of Harvard, Charles Eliot, summed up the official Harvard

position toward female students in his inaugural address:

> The world knows next to nothing about the capacities of the female sex. Only after
> generations of civil freedom and social equality will it be possible to obtain the data
> necessary for an adequate discussion of woman's natural tendencies, tastes, and
> capabilities. . . . It is not the business of the University to decide this mooted point.
> (Eliot, 1869, p. 50)

Though educational opportunities began emerging for women, they were inferior

scholastic experiences, and consequently, women began dissenting. During this time, Radcliffe

College, an affiliate institution with Harvard, was founded by the father of a perspective female student and a group of prominent Cambridge women. Together, their goal was to expose women to a higher level of education, but it took time to reform the system. Reportedly in the early years, women climbed through windows to reach the Harvard professors in their "back room" (Wenniger & Conroy, 2001, p. 2) to gain the quality education that they desired.

Despite these challenges, the yearning to be educated at the highest level possible has only increased in women over time. Evidence of this can be found in nationwide enrollment trends over the last century. According to Wenniger and Conroy (2001), in 1900 women earned 19% of all bachelor's degrees, and in 1930 it doubled to 40% followed by a marginal increase to 43% in 1970 (p. 3). By 1979, the percentage of women enrolled in higher education eclipsed the percentage of men and this trend continues today (Institute of Education Sciences, National Center for Education Statistics, 2013). In the 2014-15 academic year, women earned the majority of degrees with 57% of bachelor's degrees, 60% of master's degrees, and 52% of doctorate degrees (Institute of Education Sciences, National Center for Education Statistics, 2015).

As the trend of educated women steadily climbs in the United States, so has the number of women working outside of the home. According to the most recent information collected by the U.S. Bureau of Labor (2013), women comprised 47% of the U.S. labor force.

Transitioning to Faculty and Staff

In a study conducted by Litzky and Greenhaus (2007), the researchers examined the relationship between gender, work factors, non-work factors, and career aspirations to attain positions in senior level management. A multiple regression analysis using survey data was collected from 368 working professionals. The analysis showed that women had lower desired

aspirations than men for senior management positions. Litzky and Greenhaus stated, "Women have weaker desires than men to enter senior management because they perceive less of a fit with senior management and because they see promotion to senior management as less attainable" (p. 651). This study speaks to the concern that women may not choose to pursue positions of leadership due to tension between their own perceptions and ambitions.

Progress has been made in overall enrollment and the number of women graduating, but systemic inequities persist in other ways. For example, the rate of tenure for women has not increased as fast as men. From 1990-2000, women saw an increase of 1.5% compared to 8% of men (Wenniger & Conroy, 2001, p. 5). Nidiffer (2001) stated that "women faculty members at the assistant professor level equal men in several disciplines, but women represent many fewer full professors" (p. 555). The salaries of women also lag behind their male colleagues. According to an American Association of University Women report published in 2001, women were paid 77% of their male counterparts in universities (as cited in Wenniger & Conroy, 2001, p. 5).

Moving up the Leadership Ladder

As women graduate at greater rates, there are more academically qualified females to assume teaching positions and potentially eligible to fill administrative roles within higher education. Yet, Nidiffer (2001) found that women were underrepresented in senior administrative positions. This is supported by the number of women who hold full professor versus assistant professor roles in colleges and universities with women comprising 50% of assistant professors, 44% of associate professors, and only 31% of full professors (Institute of Education Sciences, National Center for Education Statistics, 2014b). Further causing concern, Nidiffer found that when women held high ranking posts, they were frequently in areas

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considered less prestigious, such as student affairs, and in areas with less visibility and

responsibility (2001, p. 555).

Since 1986, ACE has been collecting data on college presidents. In ACE's most recent

study (2017), produced by the Center for Policy Research and Strategy, 3,615 presidents and

CEO's were surveyed. A 43% response rate was garnered. According to the report, 57% of

faculty and senior administrators were women yet only 30% of presidents were female (ACE,

2017, p. 7). Although the percentage of women serving as university presidents has increased

from 5% in 1975 (Madsen, 2012a, p. 132) to 30% in 2016, the percentage has not kept pace with

the growth of female students and faculty and staff. Only 22% of presidents at doctorate

granting institutions were female and this was the lowest percentage in the different categories of

institutions with the highest percentage of women leading associate level institutions at 36%

(ACE, 2017, p. 86).

According to ACE's *American College President Study* (2017), the 2016 profile of the

typical college president remained similar to that of a president in 2006: a white, married 62-

year-old male father with a doctorate degree who has served as president at his institution for an

average of seven years and identifies as Protestant or Catholic (ACE, 2017, pp. 4-7).

The profile of a typical president of a doctorate granting institution is very similar: A

white, married 64-year-old male father who has earned their PhD or EdD and served as the chief

academic officer prior to becoming president seven years ago (ACE, 2017, pp. 9-12). Of the 22%

of women who lead doctorate granting institutions, they were more likely to lead a public

institution (ACE, 2017, p. 11).

College presidents are aging, too. In 1986, 42% of American college presidents were 50

years of age or younger. In 2016 this group shrunk to just 4%, and those who were 61 or older

increased to 67% (ACE, 2017, p. 86). ACE (2017) speculated that because the group is aging and combined with the fact that 54% of the presidents expected to their leave their current presidency within five years or less, there will be significant retirements forthcoming. ACE further suggested that this may be an opportunity to diversify the office (p. 7). This comes at a critical time in higher education. Baltodano, Carlson, Jackson, and Mitchell (2012) argued that the financial crisis in higher education created by rising costs and constricting government support, causing increased tuition and escalating student debt, makes strong leadership an imperative (p. 63).

According to ACE's *American College President Study* (2017), women presidents were less likely to have been married (75% versus 90%) and have had children (74% versus 89%) compared to their male counterparts. They were also twice as likely to have altered their career to care for family (32% versus 16%) and were divorced/separated/widowed at higher rates than their male colleagues (13% versus 6%). These women presidents were equally likely to be a minority (16.9%). Additionally, they were just slightly older than their male counterparts but had served one year less in their current role as president. More female college presidents had earned their PhD or EdD and a higher percentage of them had a background in education or higher education. More women had served as a chief academic officer than their male counterparts. At the doctorate, master's, and bachelor's level, women were more likely to lead public institutions versus private (ACE, 2017, pp. 29-32).

Within the higher education sector, the number and background of women serving as leaders varies by the type of institution. For example, ACE (2017) revealed that women were more likely to lead associate colleges, followed by minority serving institutions, then masters level colleges and universities, then bachelor granting institutions, and finally doctorate granting

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institutions (p. 86). ACE's study reported that doctorate granting universities experienced a slight decline in growth in the number of women presidents over the last five years from 22.3% in 2011 to 21.8% in 2016. However, the number of women presidents during the five-year period between 2007-2011 increased, jumping from 14% to 22% (ACE, 2012b, p. 12).

Barriers Facing Women

Why are the rates of women presidents not tracking with the number of administrators and qualified candidates in the work force? Brown, Van Ummersen, and Phair (2001) argued that women have faced significant barriers to advancement and the possible explanations for this phenomenon varies. Many have argued that the origins of academia have led to cultures that are unsupportive of women and these continue to persist (Helgesen & Johnson, 2010; Vaccaro, 2011; Whitt et al., 1999).

In their mixed methods study, Longman and Lafreniere (2012) found support for the concept that women with potential leave the academy because of the work environment and that the work itself is conducive to a male workforce (p. 47). The fact that 32% of women presidents compared to 16% of men (ACE, 2017, p. 32) altered their career progression in order to care for dependents may suggest that family demands placed on women are different than men. Also, advancing to more senior positions can require relocating which can be more challenging for women because of professional spouses and children. Seven percent of women presidents have never been married compared to 1.8% of men, and 13% of the women have been divorced/separated/widowed compared to 5.6% of men (ACE, 2017, p. 111). Together, these facts may suggest the personal costs of assuming the highest leadership role within higher education are greater for women than men.

Gender Stereotyping

Gender stereotypes can derail even the most competent woman's ascent to the top (Heilman, 2001, p. 671). Bowles, Babcock, and McGinn (2005) argued that women are disadvantaged in ascending the leadership hierarchy because the promotional process is unstructured, vague, and laced with gender bias. Heilman (2001) argued that gender bias in organizations and male sex typing, the belief that some jobs are only suitable for men and others are suitable only for women (Cambridge University Press, 2016), may prevent the advancement of a competent woman to the same organizational levels as an equivalently performing man (Heilman, 2001, pp. 657, 660). Heilman elaborated that top jobs are thought to require leaders who are tough, competitive, aggressive, and achievement oriented which are not traditionally traits associated with women (p. 659).

Conversely, Cuadrado, Morales, and Recio (2008) conducted an experiment with a group of 136 mixed-gender undergraduate students to assess perceptions about leadership styles. The researchers wanted to determine if women leaders would be evaluated as more effective leaders when they assumed the stereotypical male leadership styles. In the study, the participants were asked to evaluate a supervisor based on a variety of narrative descriptions matched to a series of different experimental conditions. To verify their four hypotheses, Cuadrado et al. conducted two analyses of variance tests (ANOVAs). The results revealed that the stereotypical male leadership style was evaluated less favorably when assumed by both women and men and that leaders received significantly better evaluations when they exhibited leadership styles that were stereotypically feminine (Cuadrado et al., 2008).

The trait approach is a leadership theory that postulates leaders possess certain traits that attribute to their leadership abilities (Northouse, 2013, p. 19). The theory suggests that leaders

exhibit traits that differentiate them from followers and these traits make them strong leaders

(Northouse, 2013, p. 19). Subscribers to this theory argue that leaders are born, not made. The

breadth and depth of studies conducted on this approach is extensive which has created

credibility for the theory. However, critics feel the list of essential traits is subjective and

inconclusive (Northouse, 2013, p. 31). Further criticism of the approach arises from the concern

that the theory perpetuates gender stereotyping.

Kolb (1999) conducted a study to examine the perceptions of leaders based on feminine

and masculine traits. Kolb's study (1999) began by identifying individuals' tendencies using a

Behavior Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) which treats masculinity and femininity as distinct

identities not directly connected to one's gender (p. 310). Using the BSRI, participants were

placed in the category of masculine, androgynous, feminine, or undifferentiated. Individuals

were then put into mixed sex groups and assigned projects to complete. Following each project,

group members completed a questionnaire about the leadership experience. Kolb's study (1999)

found there was no significant difference in the results based on biological gender; however,

individuals found to be masculine or androgynous scored higher than individuals who scored

feminine or undifferentiated in regard to leadership attitude and experiences. Individuals

classified as masculine and androgynous were also chosen more frequently as preferred leaders

over the other classifications (68% of preferred leaders were masculine or androgynous; Kolb,

1999).

Attention to the issue of gender stereotyping based on the perception of gendered

leadership was elevated in the 1989 Supreme Court case Price Waterhouse v. Ann Hopkins. The

case revealed the discrimination of women at the upper levels of leadership in corporate

America. Hopkins was denied partnership at the firm, despite her exceptional performance

record, based on her lack of feminine attributes. The Court ruled that Price Waterhouse discriminated based on gender stereotypes (as cited in Northouse, 2016, p. 405).

Further stereotyping and socially isolating behavior occurs around competency (Heilman, 2012). Heliman (2001) stated, "If there is any ambiguity about competence, [women] are likely to be viewed as incompetent, and if their competence is unquestionable, they are apt to be socially rejected" (p. 671). Women often move easily within lower ranks and appear poised to break the glass ceiling, but their success may be stunted because their competency violates prescriptive norms (Heilman, 2001, p. 667). Heilman's study also found that negativity can be a reaction to women who prove themselves to be competent in areas that were traditionally off limits to them, and this negativity can be lethal when they strive to advance (p. 661). Northouse (2013) stated that "women face significant gender biases and social disincentives when they self-promote" (p. 357), and Rudman's (1998) findings concluded that "self-promoting women are seen as less socially attractive and less hirable" (p. 629).

Gender Differences

Given the leadership gap, differences in how women and men lead and assessing their related effectiveness are topics that have generated great interest. Research findings vary. Some asserted that there are differences, whereas others argued that gender has little or no relationship to style and effectiveness (Northouse, 2016, p. 402).

Through a meta-analysis that examined differences in men and women, Northouse (2016) found that women were no more interpersonally oriented or less task oriented than men, contrary to stereotypical beliefs (p. 402); however, a vast difference existed with the women's leadership approach. They embraced a more democratic, participative leadership approach than men (Northouse, 2016, p. 402). Eagly and Johnson (1990) conducted a meta-analysis that compared

the leadership styles of men and women. The analysis supported the stereotypical differences between democratic and autocratic leadership. Women tended to use a democratic leadership style than the more autocratic, directive style exhibited by men (Eagly & Johnson, 1990).

Transformational leadership embraces a more democratic approach, and women are frequently associated with this approach. Transformational leadership emerged in the 1980s and steadily gains popularity (Northouse, 2013). "Transformational leadership is the process whereby a person engages with others and creates a connection that raises the level of motivation and morality in both the leader and follower" (Northouse, 2013, p. 186).

Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, and Engen (2003) conducted a meta-analysis to study the notion that when men and women assume positions of high-level leadership, they perform these roles differently. Through the analysis of 45 studies focused on transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles, their research found that female leaders utilized the transformational leadership style more than the other styles (Eagly et al., 2003).

Alignment of Values & Self-Awareness

Even if a woman is deemed competent and is socially accepted, there is potential for a mismatch between what women value in their work and what they value most (Longman & Lafreniere, 2012, p. 58). This can jeopardize whether they remain in the workforce.

Another tension for women is the complexity of family responsibilities and their professional lives. According to a McKinsey & Co. survey (as cited in Barsh & Yee, 2011), women lose interest more quickly than men in moving to higher professional levels because of a perceived lack of opportunity and responsibilities associated with growing families. Also, in Rhodes' (2011) study, women expressed greater desire than men to maintain a work life balance

(p. 1043). Other research suggested that women may not choose to pursue leadership positions because of the social costs of ambition (Bowles et al., 2005; Powell & Graves, 2003).

Dahlvig and Longman (2010) conducted a grounded theory study to understand the most defining moment for a group of women leaders on their leadership development journey. The following three themes emerged: (a) someone recognizing their potential, leading to enhanced confidence of leadership abilities; (b) encountering a person or situation that resulted in reframing the participant's understanding of leadership in themselves as leaders; and (c) experiencing a situation that led to feeling compelled to stand up for a conviction or a strong belief (Dahlvig & Longman, 2010, p. 246).

The "Glass Ceiling"

In the mid-1980s, the concept of the "glass ceiling" was introduced into the American vernacular by two reporters from the *Wall Street Journal* (Northouse, 2013, p. 353). The theory postulated that there is an invisible barrier within organizations that precludes women from assuming leadership positions, especially ones at the top (Hymowitz & Schellhardt, 1986).

Thirty years later, the validity of this theory is still debated. Heilman (2001) argued that the glass ceiling is "an impenetrable barrier at some point in a woman's career . . . viewed as a natural consequence of gender stereotypes and expectations about what women are like and how they should behave" (pp. 657-658). Accordingly, Heilman rejected the idea that the low percentage of women leaders is a function of time and supply but rather is a result of an invisible barrier beyond their control that obstructs their ability to attain leadership positions.

Myerson and Fletcher (2000) suggested that the entire organizational structure is to blame for women not advancing, not the glass ceiling. They cited hidden barriers to equity and effectiveness that plague women throughout their careers, not just as they ascend to the top (p.

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136). Northouse (2013) suggested that these barriers are particularly potent and malicious because they are no longer overt as they had been in years prior to legislation, but they continue to be equally discriminatory (pp. 363-364).

The "Glass Cliff"

In *Sustainable Leadership*, Hargreaves and Fink (2012) pointed out that leadership sustainability is one of the most important and yet often neglected aspects of leadership (p. 2). While the future success and well-being of an organization is dependent upon leadership, clearly articulated succession plans are not always commonplace (Hargreaves & Fink, 2006, p. 59), and all too often, leaders who follow in the footsteps of successful predecessors struggle to achieve the same level of success (Hargreaves & Fink, 2006, p. 57).

Haslam and Ryan (2008) conducted research on gender and leadership transitions. Once women had made it through the "glass ceiling" (Hymowitz & Schellhardt, 1986, pp. D1, D4-D5) and secured leadership positions, the types of situations female leaders faced were far more precarious than those faced by their male counterparts (Haslam & Ryan, 2008, p. 540). Because women's performance in these roles were closely scrutinized, the difficult nature of the various situations impacted the likelihood of their success (Haslam & Ryan, 2008, p. 550); therefore, the failure rate for women leaders increased. This predicament has become known as the "glass cliff" (Ryan & Haslam, 2005, p. 81). With more women assuming leadership roles and their performance being closely examined, the "glass cliff" has become an area of focused research in the field of gender related leadership studies (Haslam & Ryan, 2008, p. 549).

Promotion & Hiring Practices

At the presidential level in universities, board members are the charging party responsible for hiring and overseeing the leader of the organization. Boards in higher education remain male

dominated with 28% of members being women (Lennon, Spotts, & Mitchell, 2013, p. 13). In the private sector, the number of women is even smaller, with women holding just 21% of the S&P 500 company board seats (Catalyst, 2017). The data showed that women board members in both higher education and the corporate sector are in the minority.

Gender imbalance on boards is problematic for the advancement of women for a couple reasons. First, according to Northouse (2013), boards tend to fall prey to a phenomenon known as homosocial reproduction, a tendency for a group to reproduce itself in its own image (p. 359). Homosocial reproduction of gender is evident in the higher education sector where the 30% percent of women presidents (ACE, 2017, p. 7) tracks closely with the 28% of women board members (Lennon et al., 2013, p. 13). Second, research on corporate boards suggested it takes more than a couple women on a board to make fundamental changes and impact on the operations and outlook of the group (Ehrenberg, Jakubson, Martin, Main, & Eisenberg, 2012, p. 11). Ehrenberg et al. (2012) went further in their analyses to find that after a critical mass of women were appointed to a board, there was an association with the rate that their institutions diversify across gender lines (p. 10).

Ehrenberg et al.'s (2012) study of public doctorate institutions found the presence of women in leadership roles, referred to as the feminization of leadership, resulted in greater numbers of women in other roles throughout the organizations (p. 17). Combined with the research of Lennon et al. (2013) that found women win 55.88% of the most prestigious awards, despite only holding 29.1% of tenure track positions (p. 18), suggests that diversifying the faculty could be strategic for securing future awards.

Gender bias in hiring and promotion processes has far-reaching impact beyond the individual experience, translating to larger societal consequences. Research on the influence of

bias on the selection process used in organizational attainment (e.g., hiring, promotion, and other decisions that allocate power in the form of responsibility and authority to employees) is prevalent. According to Gorman (2015) and Rivera (2012), organizational attainment demonstrated that stereotypes, in-group favoritism, and cultural similarities, such as leisure pursuits, experiences, and self-presentation styles were highly salient to employers and often superseded competence in hiring. For women leaders, Gorman's research is problematic because the findings suggested that gender bias in the selection process tends to occur with mid- to high-level positions rather than those at the entry level. Research found that more women were hired at entry-level positions because of the desirable characteristics of entry-level jobs that tend to be characterized as more feminine (e.g., friendliness) (Gorman, 2015).

Techniques to evaluate candidates is another topic of exploration. Steinpreis, Anders and Ritzke (1999) studied the factors that influenced search committee members when reviewing curricula vitae, particularly with respect to the gender of the name on the vitae. They found that both male and female committee members were more likely to vote to hire a male job applicant rather than a female job applicant, even when they had an identical record (Steinpreis et al., 1999). Lennon et al.'s (2013) study also found that the gender of leadership impacted the recruitment process. Searches with female chairs signaled a desire to expand female faculty employment and a commitment to gender equity which led to an increase in female applicants (Lennon et al., 2013, p. 17).

Negotiation

Negotiation is an activity where stereotypical societal beliefs propagate that males are more effective at the activity. Women frequently cite being uncomfortable with the phenomenon

(Babcock & Laschever, 2009). This is concerning given the cumulative effect the activity has on the lives and careers of professionals.

Research showed that women ask for less and accept less when they negotiate (Eckel et al., 2008, p. 442). A study of a major U.S. investment bank found that employees who negotiated were promoted on average 17 months more quickly than those who did not. Women fell into the latter category (Greig, 2008).

According to Eckel, De Oliveria, and Grossman (2008) the skill of negotiating is gendered, with women tending to be more egalitarian than men. In their study, they found that women sought to find outcomes that were favorable to both parties at a great rater than men, even if that meant costs would increase.

Gorman's study (2015) found when women engage in self-advocacy, they may fulfill unflattering female stereotypes by taking on behaviors that are valued in men but devalued in women (e.g., competition). Exhibiting such behaviors were found to hinder women's ability to attain a successful outcome.

Legislation

Affirmative action began as a plan to equalize opportunities for minorities and women at the time of the Civil Rights Movement in the early 1960s. In 1972 Title IX was introduced to assure that women would not be excluded from participation in or denied the benefit of any education program receiving federal funding (The United States Department of Justice, 2018). These were fundamental changes that had a significant impact on the future of women in the workplace and within higher education.

Although these were defining moments in American history, Heilman (2001) suggested that women who succeed in what is thought to be a male dominated culture are perceived as

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receiving preferential treatment afforded by these legislative changes which can undermine women and their effectiveness (p. 665). The findings also showed that this is particularly problematic for competent women considered physically attractive (Heilman, 2001, p. 665). In male-normed organizational cultures, this can also lead to "tokenism" (The Free Dictionary by Farlex, 2018), the practice of making minimal effort in offering minorities opportunities only to comply with the law. The practice of tokenism in organizations can be an added challenge faced by women (Longman & Lafreniere, 2012, p. 47).

Compliance with laws for the sake of upholding the rules dictated by a third party does not lead to fundamental social change, according to Baltodano et al. (2012). They argued that if fundamental social change did not occur, during tough budgetary times, these efforts are bumped as more immediate problems are addressed (Baltodano et al., 2012, p. 65).

Working for Change: Training, Development, and Mentorship

According to the National Center for Education Statistics' 2011 data, 57% of faculty and senior administrators are women yet ACE (2017) found that only 30% of presidents are female (p. 7). Given the number of women who are working in higher education, the potential leadership pool is large, yet the pool is not translating into more women becoming leaders. Understanding why there is a gap is imperative in order to affect change. Baltodano et al. (2012) contended that preparing the next generation of women leaders is imperative and mentorship, leadership development, and networking programs are needed to foster this growth. Van Ummersen (2009) argued:

> Competency counts, as does demonstrated ability, so women must seek out experiential opportunities, enlist outstanding mentors, and join support networks. Most important, they must develop attitudes for success. Regardless of one's position, all leaders must be motivated by core values, have passion for their work, and have a vision of where they are headed and why. (pp. ix-xii)

ACE (2012a) speculated that only modest efforts have been made to expand the potential

pool of well-qualified candidates (p. 50). Madsen (2012b) argued that this is of critical

importance in higher education given the leaking leadership pipeline (p. 4). Ruben (2004) went

further stating that the critical challenges facing higher education requires leadership with

exceptional capabilities who are ready to face these challenges (p. 288). Baltodano et al. (2012)

reiterated this notion stating:

> Considering the currently stalled progress in moving more qualified and deserving
> women into positions of leadership, combined with the critical need for creative and
> innovative leadership in higher education, the call for women's leadership development
> programs for women faculty, administrators, and staff in higher education is imperative.
> (p. 65)

> To address this need, research and training programs emerged to prepare women as

leaders within higher education. The earliest program, the Higher Education Resource Services

(HERS) Institute, was established in 1972, and it has expanded significantly in its 40-plus years

in existence. Judith White (2011), president and executive director of HERS, stated:

> The retirements expected among leaders in higher education will require more candidates
> for these executive offices as well as in many other senior leadership posts across all
> campuses. Equally pressing will be the need for creative, resilient, and mission-focused
> leaders at all levels. (p. 22)

Making the Case for Diversity of Leadership

The case for increasing the number of women leaders is frequent and persuasive.

Madsen (2012a) argued:

> When successful women leaders work with male and/or female students, faculty, staff,
> and administrators, those individuals are likely to have different and hopefully positive
> transformational experiences they could not have had under gender-homogeneous
> leadership. (p. 133)

Further, a study conducted by Woolley et al. (2010) documented that when people worked well

together in a group, the collective intelligence of the group surpassed the cognitive performance

of a single individual (p. 687). Woolley et al. also investigated a number of additional factors

that were thought to be good predictors of a group's collective intelligence, such as group

cohesion, motivation, social sensitivity, number of speaking turns, satisfaction, and group

composition. A group's collective intelligence was positively and significantly correlated with

the proportion of females in the group (Woolley et al., 2010, p. 688). Thus, a factor to be

considered in creating functional, high-performing leadership teams is the presence of women.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

Women are represented at disproportionate rates in leadership positions in comparison with other roles within higher education. Incommensurate numbers over to the position of president and is even more evident at doctorate granting institutions where just 22% of the roles are held by women (ACE, 2017, p. 86). This researcher was curious about the phenomenon of negotiation and how women leaders have handled this compulsory workplace activity. The purpose of the study was to understand the experience of women presidents who served as president at doctorate granting institutions with negotiation and to explore how the phenomenon impacted their ascent to the top position within these research institutions.

The study explored the following questions:

1. How did women college president participants navigate the process of negotiation in securing professional positions prior to becoming president?

2. What were the priorities and foci when negotiating during different points of the participating president's career?

3. What was the process of negotiating that was used by the participants during the process of becoming a college president?

4. How did the negotiating process set up/impact the participant's relationship with the governing board where she ultimately became president?

5. Overall, how did the participating college presidents feel about negotiation, and what would they have done differently negotiating during their careers?

A purposeful sample of women presidents of doctorate granting institutions was selected for this study. Participant interviews were the primary method used in this qualitative study to

gain insight from the lived experiences of women presidents who used negotiation in their professional lives.

Chapter Three provides a comprehensive explanation of the research methodology that was employed for this phenomenological study. The research approach and rationale, population and sampling procedures, as well as a discussion of measures, validity and reliability, and data collection procedures and analysis are included in ensuing pages.

Research Approach and Rationale

A qualitative approach was chosen for this study. According to Creswell (2013), the qualitative approach is a "means for exploring and understanding the meaning of individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem" (p. 44). Understanding negotiation from the perspective of women who hold top leadership positions was conducive to conducting a qualitative study. The elements in defining qualitative research, according to Denzin and Lincoln (2007), are outlined below:

> Qualitative research is a situated activity that locates the observer in the world. Qualitative research consists of a set of interpretive, material practices that make the world visible. These practices transform the world. They turn the world into a series of representations, including field notes, interviews, conversations, photographs, audio recordings, and memos to self. At this level, qualitative research involves an interpretive, naturalistic approach to the world. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them. (p. 4)

Phenomenology was the approach employed for the qualitative study. The objective of this type of approach was to "reduce individual experiences with a phenomenon to a description of the universal essence" (Creswell & Clark, 2007, p. 58). Phenomenology's objective aligned with understanding the phenomenon of negotiation from the perspective of women who served as presidents of doctorate granting institutions.

The goal of this phenomenological study was to gain insight from women presidents of doctorate granting institutions about negotiation in order to reveal themes and remove barriers for emerging women leaders. Themes revealed from the interviews could be useful to aspiring leaders to identify areas to improve their skills or bring awareness to the phenomenon of negotiation. The findings will hopefully increase the knowledge of women regarding this activity and help them be more successful when engaging in this activity.

The methods used in the study encouraged participants to reflect and purposefully determine how they handled these situations. Qualitative inquiry allows individuals to interpret their own reality rather than relying on the researcher's interpretations of that reality (Bogdan & Biklen, 1997). In-depth interviews and member validation of the interview transcripts ensured that participants were involved in telling and interpreting their own reality of the phenomenon of negotiation.

The researcher took a constructivist stance with the hope that studying this phenomenon will lead to insights that will help aspiring women leaders to better navigate negotiation. Babcock and Laschever (2003) found that the cumulative effect of negotiation is significant and has long-term impact on compensation, career growth, and trajectory. Given these findings, engaging in successful negotiation seems critical for leadership and promotion.

Negotiation occurs almost every time someone moves up a level in an organization. Given that the percentage of women is smaller at each successive leadership level within higher education, understanding the phenomenon of negotiation and how it can impact their ascent is critical. Through understanding the lived experiences of women presidents, other women may learn about the phenomenon and be better prepared to navigate the leadership labyrinth in their own organization.

Population and Sampling Procedures

The basic classification system developed by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (The Carnegie Classification of Institutions of Higher Education, 2018) was used to create the overall pool and subdivision of institutional category in ACE's (2017) *American College President Study.* This categorization was followed for this study in order to align categories of information. At the time of ACE's study, there were 3,615 public and private accredited degree-granting institutions in the United States and 1,546 of their presidents responded to their 2016 study (ACE, 2017, p. 2). ACE segmented its findings based on the following categories: doctorate-granting institutions, master's institutions, bachelor's colleges, associate colleges, and special designation minority serving institutions. The framework of these systems and studies were used as a launching point for this research study.

When this study was designed, the population targeted was women presidents of doctorate granting institutions with a high level of research. At commencement of data collection, there were 106 universities that met the criteria and 18 women served as presidents of those institutions. All of these presidents were contacted by email with a request to participate in the study (see appendix A).

Securing commitments for interviews from sitting presidents was a greater challenge than anticipated. Only two people responded that they would be willing to be interviewed. Four others responded but declined. No response was received from 11 presidents and one was removed from the pool because they were suspended from their position at the outset of the study.

When discussing the response rate with an early participant, she expressed that she was not surprised. She observed that presidents' schedules were excessively committed and

speculated that they would be guarded about being interviewed about such a personal topic.

Another participant agreed, stating:

> People who are in a presidency, at the time, they are very cautious about participating in any research where they will be quoted. . . . It is a very high-risk environment. Especially for women presidents. They've given up a lot to be president.

Subsequently, another participant suggested expanding the pool to include recently retired presidents from doctorate granting institutions. She recommended employing a snowball technique as a good method to secure other participants. The snowball sampling is when one participant who meets the requirements for inclusion in the study, the participant then recommends the involvement of another participant (Boyle et al., 2018).

After discussing ways to expand the pool but maintain the original intent of the study with my dissertation advisor and representatives from the Institutional Research Board (IRB) at Colorado State University, the research protocol for the study was expanded to include retirees and all types of doctorate institutions (public, private, all three levels of research intensity). The change in protocol yielded four more participants, for a total of six interviews.

Measures

Personal interviews were arranged by email and set for 60 minutes. Interviews were conducted in-person or by telephone and were electronically recorded. To ensure strong recall from the interview, the recordings were transcribed within a week of the meeting. All recordings and notes were saved on password protected computers and backed up to a secure server at Colorado State University.

A researcher's journal was used to enhance the iterative process of qualitative research. Detailed field notes were logged which included the researcher's reflections about the topic as well as observations about non-verbal communications and context. Additionally, new research

questions and areas for future research were identified and captured in the journal as ideas emerged throughout the study.

Procedure for Data Collection

The procedure for data collection began with reviewing ACE's classification system used in the American College President Study (2012, 2017). Next, a list of all presidents of institutions classified as having a high level of research activity according to the Carnegie classification system (The Carnegie Classification of Institutions of Higher Education, 2018) was assembled. At the time of the study's proposal development, 106 were classified as high research institutions, and women served as president at 18 of them. By the time data collection commenced, only 17 were still serving in the role. One of the women had been suspended by her board in the time that had passed between the phases of research. All 17 were contacted and only two in the original group agreed to participate. Four other participants were secured after the research protocol was expanded to all doctorate granting institutions and extended to recently retired women presidents of such institutions.

An introductory email was sent to the original pool of 17 potential participants with an overview of the study and request for participants. When the pool was expanded, women were added using a snowballing sample approach. This meant participants recommended names of other potential participants. The same introductory email was sent to recommended potential participants to explain the study and request their participation.

Depending on geographic proximity to the researcher, interviews were either scheduled by phone or conducted in person. Arrangements for conducting a personal or telephone interview were made immediately after they agreed to participate in the study (appendix B). During the negotiation of these arrangements, a request for consent issued by Colorado State

University's IRB (appendix C) was sent to the participants for their completion in advance of the interview. Three were returned electronically in advance of the interview, and the other three were collected in person immediately prior to the interview.

Prior to the interviews, the researcher reviewed each women presidents' curriculum vitaes (CV) to become familiar with the president's background. The CVs were obtained on the website of the institution where they were employed or through an internet search. Information regarding their previous appointments and experience was collected from public information sources and reviewed in advance. Securing such material elevated time spent during the interview to cover such details.

Three of the interviews were conducted by phone and the other three were completed in person. Each interview was scheduled for one hour. A varying amount of time was spent at the beginning of the interview establishing rapport, making introductions and discussing topics unrelated to the study. The time devoted to the interview for the study averaged 53 minutes in length. Regardless of whether they were in person or conducted by phone, all interviews were recorded electronically and transcribed using Microsoft Word. The transcriptions ranged from 36-51 pages in length and were reviewed for accuracy by each participant.

Data Analysis

The data was collected and analyzed sequentially: First, information from the CVs of the presidents was collected. Next information on career progression was collected from public sources, and then the personal interviews were conducted. The interviews were recorded electronically and then transcribed, creating detailed manuscripts to review and document the discussion. Multiple reviews of the researcher's field journal and transcripts led to coding the transcripts manually, as well as through the qualitative software analysis program Nvivo.

The interview transcripts were used to identify text repetitions, colloquial words and phrases, as well as similarities and differences between the participants. These are key strategies for qualitative data analysis (Bernard & Ryan, 2017). This scrutiny led to the identification of keywords. After the keywords were highlighted, the transcripts were reviewed again with the research questions in mind.

As the interviews were conducted, the researcher identified emerging patterns and themes. A dialogue was developed between the researcher and the data from in the field notes in the researcher's journal. According to Creswell and Clark (2007), phenomenology involves open-ended questions and requires a significant amount of interpretation, reflection, and understanding of the data collected by the researcher. A reflexive process was used which was influenced by previous ethnographic field studies conducted by the researcher.

After the conclusion of interviews, coding was undertaken, and cross interview analysis commenced. A codebook was created and interview quotes that supported that particular theme were collected under that code. Themes were color coded within the transcripts and expanded as interviews yielded new thoughts. This process was completed three times to ensure that the themes identified were the most salient within all of the data collected.

Five strong themes emerged: reframing negotiation, know yourself, self-negotiation, preparation, and achieving win-win outcomes. The themes are defined and described in Chapter Four and provide readers with information on navigating negotiation effectively from the perspective of six women presidents. Providing this insight hopefully will be instructive to emerging leaders and fulfilled one of the goals of the study which was to inform the next generation of women leaders about negotiation.

Trustworthiness

Artifact review and member checking increased the construct validity. Artifact checking was achieved several ways. To provide context prior to the interview, the researcher engaged in the following activities: reviewing the CVs of the presidents, reading publications and speeches written by the presidents, and collecting public information via news releases, articles, and information on their institutions' websites.

Interviews were conducted in person or via telephone. Content validation consisted of the interviewees participant checking following the interviews. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), member checking is the "most critical technique for establishing credibility" (p. 314). In this study, participants were emailed their transcript of the interview to ensure accuracy. Corrections were made by the researcher according to the suggested edits of the participants. Edited versions of the transcripts were sent to participants for final review and approval. This iterative process allowed the researcher and participant to verify that the correct meaning was captured from the questions and interview.

Conclusion

Given the difficulty in securing interviews with women presidents, a slight adjustment had to be made with the participant pool. This turned out to be favorable as the second group of participants were more readily available and willing to participate in the study. They also had more experience with negotiation and were very reflective about the phenomenon, which added richness to the study.

CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

The lived experience of six women serving as presidents at doctorate granting institutions with the phenomenon of negotiation provided the core for this study. Chapter Four includes information about the study participants, context about their professional experience, reveals the five themes that emerged from the interviews, and offers an overview of responses for each of the research questions. Finally, the chapter concludes with the essence of the study.

Participant Overview

Six interviews were conducted for this study and collectively they had served 10 presidencies (see Figure 4.1). Three participants served as presidents at three different institutions, so they had multiple encounters with negotiation at the presidential level. Their extensive experience revealed in their interviews provided additional depth about the phenomenon of negotiation. Similarity in responses began to emerge after interviews with six different women presidents, so data collection ceased after the six interviews.
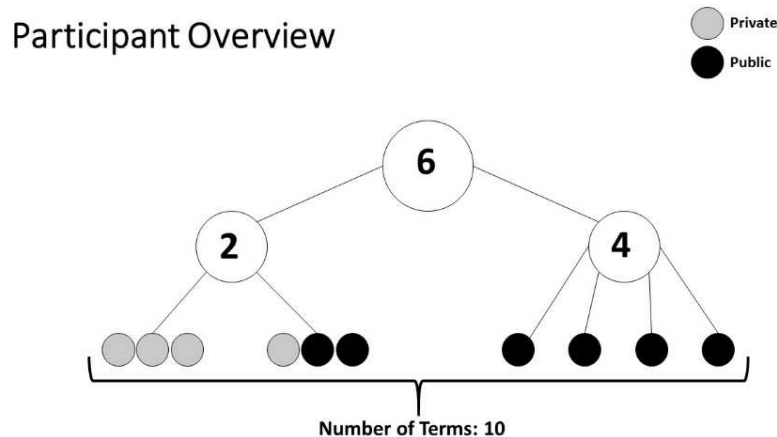
Figure 4.1. Participant overview of number of presidencies. This figure illustrates the number of presidencies that each participant has served (not terms), and notes whether they were at public or private institutions.

All six participants previously served, or currently serve, as a president of a doctorate granting institution. Four were presidents of public institutions and had only served within the public system. Two participants served as presidents at private institutions. These same two women served as president three times at different institutions. In their collective experiences, the participants encountered different reporting relationships ranging from being a direct report, to a board of trustees, to reporting to the head of their university system. At the time of the interview, two of the participants had retired from their post as a president within the last year.

The women were highly educated which is consistent with the findings in ACE's (year) study of college presidents. All six participants had earned their Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) degrees. This was higher than the national statistic for women presidents. ACE's study of college presidents revealed that 87% of women presidents possess a doctor of philosophy or doctor of education degree, and just 77% of their male counterparts have earned a doctorate degree (ACE, 2017, p. 112).

Most of the participants' studies concentrated in the liberal arts and higher education administration. Three participants focused their doctoral studies and research on higher education administration, two in organizational management, and one in theology. Five of the six participants had undergraduate degrees in the liberal arts.

Four of the participants had a traditional professional background for leaders in academia, rising out of the academic ranks serving as provosts or deans prior to becoming a university president. One president entered higher education from the corporate sector, and another came from the not-for-profit sector.

Participants ranged in age from 54-70 which generated an average age of 65 for the participant pool, slightly higher than the average age of women presidents nationwide (62),

according to ACE's (2017, p. 30) study of American college presidents. The mean for service as a president was 6.6 years and the median for service was 5.5 years for the study participants, slightly higher than the national average of women presidents who had served on average six years (ACE, 2017, p. 31).

All six presidents in the study were heterosexual, which was slightly higher than the 94% of women nationwide who claimed that sexual orientation (ACE, 2017, p. 110). While all participants were currently married, one participant had been divorced and one was widowed as well. Four of the participants had children (67%) which tracked lower than 74% of women presidents in the national study who had children (ACE, 2017, p. 111). Of note was that all of their children were 16 years or older when they began as a president which was similar to the national survey that found 83% of the children of presidents were older than 18 years of age when they began serving as president (ACE, 2017, p. 111). All four participants who had children had at least one grandchild.

Five of the six participants (83%) were white which was the same percentage of white female presidents nationwide in 2016 (ACE, 2017, p. 111). A total of just 16.9% of women presidents were from a minority background with the greatest number being Black (9%) followed by 2.9% being Hispanic (ACE, 2017, p. 111). One of the study participants was Asian. Nationwide, this was one of the lower ethnicities/races represented by women presidents. Regardless of gender, the nationwide percentage of non-white presidents in 2016 was 16.8%, which was an increase of 4% over the 2011 study (ACE, 2017, p. 111).

The following section provides information about participants regarding their age and marital / family status as well as an overview of their experience. This information was provided

so that readers understand more about the participants to assist with putting their stories and comments into perspective.

Participant 1

Participant 1 was a 70-year-old white woman who was married. Her position was president of a large public research institution where she served in this capacity for the past 13 years. She was the provost at the same institution prior to becoming president and served as interim president for one year prior to her first and sole presidential appointment.

Participant 2

Participant 2 was a 69-year-old white woman who was married and a grandmother. She recently retired as president of a large public research institution and currently served as a faculty member at the institution where she served as president. She served as president three times: twice at public institutions and once at a private institution. She served two five-year terms at different institutions and one three-year term at another institution for a total of 13 years as a president.

Participant 3

Participant 3 was a 65-year-old white woman who was divorced, remarried, and a grandmother. She currently served as president of a medium-sized private institution. She had served as president three times at elite private colleges in three different states. Each presidency extended for five years for a total of 15 years.

Participant 4

Participant 4 was a 54-year-old Asian woman who was married. Her first and sole presidency, thus far, had included eight years as a president of a medium-sized public institution that was part of a system. She worked in the corporate sector prior to a career in academia. Her

career in higher education began as a part-time faculty member in the same community as the institution where she ultimately became a university president.

Participant 5

Participant 5 was a 66-year-old white woman who was married and a grandmother. She served as a president for two years of a medium-sized public research institution that was connected to part of a system. Her position was her first presidency at this type of institution and she was asked to serve in this role by the head of the system. She worked in the not-for-profit sector in the same city of the institution where she became president.

Participant 6

Participant 6 was a 69-year-old white woman who was widowed and remarried. She recently retired as a president of a medium size public research institution where she served as president for 15 years. She was an internal hire and was the interim president prior to her permanent appointment which was her first and only university presidency. She currently served on a couple of boards and as an interim CEO of a not-for-profit in the community where she served as president.

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Themes

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Analysis of the interviews revealed the repetition of phrases and similarity in word selection and supporting stories. Five common themes were identified related to the phenomenon of negotiation from the perspective of women presidents of doctorate granting institutions. These themes included reframing negotiation, self-knowledge, self-negotiation, preparation for negotiation, and outcomes of negotiation. Unknowingly, the participants interwove these themes into many of their answers and even used many of the same phrases in relation to these themes, for example, seeking "win-win" outcomes and doing your "homework."

The participants' descriptions of the process of negotiation was different than their

perceptions about negotiation earlier in their career. They expressed that women needed to

adjust their thinking about the activity, and many of them did so throughout their career.

Consequently, reframing negotiation was identified as the first theme. The next theme related to

knowing one's self which included components such as knowing your values and tolerance for

conflict, all of which were important to the participants. The third and fourth themes focused on

the concepts of self-negotiation and the importance of preparation in the negotiation process.

The final theme to emerge related to the outcome of negotiation. For these women, the ultimate

outcome of negotiation was creating a win-win situation where both parties felt positive about

the interaction and results.

Theme 1: Reframing Negotiation

Though the participants accepted the word negotiation and used it freely, they conveyed

that it had a negative connotation related to both the influence of gender and the competitive

element associated with the negotiating process. They thought that this was off-putting and

misleading for women. The participants explained that the stereotypical perspectives of

negotiation that presumes masculine skills are more valuable at the bargaining table than

feminine skills added to the need for women to reframe their mindset about negotiation. The

female participants for this study preferred to think about negotiation as a discussion. Participant

3 shared how important the activity of negotiating was to her by stating, "I think it is about how

you are going to establish your relationship. Is it one of mutual respect?" She went on to reflect,

"I don't see it as difficult. It's how do we create a win-win?"

The women communicated that high-stake issues require many rounds of conversation.

Discussions about employment fell into this category and they offered that engaging multiple

times in a discussion was beneficial before coming to a conclusion. The participants conveyed

that the conversations must include all of the stakeholders, and this will take time. Participant 1

shared that she thought that negotiation is "a continuous process of testing alignment, moving

boundaries, testing alignment, moving boundaries." At its core, negotiation is a matter of

working with people and aligning interests. She added that "good negotiation skills require that

you listen to the other person first. Not to tell them what you want."

Alternatively, when robust discussions did not happen, participants often felt unsatisfied

and ill informed. This set up an imbalance in the relationship between the invested parties.

Participant 5 told the story of being courted for her presidency by trustees and the interim

president of the university system where she was currently employed. Collectively, they

arranged a meeting with the head of the system, for what she thought was going to be an

exploratory meeting about the position. Instead, she said, "I had one conversation with him, and

I thought that I was still considering, and he assumed that since I showed up to meet him, I was

there." She went on to say, "So that was . . . so that was, kind of weird." The impact of that

hurried approach to negotiating was problematic because she did not have all of the information

she needed to be accurately informed as she made her decision about whether she wanted to

serve as president. Participant 5 went on to add:

> It was then when after I did agree . . . I realized that I didn't have a clue as to what the
> real circumstances were and what the needs were here. And the financial situation was
> not what I had been led to believe.

She shared that after she learned of these difficulties, she put together a request for a financial

package to help support her charge as president and submitted it to the head of the system for his

consideration. Eventually her request was granted "by wearing him down," but it put her in a

risky position as a new leader. This rocky start created an awkward interpersonal dynamic

between her and the head of the system with an imbalance of power.

For the most part, the stories the women shared illustrated how their negotiations had

been civil conversations, and therefore, they felt negotiating was not something women should

fear. Concerning negotiation, Participant 4 observed:

> When we think about higher education, particularly public education, it is a discussion
> and it is a working collaboration. Can you both agree on where you're going and how
> each side is going to get to where they need to go and want to go, and do those come
> together?

Having worked in the corporate sector prior to higher education, she felt that people embodied a

more transparent approach to negotiation in universities and that there was more transparency

and willingness to reach mutually agreeable terms. Because of this, she encouraged people,

especially women, not to worry so much about negotiating.

Participant 5 illustrated how the elements of negotiation were similar to the actions of a

conciliatory leader. She stated:

> Any time you are in a leadership position and that you are trying to move things forward,
> it takes working with people and a certain amount of negotiation because none of us ever
> accomplish anything on our own, so you've got to bring people along with you. So, it's a
> matter of understanding what their needs and motivations are going to be in order to
> really get on board and be able to advance whatever it is that you are doing. . . . It's a
> matter of working with people and aligning interests.

She felt that working together to align these interests came naturally to women and that if they

employed this lens when thinking about conducting negotiation for themselves, it may be easier

for them to navigate.

Theme 2: Know Yourself

Participants' responses revealed they had a strong sense of self. They knew what their personal values were and how these values manifested in their personal and professional lives. Participant 1 reflected on her 50-year career. She said,

> My generation of women, you assume that you were going to get battered and whether it was voting issues, breaking glass ceilings–all those things you assume that if you embarked on that path, you knew it was going to be a rugged path. You had to have an enormous amount of self-confidence and an internal gyroscope about your values. And you had to be really resilient.

The self-confidence and personal awareness articulated by participant 1 was a similar value apparent in the other participants' responses. At this time in their careers as university presidents, they were in touch with what was essential to their personal and professional happiness and fulfilment. The participants understood how their values manifested in tangible ways in their professional lives and they negotiated terms that upheld their principles. For example, a couple of participants discussed the importance of tenure. To them, tenure was a symbol of freedom of thought and expression and was a cornerstone of higher education. Consequently, they negotiated for tenure as a way to uphold this value.

Fairness was a value of great importance to all of the participants. Participant 2 shared a story of being an internal candidate and expressing to the human resources representative her expectation that her application would remain confidential and that she be treated in the same manner as an external candidate. Confidentiality symbolized fairness and therefore was very important to her. When this did not happen, she withdrew her application. She recounted what she said to them: "I can't have that. If you can't treat me the same way you treat other candidates, then I am going to look elsewhere." For her, this was non-negotiable. She expressed

her expectations upfront and when they were not met, she walked away and pursued another opportunity. The deep connection to her values yielded an action of empowerment.

Freedom of speech and autonomy were two other values that the participants held in high regard. Participant 1 shared:

> When I went to the president's office initially it was within two months of my tenure decision, and so I negotiated, to use your word, that the tenure decision be made one way or the other before I took the position. They had to wait for that, and it had to be done straight up, and nobody could argue that it was done because I took the position. The process had to go through.

She went on to expand by stating, "What was more important to me was the freedom and space to do the work that I wanted to do." For her, tenure created a condition where she could do this more freely.

Academic freedom was also a core value for the women who had risen through the faculty ranks. Participant 3 recounted a story when tenure was not included as a term in her first presidential contract. She said:

> [I] didn't get tenure and then realized it mattered to me greatly. So my other places, it was a constant demand. And for me . . . it's just a personal thing. I'm an academic and I want to have that voice of an academic. I saw as president when I was in that place [without tenure] . . . I felt more like a hired hand.

When she did not have tenure, she realized that it represented academic freedom which was important to her. This raised her self-awareness about this matter. From that point forward, when negotiating for her two other presidencies, tenure became a core component that she negotiated as part of her compensation package.

Working in public education and being a public servant was a core value for participants 1, 4, and 5. Participant 4 discussed this extensively and shared:

> My desire was to have a new model for higher education because one of my values is efficiency and cost-effectiveness–return on investment as a taxpayer. [That] is what led me to be in higher ed. The fact that I am very clear on what I should make or not make,

because I am a public servant, is because I went into this relationship being very clear [about] what I was doing.

Clarity around this value of being a public servant dictated her outlook on many things in her leadership position, including her own compensation level. Initially, she insisted on a modest salary and only agreed to marginal increases in subsequent years. This created alignment between her conviction to her values related to being a public servant.

The clarity and confidence each participant had about themselves and their values was evident in their overall outlook regarding the phenomenon of negotiation. Participant 4 stated, "I am very clearly organized in my own head, before I enter that final discussion, before they map out and lay out the whole contract. That is even in my own personal life." She also encouraged women to know their value when negotiating: "It is up to women to be stronger about their value. They don't have to be militant about it. It just is 'This is what I'm bringing, and this is what I have to offer.'" Participants' knowing themselves led to self-confidence which led to understanding their value and greater satisfaction with the negotiation process and its outcomes. Participant 5 reflected, "You gotta know yourself. . . . I have never wanted to live with regrets. . . . To thine own self be true."

Theme 3: Self-Negotiation

Prior to engaging in formal negotiations, the women described a stage where they negotiated with themselves. They considered various scenarios and determined their willingness to entertain certain options, they defined the boundaries of their conditions, and they clarified what conditions they were willing to accept or concede. Clarity seemed to arise out of having a strong sense of self in combination with the cumulative impact of their pre-presidency experience. Prior to applying for a presidency, they considered everything from whether they even wanted to be a president, to what type of institution they would work for, to what type of

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compensation and perks they would or would not accept during this reflective self-negotiating stage.

Participant 2 captured her own involvement in self-negotiation stating, "I did my own negotiation in terms of my own thinking about what is it that I want and how I can [achieve this]," referring to career choices she faced. She referred to a time when she weighed whether she should pursue a position that would give her the opportunity to grow her career but would require her to move. Prior to that, she had considered herself as location bound as she lived in the same community in which she was born and raised, and the prospect of leaving was daunting. After she had concluded her self-negotiation, she pursued an opportunity outside of her home state which led to moving for the first time at 50 years old, a pivotal decision as she went on to serve as president in three states after that initial move later in her life.

Participant 5 shared her own story of self-negotiating that occurred during a time in her career when she was at odds with the leadership of her institution. She stated, "I did my own negotiation in terms of my own thinking about what it is that I want. How can I, and this goes to my values, be self-sufficient. And that I figure it out." As a result of her self-negotiation, she set up a financial reserve so that she felt less vulnerable to the whims of the political environment where she was employed. Doing so brought her peace of mind and empowered her to do what she thought was right for the organization without fear of personal consequences she might suffer for making unpopular choices.

There were times when the participants self-negotiated themselves out of something. This ranged from what opportunities they would consider to the terms that they would or would not accept and/or request. Participants said saying no at times was healthy and necessary. Participant 2 shared a story of a time when she walked away from an opportunity because during

the interview process two of her personal values were violated: confidentiality and equitable

treatment of candidates. She decided to withdraw from the search after she weighed the pros and

cons of the position and situation. Ultimately, that meant she accepted a different position that

was an hour drive from her home, but she felt the sacrifice of her time commuting was worth it

for upholding her personal values.

Interviews revealed that participants self-negotiated when they considered compensation

terms they would or would not accept. For participant 4 this was inextricably linked to her

personal beliefs and mindset about working as a public servant. She self-negotiated the values

she felt a leader in the public sector of higher education ought to possess, which impacted her

mindset about compensation. She said:

> If I think about my career, I'm very clear on the boundaries of what I am doing and why I
> am doing something and what I want out of that experience. . . .   If anything, I have
> negotiated away from getting raises. Because I believe as a public servant . . . it's fair
> what I make. While I appreciate that the board wants me to make more, . . . I am a public
> servant and I set the standard for my team, so I don't allow for it. And my negotiation is
> very clear and I'm very clear on that reasoning and so again I'm very clear on the
> boundaries. . . .   Then I've had to negotiate backwards.

Participant 4 was asked how people have reacted to this stance, and she said:

> Well, they don't know what to think about it, but I'm like, I'm a public servant and if I
> decide I want to go back and make a lot of money, I'm going to do it in private industry
> where it's all about the money. It is not about serving others.

She went on to say, "I embrace in totality what I have accepted as my role and therefore it all has

to align in my own mind and those are the boundaries I set."

Salary discussions that participants recounted were laced with self-negotiation where

participants carefully considered what they would or would not accept. Participant 2 discussed

the morality of accepting a raise during the economic crisis in 2008 despite her board offering a

merit increase in a polarized culture where unionized employees were granted raises. She

shared:

> I also turned down increases in compensation, at [redacted name] for example. The
> political environment after the collapse of the stock market was so bad that I had frozen
> salaries at [redacted name] for all non-union employees. There were a lot of unions at
> [redacted name]. There are 11 different unions at that university and not one of them
> agreed to a salary freeze to help the university. They all insisted on the salary increases
> in their contract, even though we were in a crisis. The Board Chairman at the time
> advocated for a salary increase for me and I declined because I felt that it would be
> impossible for me as a leader to take a salary increase while freezing other people's
> salaries. So, you have to be willing to do that. . . . I don't feel regret.

Participant 1 referred to a similar circumstance with her board and compensation: "They

[the board] want to renegotiate by giving me more money all of the time and I try not to take it

but . . . once in a while [you have to]." For her, the economic climate of the state in which her

institution was located made her hesitant to accept raises. She reflected, "There's a point in

which you have enough money. You know what I mean?"

Theme 4: Preparation

Repeatedly, the notion of being prepared to negotiate and doing one's homework was

raised by the participants. Being prepared not only gave women greater comfort negotiating, it

also bolstered their self-confidence. Participant 3's comments underscored this when she

unabashedly said, "I'm a good researcher. I know my facts."

The participants felt colleagues were open to sharing information and encouraged women

to utilize their networks to attain information. Participant 1 shared:

> When I was provost, women would have drinks together at the annual [redacted name]
> provost conference, and many of them have become presidents, so you just share
> information in your network. You gotta use your networks. Both men and women.

She went on to share, "I had copies when I became president of other president's contracts

because I knew them [the other presidents]." She underscored the importance of utilizing

networks to gather information because even though salaries were public information, other terms, such as funding for positions, tenure conditions, post-presidency standings, were not. She concluded by stating, "Cause, you don't want to do it [negotiate] without information."

Participants found being prepared produced better outcomes and moved negotiations along more swiftly as well. When discussing her presidential contract, participant 1 said:

> It is a pretty classical president's contract. I didn't use an agent. I had enough connections to know what presidents' contracts looked like. I've been recruited to go other places, so I knew essentially what the parameters were.

Achieving pay equity was another motivator for being prepared. Participant 2 shared about a time early in her career when she discovered, after the fact, that she was underpaid relative to a male peer with a less successful research record. She said that from that point, "I would ask, Well, what do the men make? And I checked. I always checked." This lesson stayed with her when she became a university president. She shared, "I succeeded a woman only once in my whole career. . . . It was important to me to know what [she] made and to make a bit more because I think she had settled." After that, she said, "I tracked my salary in relation to other public university presidents. . . . I certainly wasn't ever underpaid." The values of fairness and equity were very important to this participant and these values were interwoven in many of her responses.

Participant 3 also shared a story where she learned after accepting a position of provost that she was making 60% of what her predecessor had earned. She felt that her naivety in combination with not being prepared led to her under-compensation. From that she learned to check salary information of both men and women. Learning from the experience of others was helpful to the participants and their negotiation outcomes. They alleged that when they had more information during the negotiation process, salary inequities and other gaps were avoided.

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Participants also expressed that in the digital information age, it was easier than ever

before to attain facts, even when organizations were not forthcoming with information.

Participant 3 said, "I really do think you need to have all the research you can and it's pretty easy

to get it now with all that is available publicly." Participant 4 observed that younger generations

than hers were forcing the acceptance of this practice of information sharing. She said:

> Look at these younger women who are 30. They have been brought up in this world
> where they are equal. . . . They see the world very differently. And I think we treat them
> differently, because they expect it. They share all information and we know it, even
> about pay, so if we're not equal, we're going to hear about it.

Being prepared for the negotiation process appeared to provide the participants greater

comfort both entering and during negotiations which fed their self-confidence and led to a more

favorable outcome. Preparation for negotiation also led to a more positive overall feeling about

the negotiation and toward the negotiator on the other side of the table.

Theme 5: Make it a Win-Win

All of the participants believed that successful negotiations occurred when both parties

felt positive about the experience and the result included a win on both sides. At the core of

negotiation, Participant 3 shared, "When it's done right, I think it then establishes an equal

partnership." Interviewees felt that the impact and the ensuing ripple effect of establishing an

equal partnership for the person, as well as the organization, was significant.

Participants expressed creating an equal partnership at the onset was imperative in

fostering a positive working relationship. Creating a balanced relationship was achieved in

different ways. Participant 2 offered that a positive working relationship was essential to

"understand the pressures that the other party was under and how to offer alternatives that met

some of my goals" in order to achieve a win-win negotiation. She did this when she negotiated

increased deferred compensation in lieu of a competitive salary with an institution that had just

undergone significant budget cuts.

Participant 3 offered another reason to establish a partnership built on a foundation of

mutual respect from the beginning. She shared that something can get overlooked in the

negotiation process. Her experience was that errors were corrected if there was a positive

working relationship between the two parties. She revealed that after becoming president at one

of her institutions, she discovered that her sabbatical terms were not on par with other

administrators on her team. She felt that because she had established a mutually respectful

relationship with her board, when she raised the issue with them, they were open to correcting

the situation. She said they were embarrassed about the oversight and invoked a correction

immediately. She attributed the mutual respect as the reason that her experience dealing with the

corrections were positive. Her advice to others when negotiating was if something "is screwed

up, it can be fixed. It's not just a one-time deal."

Participants felt that there was a stereotypical belief that negotiation is a competitive

endeavor yielding winners and losers, which they rejected. Participant 4 stated:

> I really believe that both parties have to win in any transaction or it is a bad deal. It will
> not end well [if someone gets a bad deal] because somebody's going to get the short end,
> and that isn't going to work then.

She felt the term negotiation had the connotation of "win-loss, and that somebody wins and

somebody loses," and this was problematic because this approach did not yield positive long-

term results.

Participant 6 felt that a win-win outcome in all negotiations was critical to success. This

was informed by her upbringing. She shared:

> The classic win-win is when all parties have an opportunity to, not necessarily, get
> everything they want, but have a way to understand how to be successful within the

decisions that are made. And I think that's just been a fundamental philosophy [about negotiation] even in growing up in a family business where I saw my parents very focused on making sure there were good outcomes for their customers and their clients and making sure then they were still financially stable. And I think that makes a big difference.

Participant 6, like participant 3, was raised in an entrepreneurial family. Their entrepreneurial upbringing influenced them during formative times of their lives, and they understood the necessity of creating a win-win in negotiating a deal at an early age.

Participants shared that setting the goal of reaching a positive outcome for both parties was also in the organization's best interest because it yielded happier, more productive employees. From a supervisor's lens, participant 3said, "To me, it's a pragmatic thing. I want you to be as happy as you can be, and I want the institution to work as well as it can." She told the story of hiring a vice-president of student affairs. The leading candidate had a young family and her partner was a stay-at-home parent. The cost of housing was high in the neighborhood surrounding the campus and the candidate was moving from a community where the cost of living was much lower. The university owned a home occupied by the president near campus. At the time of the negotiation, the president had been contemplating moving from the university house to the city center. Therefore, as part of the compensation package for the vice-president, she offered what was formerly the president's house to the leading candidate as a perk. Not only was this a recruitment tactic, but the participant knew that having the head of students close to campus would be beneficial to the institution given the 24/7 nature of the work in student affairs. Reportedly, the candidate was thrilled and accepted the position, creating a win-win outcome for the candidate and the institution.

If a win-win was not evident, participants felt that candidates should possess the self-confidence to walk away from a negotiation. Participant 2 stated, "The first thing I learned about

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negotiation was if the opening terms were unacceptable–walk." She went on to share an example of when she was offered a low salary for one of her earlier positions. She shared, "I swallowed hard and said 'I already make that much at [redacted name] and I'm not coming for that. And he increased his offer, and to be honest, I don't remember by how much, but significantly." Not only was this more financially favorable for her, it demonstrated that they really wanted her to be part of their university, which was an important signal to her. Ultimately, she accepted, and she felt it was a win-win negotiation.

Participants discussed internal candidates and how they were impacted by negotiations. They observed that internal candidates often felt that they did not have the freedom to walk away from negotiations. Five of the six participants discussed this phenomenon and expressed that it was just as important for an internal candidate to walk away from the negotiation if the situation was not a win-win. The five participants acknowledged that this can be harder for internal candidates because they are vested in the community and the institution with whom they are negotiating. Participant 1 felt that a common myth existed about internal candidates and offered, "An external candidate has capacity to say, 'No thank you. I'm out of this race.' But as an internal candidate, they'll assume you'll stick around. And yet you have the capacity to say, 'No, I'm not." She said this was important to do otherwise it created an imbalance of power. She felt that when the other party dictated the terms, this pattern ensued with future matters.

Participant 2 experienced walking away as an internal candidate at an institution where she had worked for many years. Instead of accepting their offer, which she perceived as unfair, she pursued other opportunities and ultimately secured a position at another institution. It meant she had to drive an hour to the institution to work, but she felt more valued at the new university. Furthermore, she felt she was empowered to do work that set her on her trajectory of becoming a

university president, experience she did not think she would have received at her home institution.

Creating mutually beneficial outcomes through negotiation was important to all of the participants. This final theme is unique because it encapsulates the elements of all four prior themes. To truly achieve a win-win scenario, one must be willing to reframe the traditional approach to negotiation and this includes being self-aware and understanding one's values, practicing the concept of self-negotiation, and gathering information in order to be fully prepared to engage in the negotiation process.

Research Question Findings

The following five research questions were designed to explore the phenomenon of negotiation through participant interviews. This section summarizes the responses of the participants for each of the research questions and highlights how the five themes were revealed through their responses.

Research Question 1

Participants were asked how they navigated the process of negotiation in securing professional positions prior to becoming president. Participants' responses varied to this question. They all discussed negotiating for positions prior to the presidency, but some shared stories about negotiating contracts or arrangements within the scope of their previous jobs as preparation for the presidency. Others interwove personal stories about how they navigated negotiation in their personal lives and how this contributed to their expertise with negotiation. The cumulative impact of these experiences helped them navigate subsequent negotiations in the workplace.

There was a strong sentiment of learning by doing. Participants' perception of negotiation shifted over time leading to a new mental model about negotiation. Given their long careers, they went through many negotiations before attaining the top office in the organization. Participant 3 reflected, "As time goes on, I have learned more and more. . . ." Participants' responses suggested that much of their learning early in their careers came from hindsight. Participant 5 admitted: "I didn't know what I didn't know." She went on to share, "As I came up the line . . . I was of a mindset that people would pay me what I– what they felt the position was worth." Participant 5 thought she would be paid market value, only to discover this was not always the case.

Three participants discussed learning things after being hired which influenced how they operated during future negotiations. For example, participant 3 and 5 discussed how they discovered that they were paid less than male counterparts after accepting a position. Through these experiences, they learned that one had to do their homework ahead of time and verify information. They felt it was their responsibility to be prepared and there should be no excuse for being unprepared as information is easily accessible. Additionally, they felt that people within their professional networks were willing to share information; women just had to become comfortable with asking.

Two participants advised that people needed to initiate corrections if they discovered information that offered a different perspective on the fairness of their terms that they originally accepted. Participant 3 told a story of the time when she became a provost and was offered a salary that she originally thought was generous. However, after being in the position, she learned that her salary was substantially less than her male predecessor's. She realized that her original perspective was informed by her faculty salary, rather than by industry standard

compensation rates for a provost position. After a year had passed and after much deliberation, she requested a correction. Eventually her salary was raised, but she learned from the situation. When she found herself in a similar circumstance where new information became apparent after she took a position, she did not hesitate to request a correction. However, she cautioned that it was important to be mindful of timing in these situations. Her advice was to wait until after being in the position for a year and showing some success. As she reflected on these experiences, she encouraged women not to be shy in these situations as a correction was not only in their favor, but also in the favor of future incumbents, and thus, the integrity of the institution. She said, "It's to their benefit [to fix it]."

Participant 4 also discussed the need for contract corrections. She went further stating that if a correction was not made, she would leave the organization. She underscored "knowing her worth" and said that she would find an organization that valued her worth if they did not value her at the market rate for her salary. Although it may be perceived as awkward for people to request a correction, these two participants felt it was important to do so. In cases where this was done, the participants felt it changed the dynamic from a lopsided situation to a win-win for the candidate and for the organization.

Participant 2 and 3 each served as president three times which added to the depth of their experience with negotiation. Their individual cumulative experience led to a higher level of self-confidence and comfort with advocating for themselves. As they recounted early stories of negotiation versus more recent examples, a humble confidence overcame their demeanor and they projected greater satisfaction with the outcome of more recent negotiations. Knowing their values appeared to fuel their self-confidence and they aligned them with tangible outcomes in the negotiation process at a greater rate than earlier in their careers.

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Participants communicated that it was imperative to walk away from the negotiation table if terms were not agreeable to them. This takes self-confidence, and this was something the women appeared to develop over time. Participant 2 and 3 both retold stories about times when they should have walked away from the negotiation table earlier in their careers. These situations left a strong impression on them and influenced their future actions. For several participants, the self-confidence to walk away from the negotiation table came from living with a bad situation and reflection about what they should have done differently. Subsequently, they self-negotiated on what they would do differently going forward. They put this into practice so future negotiations resulted in outcomes that were better aligned with their values.

Participants cited personal influences in discussing how they learned to navigate negotiations during their career. Some of these influences were familial in nature. Participant 6 talked about working in her family business as a young person and how that influenced her greatly. She said, "So what I learned early on–we aren't going to be successful if other people are not successful. It [negotiation] has been embedded in, really, a lifelong experience." Participant 5 shared that she was part of a large family and she had to learn to negotiate with her siblings during her childhood which prepared her for negotiation in her professional world. Participant 3 had self-awareness about her innate strengths. She discussed negotiating being "in her DNA" with an entrepreneurial father and a sister who was a human resources professional who had coached her at different points during her career.

The interviewees also attributed the choice of their academic discipline and participating in extracurricular activities as having had an influence on their negotiating skills. Participant 1 cited playing sports and being part of a team during her teenage years as influential in navigating the playing field of negotiation. She also felt that being part of a science discipline that had few

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women in its ranks led to learning about how to position herself favorably. Participant 3 discussed honing her skills while negotiating book contracts as a faculty member. Participants' ability to see how these different experiences prepared them for negotiating professionally demonstrated that they had undergone a shift in mindset about the definition of the phenomenon of negotiation and how they prepared to approach it.

Participants expressed the importance of well-honed communication skills in negotiating. They felt that they sharpened these skills over time, which led to more favorable results and win-win outcomes. In particular, they thought strong verbal communication and listening skills were essential to successful negotiation. Participant 1 emphasized that keen listening skills were also integral to the negotiating process. She felt that listening first, rather than leading with a list of demands, led to greater success. She underscored negotiating was a continuous process of testing alignment, moving boundaries, testing alignment, and moving boundaries.

As participants reflected on the process of negotiation, the majority of the women shared that they felt that successful negotiations had occurred when both sides felt positive about the outcome. The negotiation resulted in a win-win for both parties. This was achieved by reaching "fair" deals that were balanced, leaving both parties feeling positive about the outcome.

Conversely, participants felt if the negotiation was not shaping up to be a win-win, there was a time for standing firm. They all discussed when it was time "to walk" away from the negotiation. For example, participant 2 shared a story about a time when she responded to an offer with, "I already make that much at [current institution] and I am not coming for that." She recounted that they immediately raised their offer significantly, which confirmed that the original offer did not maximize her interests, and therefore, was not a win-win in its original form.

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Research Question 2

Participants were asked about their priorities as they navigated negotiation during different points of their career. The intersectionality of the presidents' background and experiences influenced their priorities during negotiations. For example, participant 4 was a first-generation college graduate and a woman who was an ethnic minority. This intersectionality influenced her outlook on the world and contributed to the definition of her role in combination with her conviction to her core values. These experiences and values were inextricably linked to her outlook on negotiation and influenced terms that were important to her during negotiations.

Candidates were aware of what was important to them and were cognizant of the pressures that the organization that they were negotiating with faced as well. Participant 2 cautioned, "You have to be aware of the political environment . . . negotiating for a perk that later on could be a focal point of political contention." Understanding the environment fostered stronger outcomes.

Some of their negotiation foci changed over time, but three categories encapsulated the topics that emerged from the participants: academic privileges, personal privileges, and positional autonomy and impact. These are discussed in the next section.

Academic privileges. The category of academic privileges related strongly to participants' values. Participants 1, 2, 3, and 6 were acutely aware that academic freedom was important to them personally and important to them as professionals. Not surprisingly, tenure was a significant topic for participant 1 and 3 who had both risen out of the academic ranks in highly intensive research institutions.

Participant 3 shared that when she negotiated her first presidency, "I didn't get tenure, and then realized it mattered to me greatly." In this situation, the participant realized that tenure

was of importance to her, but she also learned that she could remedy the situation even after serving in her position for some time. She requested that an adjustment be made a year after she had begun serving as president. She disclosed that the institution made a change in their policy that presidents would be granted tenure, but this change took a couple of years as it had to be approved by the faculty. As she reflected on the situation, she admitted that the process was more difficult than if tenure had been part of the original negotiation process. However, it was her first presidency and at the time she did not realize the personal importance it held for her. From this situation, she also learned that it was possible to make corrections after being in a position for a period of time. She went on to serve as president at two other institutions, and she said, "With my other institutions, [tenure] was a constant demand. I am an academic and I want to have that voice of an academic." Her reflection and subsequent action revealed a strong sense of self and awareness of what was important to her.

Some participants noted that terms surrounding sabbaticals and returning to faculty roles after their presidency were important to them. In particular, they were concerned about the percentage of their salary that would be granted during sabbatical. After accepting her position as president, participant 3 discovered that her sabbatical terms varied from the provost and some of the deans at her institution. A year after serving as president, she raised the discrepancy with her board chair and requested that it be "corrected." She said that they seemed unaware of the discrepancy and were amenable to changing it, which satisfied her. Participant 3 further pointed out that doing so also served the interest of the institution and its future presidents. According to her, creating sabbatical terms that were of benefit to her as well as for the health of the institution created a win-win outcome.

When recounting their presidential negotiations, participants 1 and 2 discussed consideration regarding their professional fate after serving as the leader of the institution. They successfully negotiated this arrangement as part of their presidential contract terms. Prior to becoming president, they wanted assurance that they would have a place as a full professor in the academic department that housed their discipline. As part of this term, their compensation level was pre-determined and set as a function of their presidential salary. One of the retired presidents in the study returned to a faculty position in her home department so this negotiation proved beneficial.

Personal compensation. The topic of salary included contradictions from participants. Earlier in their careers they stated that it mattered more, and as they attained greater financial security, it mattered less. They expressed that they wanted fair salaries and this mattered to them. One participant went on to say, "I know I'm not going to go to a place and work too cheaply–I trust myself about that." In contrast, another said, "As long as it wasn't an embarrassing salary," the amount did not matter to her. How they defined cheap or embarrassing salaries was highly personal, but more importantly, it revealed that they knew themselves and had self-negotiated.

Participants discussed being prepared and doing their homework so that they were ready with facts when entering negotiations. Two participants told stories from early in their careers where they discovered that they made less than their male colleagues. Participant 2 said from that point on, she would always ask about what other people made and that she would double check the figures she had been given. Another participant said:

> I'd been kind of naïve in assuming that the men and women were paid the same. . . . I learned the hard way, that if I didn't ask, they wouldn't tell me. Don't just check salaries of women, but men too.

There seemed to be a philosophical underpinning to how participants felt about salary and an element of symbolism related to their salary levels. Participant 3 considered it from a gender equity lens:

> I have felt it was important for me to maintain a salary that was equal to what men would have gotten, but not necessarily for me–I mean there have been places where I felt like I was paid almost too much–but I never wanted to be a woman who accepted a lower salary. Not because of what it meant for me . . . but because I think we have to watch that just as a community of women. So that has been a kind of theme for me. To make sure that there is no gender bias in the determination of compensation and benefits.

Other participants who worked for public institutions expressed their concern about their compensation level related to being a public servant. Appropriate compensation packages underscored their commitment to their associated personal values. In the case of participant 4, she "made her money in the corporate sector." She said she consciously chose a career in higher education so that she could make a greater difference to the U.S. economy by helping educate future generations of Americans to ensure global relevance. Her altruistic calling to work in higher education created a moral conviction that led her to ensure that her compensation level was not out of line with what she thought it ought to be as a public servant. She recounted a time when her board wanted to increase her compensation and how it caused dissonance for her. She questioned, "How do I, in my own head, justify that?" Ultimately, she had to trade-off her own convictions with putting her board at risk for being accused of unfairly treating their female president. She reconciled this by accepting their offer of a pay increase establishing a charitable trust with the funds.

Related to salaries, participants discussed the importance of understanding the process and expectations for salary increases. Two participants advised that while negotiating, it was important to understand how future raises would be determined. They factored that component

into their compensation equation and related decisions. It also gave them a clear understanding of how that process would happen in the future and thus predict their future compensation rates.

When discussing salary, an unexpected topic arose which was declining offers from their boards to give them raises. Participant 1 said, "They want to renegotiate by giving me more money all the time and I try not to take it. . . ." Three participants declined raises at different times and discussed this in their interviews. Participant 2 talked about declining a raise offer after the financial crisis following the collapse of the stock market in 2008. They discussed merit raises and how they were difficult to navigate given the optics of the situation at certain times. In one case, the president said she agreed to the raise as she did not want the board to "look bad" for underpaying a female leader. Two participants shared that although they accepted the raises they were uncomfortable by it and as a result, divested the money. One set up a charitable trust with the funds and another donated her increase back to the institution.

A common theme in the participants' responses regarding salary increases was self-negotiating what they would or would not accept. In some cases, it created dissonance as their personal values were in conflict with what they were offered and they also felt obligated to appease the desire of their board. They had to reconcile these considerations in their mind in order to achieve a mutually agreeable solution which took self-negotiation on the part of the presidents.

As the participants advanced in their careers, deferred compensation grew in importance. Some of the candidates discussed how they used this as a negotiating point in lieu of salary increases or other benefits that they were not interested in accepting. Participant 2 shared that she was late saving for retirement. When she accepted her first presidency during the economic crisis in the United States and public funds for education were dwindling, she asked for enhanced

funding in a retirement fund rather than commanding a large salary. She recounted what she said

to her hiring institution, "I know you have challenges specifically with salaries . . . so I will trade

with deferred comp. . . ." The institution was willing to do this. She felt that because she

understood their pressures and offered an alternative compensation solution that met her goals

while keeping their interests in mind, the outcome was a "win-win" for both parties.

Participants discussed considerations related to their spouses when they negotiated.

While all of the participants were in partnered relationships, none of them advocated for paid

positions for their husbands during their presidential negotiations. Rather, they negotiated for

things like reimbursement for university related travel. Prior to negotiating with the institution,

participants had negotiated with their spouse about what they wanted (or did not want). They

also had done their homework about what was common, or not common, in this category of

compensation prior to entering negotiations.

Three participants underscored that spousal considerations could be very important for

future women leaders, as dual career households are more common today. They raised the

complexity of dual academic households which require two faculty appointments within the

same institution. Participant 2, who served as president at multiple institutions, shared that she

felt that the institutions she had negotiated with were "relieved when they didn't have to contend

with a spousal accommodation." She worried that this would be a factor for emerging women

leaders when considering whether they would pursue future leadership opportunities.

Related to domestic benefits, housing and maintenance for their home was another topic

that was a part of the negotiation process for the participants. Given the hosting expectations

that institutions often place on presidents, housing was a perk offered to half of the participants.

Three of the participants lived in a president's house but only the women who served several

times as presidents raised the topic. They discussed the benefits of living in a university owned home designated as the president's residence versus securing a housing allowance. They offered pros and cons of both arrangements, but slightly preferred the greater sense of freedom afforded to them when they owned their own home. Either way, for them, housing was a key component of a presidential compensation package.

   Autonomy and impact. In varying forms, participants discussed negotiating terms related to autonomy and the impact of their work. Participant 1 discussed establishing a definition of success and how mistakes would be addressed because "you are going to make them." She talked about establishing "boundary conditions" which would allow her to do her work as long as she operated within that context. Later in her presidency, her focus shifted to having the freedom to work on ideas and in high impact areas. She was very clear about her conditions and advocated for her values more fervently over time.

   Securing resources was also important to participants so they could have the impact that they wanted. While participant 5 was an external candidate, she spent 2 months shadowing the interim president. During this time, she assembled a list of budgetary needs she thought she would encounter to accomplish the agreed upon objectives of her position. She negotiated for these after accepting the position with the head of her system. These resources helped her make key hires and to meet programmatic needs that she felt were necessary.

   Contract terms. Contracts of three to five years were the norm. Participant 1, 2, 3, and 4 shared stories that their contract terms changed over time. The longest serving president in the study, participant 3, shared that after three years in the position, she initiated a change from a multi-year contract to a 60-day agreement. She recapped what she said to her board at the time of the change: "I want a 60-day notice period. If you're unhappy with me, you give me 60-day

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notice. If I'm unhappy with you, I'll give you 60-day notice." She went on to describe the

arrangement by saying, "I like you. You like me. We'll set objectives. We'll talk about the

issues. [If you don't like me], I don't need this job. I don't care." Either party could terminate

the agreement with 60 days' notice, and she liked the freedom this type of employment contract

offered both parties, thus, creating a win-win arrangement. This type of contract was unique

amongst the presidents. However, what was common among the participants was that the longer

a president was in her job, the greater the freedom she was given in setting her performance

measures and terms.

Research Question 3

The process of negotiating that was encountered by the participants during the process of

becoming a college president was explored with this question. The study participants negotiated

directly with a representative of the institution which typically included several conversations.

Four of the presidents worked with search firms to secure the position; however, they negotiated

the terms of their presidency directly with a representative of the institution. To prepare, the

participants did their homework so that they were clear on their terms.

The chief negotiator on the university's behalf varied depending on the organizational

structure. There were several incidences where the board chair acted as the chief negotiator for

the organization. In cases where the institution was part of a system, the head of the system took

the lead. In both scenarios, one common factor existed: The institution's legal counsel was

always involved and drew up the contract or agreement, made changes, and ultimately ensured

ratification.

Advisors that the participants used to consult with regarding their contracts varied. A

common denominator with participants was that they tapped people they knew, rather than

employ paid professionals, to advise them with their negotiations. All but one participant discussed terms with spouses, siblings, and/or friends who had expertise in related fields (e.g., attorneys and human resources). In some cases, these allies reviewed the contracts to ensure accuracy. Participants also discussed utilizing their professional networks to glean information about market conditions, terms to include, and reference points for fairness of the offer. One president attributed her overall success with negotiating her first presidency to being familiar with the components of a typical president's contract because her professional network opened these resources to her.

None of the study participants hired legal counsel or personal representatives to negotiate on their behalf. When asked about why they made that choice, a participant said, "Perhaps some of it's naivety, perhaps some of it is just the fact that I don't need a lot." Participant 2 added that "this wasn't done in her era." Participant 5 elaborated:

> I've never been very comfortable with feeling privileged–and that there are a lot of people that I count on that I work closely with and if it wouldn't be something I can do for them, I wouldn't really believe that I should do it for myself.

The participants observed that they probably would have ended up with slightly higher salaries and more robust compensation packages had they used a professional representative. Notably, the participants said that they did not regret their decision, but they would recommend women today hire a personal representative to negotiate the details of their contracts.

Participants felt that hiring professional counsel had several benefits. They thought it would garner more robust compensation packages and allow them to build in protections for involuntary separation situations. Participant 5 had a precarious relationship with one of her boards, and in hindsight, she thought that if she had hired counsel, provisions regarding termination would have been included. She ended up leaving that position of her own accord,

but as she reflected, that protection would have allowed her more freedom to leave on her own terms.

Once hiring decisions are made, institutions often want to make an announcement quickly. Two participants shared that during the concluding stages of negotiating they experienced pressure to finalize details quickly. In hindsight, they felt strongly that it was important to resist such pressure and ensure all of the details of the contract were completed in a satisfactory manner prior to making an announcement. Participant 3 said this was one of the most important lessons she had learned during her career when engaging in negotiation. She shared an example of a time when something she cared about was not included in her compensation package, and she knew it but agreed to the announcement before resolving the issue. Subsequently, she felt she had relinquished her ability to negotiate after her appointment was made public. Looking back, she felt the board was aware that the component she cared about was missing in the contract. Because they applied pressure to move forward quickly with the announcement before resolving this term, she mistrusted the institution going forward. Since then, she served as president at two other institutions and she said she never made the mistake again. She negotiated with herself that she would not permit a rushed announcement and that the particular condition that she cared about would be non-negotiable going forward.

Another participant faced pressure to quickly accept the position during the negotiating process, and this left a negative impression on her as well. Participant 2 retold a story of when she was pressured by an external search firm, on behalf of their client, to make a decision about whether she would accept their offer to become president before she had even left the airport from the interview. She was unwilling to commit as she and her husband had yet to come to a decision. The search firm's pressure tactic led her to withdraw from the search. Looking back,

she said it was the right decision because she realized the institution would not have been a cultural fit for her and her family. The decision to resist the negotiating pressure took self-confidence and clear definition of her own personal values.

Research Question 4

Participants were asked how the negotiating process impacted each participant's relationship with the governing board where they became president. Candidates felt that the dynamics during the negotiations foreshadowed the relationship between them and key representatives of the institution. When there were win-win outcomes, the relationship was much healthier and they advocated strongly for achieving that balance. Participant 3 said, "I think it is about how you're going to establish your relationship. . . . What kind of relationships are you going to have with these people, and is it one of mutual respect?" At the end of the negotiation process she said you want to "have a handshake at the end of the deal that is genuine" and where both parties are pleased with the outcome. Establishing a dynamic of mutual respect was a common goal with all of the participants.

Participants emphasized that the negotiation for their position was the first occasion where the presidents really got to know their board. Participant 3 asked, "Can you talk about a very difficult issue such as personal compensation" because "when it's done right, I think it then establishes an equal partnership." Alternatively, she said, "When institutions get by cheaply, they'll treat you cheaply." Participant 1 underscored how important this was for the health of the future working relationship on both sides. The health of the president and board relationship was about establishing mutual respect and an affiliation built on being straightforward from the outset.

Participants warned that the power dynamic established in the negotiation process would carry over to future interactions with board members. Over their careers, they became more aware of this correlation which reinforced their commitment to establishing a relationship built on mutual respect. Participant 3 said she had pondered the notion that "when a board treats a president like their hired staff, [I wonder] if that didn't start in their personal negotiations." Participant 2, 3, and 4 expanded on this sentiment discussing how they did not ever want to feel like they had settled in a negotiation as it can create breeding ground for resentment. They felt that when conducting negotiations, it was important to be mindful of this as it led to an unhealthy and unproductive working relationships.

Research Question 5

Participants were asked how they felt about negotiation and what they would have done differently when negotiating during their careers. Overall, participants expressed satisfaction with their negotiating skills and experiences. Despite this, when asked what they would have done differently, every participant offered advice. Typically, their guidance stemmed from an incident where they felt that they had failed or from an experience when a win-win was not achieved. Some of the participants acknowledged the discord which created a melancholy as they realized the discrepancy between their actions and words. One participant apologetically said, "Do what I say and not what I do." In the cases where there was a disconnect between staying true to themselves and creating a win-win outcome, these haunted the participants.

Mastering negotiation was a process that took time, self-awareness, and reflection over the duration of their career. Often, lessons arose from something that did not work out well or from being too trusting. For example, the president who did not get tenure as part of the rushed negotiation never let that happen again. Though this incident shaped her future actions, she did

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not harbor resentment about it. Other participants shared a similar attitude where they learned from their experiences and moved forward.

Participants felt that if the terms offered in a negotiation were unacceptable, women must be willing to walk away from a negotiation. They recognized that this took courage and clarity but doing so represented a commitment to themselves and their values. As part of the self-negotiation phase, participant 6 said that as a candidate one must decide "what it is you are going to ask for. . . . By knowing yourself, you can evaluate what it is you're willing to walk for if you don't get it." Participant 4 warned that if candidates do not walk away from an unfair deal, it will haunt them and lead to unhealthy self-criticism. Willingness to walk away from unfavorable negotiations appeared to be imperative at the presidential level as all of the participants emphatically discussed when it was time to walk away from negotiations and shared examples of times they had done so. Participant 1 elaborated saying, "The women I know, who are presidents, have all been willing to walk."

Another lesson that the participants learned over time was that negotiation was not just a one-time activity. Several conversations occurred at the onset, and in some cases, continued after accepting the position. Participant 1 stated that people think, "'I negotiated a salary at the beginning and I'm stuck with it.' That's not true. There are plenty of times to re-negotiate." Evidence of re-negotiation can be found in the examples participant 3 provided when she discussed negotiating tenure and sabbatical terms after starting her positions at two different institutions during her career.

Stories like these provided proof that getting something adjusted is possible, but it was clear that timing was important. Participant 3 encouraged getting some success under one's belt before renegotiating to correct something. Twice she had successfully negotiated after holding a

position and underscored that timing is a key component to successful renegotiation. Therefore, participants' understanding of the environment was imperative to succeed with renegotiation.

Leverage was another important consideration in negotiation that the participants discussed. Participant 5 pointed out that "taking a new opportunity or a new position is when you have the most leverage," and participant 1 said one must "have leverage to negotiate." She felt that only 10-20% of people in the organization have automatic leverage due to their exceptional performance and high level of professional competence. However, she felt others could create leverage by working hard and ingratiating oneself in the organization, or by taking assignments others did not want to do. She said, "They either gotta think you're the greatest thing since sliced bread, and therefore they really need you, or they're fearful you're going to create a big hole." She worried:

> Many women and people of color who feel that they're not well connected to the informal seats of power in the organization don't feel they have leverage, and they feel like they can't develop leverage, therefore, they can't negotiate. And they can't walk away particularly in certain areas because of the job market or because of family or whatever.

She encouraged future women leaders stating, "You have to get out of your comfort zone sometimes" and look creatively for that win-win.

Another change with the women presidents that occurred over time appeared to be their self-confidence related to negotiation and standing up for themselves in the process. Participant 2 speculated that one's willingness to walk away from the negotiation table was connected to one's tolerance for conflict. She said that an important lesson for her over time was learning her own level of tolerance for conflict. She felt knowing her risk tolerance helped her navigate negotiation more adeptly and made her a more self-aware leader. Participant 3 also discussed tolerance for conflict and risk: "You have to be prepared to risk something in the process. And

most people aren't prepared to risk anything. To walk away." The participant's self-confidence helped them develop a tolerance for conflict when the terms were important to them which ultimately helped them navigate negotiation.

Additionally, the participants' thinking of negotiation evolved over time from seeing it as an activity that yielded only winners and losers to one that could yield positive outcomes for all parties. Knowing negotiation could yield more balanced outcomes, one participant said she should have "taken a little better care" of herself. Other participants thought that employing professional counsel on their behalf might have yielded slightly better results, but overall, they felt that they ended up with win-win outcomes. As presidents, they expressed that they had learned a lot but that they had garnered fair compensation packages as presidents and felt positive about the process of negotiation.

Essence Statement

The phenomenon of negotiation was explored through analysis of responses to a series of research questions pertaining to the lived experiences of six highly successful women who served as presidents of doctorate granting institutions. The participants' responses to the research questions identified that the essence of negotiation is found in creating mutual respect by achieving positive outcomes for both the parties involved. To fully engage in the process of negotiation, the themes of reframing negotiations, knowing yourself, self-negotiation, preparation and creating a win-win outcome must work in tandem to yield a positive outcome for all stakeholders and establish mutual respect between the parties.

Approaching negotiations with an attitude of creating a mutually agreeable solution for all parties offered many benefits for the participants. Most significantly, employing this method yielded personal satisfaction with the process, the outcomes, and with themselves. The approach

also established respect for other participants in the process which led to greater levels of satisfaction with the activity and outcomes. Importantly, achieving mutually beneficial outcomes for both parties also helped fortify the participants' relationship with their board. Creating this balance and respect was critical for the health of their future working relationship and ultimate success as a university president. Achieving a balanced outcome incorporated reframing the concept of negotiation, provided clarity to participants, and fostered truth about what they desired from their careers. Such arrangements maximized their performance as professional women leaders and for the organizations they served.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to understand the phenomenon of negotiation from the perspective of women who served as presidents at doctorate granting universities. The foci of the study were to understand how women presidents navigated the activity of negotiation throughout their careers, understand how the phenomenon impacted their rise to the top position, and understand their experiences with negotiation in attaining their presidency. Six women who served as a president at doctorate granting institutions participated in this study. The goal was to understand how negotiation influenced the career growth and leadership development of women presidents at doctorate granting institutions with the hope that the findings would be instructive to future women leaders.

Understanding the experience of others can be instructive and provide insight into a phenomenon. Madsen (2007) said:

> Understanding the influences, backgrounds, and career paths of women who have succeeded in obtaining and maintaining powerful positions of influence within higher education is essential in deepening and broadening our understanding of leadership development as a whole within higher education. (pp. 183-184)

Revealing information about the phenomenon of negotiation from the perspective of six women leaders who served as university presidents and identifying themes from their interviews led to identifying meaning related to negotiation. Hopefully, the insight gained from these women will be informative to other female leaders as they navigate the critical activity of negotiation throughout their careers.

As noted in Chapter Four, the findings from this study revealed five themes that emerged from the lived experiences of six women presidents regarding the phenomenon of negotiation. The themes that emerged included the following: the need for reframing negotiation, knowing

yourself, the role of self-negotiation, the importance of preparation, and creating win-win

outcomes. The themes connected with the literature in different ways. Chapter Five is dedicated

to a discussion of the meaning of the findings from the study. Limitations of the study and

recommendations for future practice and research are also included.

Thinking Differently About Negotiation

The concept of reframing negotiation surfaced as the participants described the activity in

ways that were contrary to common thinking about the phenomenon of negotiation. Negotiation

is often viewed as an activity that is confrontational and yields winners and losers. The

perception of negotiation can be off-putting especially to women who tend to be more egalitarian

in nature (Eckel et al., 2008, p. 441). In this study, participants' responses on their experience of

negotiation was different. Their negotiations were a series of conversations where different

perspectives were reviewed and considered, and ultimately, a win-win outcome was sought. The

combination of understanding how negotiations actually happened, with being a well-practiced

negotiator, appeared to create comfort with the activity of negotiation for the participants.

Familiarizing themselves with the reality of how negotiations typically occurred gave the

participants confidence with the activity. Being better informed about negotiation had a positive

cumulative effect on their employment terms. As their careers progressed, they were more

comfortable and successful in negotiating terms that were important to them. Sharing women

presidents' realities of negotiation could be very instructive to future women leaders, and

subsequently, minimize fear or intimidation with the activity.

Another shift in the participants' mindset on negotiating was the notion that the activity

only happened at the outset of a working relationship. Knowing that terms could be changed

throughout their employment was empowering to the women in the study. This understanding

the helped with retention because their employment conditions changed in ways that mattered to the them as their lives changed over time; rather than leaving a position, they renegotiated terms such as salary which led them to feeling more valued by their institution and/or able to pay for things, such as child or elder care. Longman and Lafreniere's study in 2012 revealed that women with potential leave the workforce in higher education because the work environment and work itself is not conducive to a female workforce (p. 47). Further, Hochschild and Machung's (2012) work revealed that women are disproportionately impacted by family demands and often have to work a "second shift" (p. LOC 350) when they returned home after work, tending to the majority of their family's household duties. Evidence that the burden of extra duties that fall on women lies with the 32% of women college presidents who said that they had altered their career progress to care for either a dependent, spouse, or parent at some point in their working life (ACE, 2017, p. 110). Based on the success of participants with renegotiating, female leaders are presented with an option to renegotiate terms to accommodate their changing life circumstances, which may limit the number of women who leave the workforce due to familial demands.

Connection to Personal Values

During the interviews, participants clearly and passionately articulated what was important to them and what they valued. Through their stories, it was evident that over time they had become more self-aware and chose employment opportunities that aligned with their values. Additionally, they learned how to advocate for employment terms that mirrored their principles. The alignment of their values in the work that they did and circumstances in which they conducted their work brought a sense of fulfillment to the women leaders interviewed in the study.

Clarity about their values led them to drawing lines about ethical behavior in the negotiating process. While none of the participants overtly discussed ethics in relation to negotiation, they told stories of times when the actions of the parties they were negotiating with violated their values. These were the times that they "walked away" from the negotiating table. Participant 2 told the story of the confidentiality of her internal candidacy was violated and how that led her to withdraw from the search. Participant 3 shared stories of times when she discovered that she was not being fairly compensated and how that impacted her relationship with the institution. These stories provided evidence that the women did not tolerate unethical practices and were willing to walk away from job opportunities because of it. These actions came from having a strong ethical and moral compass guided by their values.

The desire to strike a work-life balance interconnects personal values and professional choices. The literature suggested that one reason women step out of the leadership pipeline is the perception that they may have to sacrifice work-life balance (Rhodes, 2011). Notably, the women interviewed for the study did not discuss sacrifices they made. Rather, they talked about things that were important to them, such as maintaining fair salaries, housing terms, and retirement benefits, and how they negotiated for those things. Garnering terms that blended their personal and professional needs appeared to create a feeling of satisfaction with their negotiation efforts and created a stronger work-life balance.

During their careers, the participants' shifted their approach to negotiating terms that were important and/or favorable for them rather than focusing on things they could not achieve. A breakthrough occurred for the participants in how their thinking of leadership represented a loss of something to the shift in their thinking of leadership as what one can maintain or even

gain as a leader. For the participants, learning how to successfully negotiate for the things that

were the most important to them was essential in fostering a new mindset.

Clarity and Action

The women in the study engaged in self-negotiation which led them to make very

thoughtful and well-considered decisions about their careers. Self-negotiation is a highly

reflective process that is born out of self-awareness and clarity of values. Actions of the

participants often followed a healthy round of self-negotiation. The contemplative process

dictated what professional opportunities they would or would not pursue as well as what

employment terms would be acceptable to them. The process also yielded results that aligned

with their values and led them to negotiate with clarity and conviction.

Capacity and Confidence Building

The experiences of the women in the study suggested that the better prepared a candidate

was for negotiation, the stronger the negotiation outcomes were for them. Additionally, their

success increased the participants' confidence with the activity. Moreover, there was a

cumulative impact of positive negotiations. Once they successfully negotiated in one area, they

felt more confident to negotiate in other areas later on in their presidency.

The participants' stories about negotiating salaries demonstrated the impact of

preparation in achieving favorable outcomes and how it built their capacity for future

negotiations. The women shared examples of when they were not prepared with salary facts and

how that adversely impacted their compensation levels. In other situations, attaining pertinent

salary information and market comparisons for similar roles informed the participants'

knowledge on compensation and avoid accepting unfair salaries unknowingly. Being equipped

with these facts helped them build their case, reinforced their worthiness for such salaries, and helped them minimize salary compression issues the next time they negotiated.

An additional benefit of securing fair salaries at the negotiating table is combatting the gender pay gap that is prevalent in the United States and within higher education. When women are able to negotiate fair salaries at the outset, gender inequities are offset upfront. There is also a long-term impact on establishing one's salary base at a fair level. Future merit raises will be determined as a calculation of the base salary negotiated upon accepting the position. Therefore, the cumulative impact of establishing a fair salary at the beginning of one's tenure is significant.

Achieving Mutual Respect

Achieving win-win outcomes in negotiations had a positive impact on the participant, the organization, and society as a whole. For participants, despite having full personal lives, they did not step out of the leadership pipeline because they were able to negotiate favorable employment terms. Staying on the leadership track meant they were able to realize their leadership potential which was of great benefit to society. Additionally, through win-win negotiations, they were able to blend their personal and professional aspirations together successfully. The positive negotiation outcomes meant that they created stronger and more balanced working relationships with their employers and healthy relationships had lasting organizational benefits.

Win-win negotiations had an impact on the kind of relationship that it created between the participants and their future employers. Given their senior level positions, strong relationships with their board members was important to the health of the organization. Creating strong relationships at the outset had a cascading impact on both the individual participants as well as the organization they served. Their job satisfaction led to long tenures with their

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institutions as they appeared to feel valued and fairly treated. The dynamic of mutual respect began at the negotiating table for the participants.

Implications of the Findings

The findings of this study will hopefully enlighten women leaders in higher education as well as future leaders about negotiation. A more robust pool of potential leaders ready to serve higher education is needed as the presidency is aging. The aging presidency is an opportunity for emerging women leaders to step into management roles with so many forthcoming retirements predicted for higher education.

When selecting leaders to face the challenging dynamics in higher education such as public scrutiny, relevancy, and funding sustainability, women candidates are a strong choice. If universities are to remain relevant, they must be responsive to the changing needs of their students and successfully position their institutions for the next century. Their leaders must be ready to address these pressing issues as well as reflect their constituents. Together, these factors make a compelling case for an increase in the number of women presidents in American colleges and universities.

Several studies postulated that more women employ a transformational leadership approach (Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Eagly et al, 2003; Helgesen, 2008; Chin, 2011) which is an inclusive leadership approach attentive to the needs and motives of the followers. Transformational leadership is well suited for the needs of a 21st century university. An article by Chin (2011) discussed the merits of transformational leadership for the following reasons:

> Transformational leadership is a model consistent with the goals of higher education today, whose purpose is to enable and encourage faculty, students, administrators, and staff to change and transform institution to more effectively enhance student learning, generate new knowledge, and to empower students to become agents of positive societal change in the larger society. (p. 8)

The second reason women are a strong choice for leading institutions of higher education is that leaders should reflect their constituencies. With more than half of students and assistant professors being female in today's universities (Institute of Education Sciences, National Center for Education Statistics, 2013, 2014b), there is both a need and opportunity to increase the number of women presidents from the current rate of 30% (ACE, 2017, p. 7). White (2012), the outgoing director of the HERS Institute, affirmed that,

> the decade ahead will be a critical period to prepare and promote women of all backgrounds to the highest executive positions and to strengthen the entire pool of women holding leadership positions. (p.12)

Sharing the stories of six presidents will hopefully address hesitancies emerging women leaders have about negotiation, and thereby, minimize any potential fear about the activity. Discussion about the five themes and learning about the common experiences of participants was meant to be informative about common negotiating practices such as utilizing a network to access to information and employing a personal representative.

Learning about win-win negotiations may counter the emerging phenomenon of women who are stepping off the leadership track mid-career. If women believe that the negotiation process can yield win-win outcomes, and if they are able to successfully negotiate terms that offset the pressures that are leading them to step out of the leadership pipeline, the pool of emerging female leaders could grow. For example, child rearing and elder care responsibilities fall on women at disproportionate levels. According to ACE's study on college presidents, (2017), 32% of women presidents have altered their career at some point to care for a family member (p. 110). Making adjustments in their careers affirms that even women who reach the top, at some point in their career, have needed a reprieve from their working life. If flexible work environments that accommodate these competing responsibilities were negotiated at a

greater rate, then it is possible that women who face these pressures may be more likely to consider these important leadership roles. An increase in the number of candidates willing to consider leadership positions will benefit organizations by bolstering candidate pools.

Currently, college presidents are a very homogenous group. The profession needs to be diversified in order to be more reflective of current and future constituents. Unfortunately, people who represent a racial or ethnic minority are often at a disadvantage at the negotiating table, which can have a cumulative effect on their careers. As participant 1 cited, those in marginalized groups often do not feel they have leverage to negotiate, and this can hinder their career growth. The findings from this study may help dispel the misconceptions about negotiation and provide insights to people who have not had extensive negotiation experience.

The participants discussed how difficult the role of university president has become amidst the intense pressure and high level of public scrutiny they personally face. They discussed competing stakeholder expectations and shared how difficult it was to manage given the highly autonomous and decentralized organizational structure of universities. Because of these tensions, two of the presidents said that they would not take the job again if they were at the beginning of their careers.

During the course of this study, the circumstances of many in the overall pool changed: several retired, one president was suspended, and one stepped down amid a significant public controversy. The fluctuating circumstances of the participants is evidence that the world changes quickly for leaders, and they are vulnerable in these highly visible positions where they are accountable for the actions of a decentralized organization. Given the volatility of the industry, presidents must negotiate terms that include appropriate protections in their contracts to reduce their personal risk in accepting jobs of this magnitude; otherwise, the number of people who are

willing to take on being a college president may be in serious jeopardy. Hopefully, this study will inform women about the importance of clearly articulating their values and preparing for the negotiation process so that they are able to advocate for themselves, thereby, ultimately achieving a win-win outcome.

Limitations of Study

Several limitations framed this study. To begin, access to university presidents was limited. The majority have generic email addresses and automated phone systems that do not allow one to connect with them directly. If any response to the request to participate in the study was received, it was typically through a gatekeeper. These individuals are charged with protecting the president's time and decide what requests even reach the president. Two of the presidents who agreed to participate in the study were contacted through the original request. Direct access was attained for the other four through personal emails and mutual connections. Access was a considerable study limitation; therefore, the lack of direct access to the presidents had an impact on who was able to be informed of the study and who ultimately chose to participate.

The roles and schedules required of presidents keep them very busy, and they are personally under a great deal of public scrutiny. As a result, their time is at a premium and they are cautious about how they expend it. Furthermore, the participants acknowledged that they receive a large number of surveys and requests to participate in studies, often from people that they do not know. Committing to a study takes away time away from their daily obligations. It also can raise concern about what they share, how it will be portrayed and how confidential information will be maintained. Consequently, competition for time and building trust with potential participants was another limitation of the study.

Access and time limitations led to a relatively small sample with six presidents participating in the study. Despite the small pool, similarities emerged from the participants' lived experiences with negotiation which resulted in the generation of five themes. However, the findings represent a small number of women presidents, so the findings are not generalizable.

Given the time constraints placed on women presidents, just one interview of 60 minutes was requested. Information that could be gleaned from the participants in one session over a relatively short period of time was limited. Multiple interviews would have allowed for follow-up questions and afforded an opportunity to probe for deeper answers. However, it is likely that requesting additional time would have compromised the researcher's ability to secure participation from busy presidents.

The level of reflection and depth of information shared by the presidents may have been limited in the study. Given their time constraints, the interview questions were not provided ahead of the interview. Not having the questions ahead of time may have limited their ability to readily recall their experiences with negotiation. Furthermore, concern about disclosing information that was negative or that could be critiqued if it was made public may have limited what participants shared in their interviews.

The study was limited to understanding negotiation from the perspective of women who served as a president at a doctorate granting institution. Reviewing the contracts of the presidents would have provided additional data to analyze but was outside of the scope of this study. The absence of contract data and the perspective of others involved in the negotiation with the participant limited the study.

Participants did not specifically address two issues that one would have thought they might. None of the participants compared gender differences relating to the phenomenon of

negotiation, nor did they discuss race and ethnicity related to their negotiation experiences. The white women did not offer any insights about how their race impacted their experience with negotiation nor did the Asian participant. Given the climates on college campuses today, this was surprising to the researcher.

Finally, the researcher's background as a feminist leader in higher education informed the interpretations made in the study. Her values and preconceived ideas about leadership have been shaped by her experience working in higher education for over twenty years and created a personal bias. Additionally, interpretations from a feminist perspective may be identified as a limitation to the study.

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Implications for Practice

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Recommendations based upon the literature review and conclusions drawn from the interviews are included in this section. The purpose of the study was to understand the lived experiences of women presidents at doctorate granting institutions with the phenomenon of negotiation. The hope was that understanding the phenomenon would be instructive to future women leaders and informative to board members who are charged with hiring presidents leading to a change in praxis in higher education. Consequently, the researcher framed the recommendations in four categories: recommendations for emerging women leaders, recommendations for presidential search committees, recommendations for institutions of higher education, and recommendations for improved practices.

Recommendations for Emerging Women Leaders

There continues to be systemic challenges inhibiting women from reaching the top positions in organizations, but women can and will be an essential part of the shift in the national leadership landscape. For many, the change will require reframing their thinking about their

career and realizing that they have power in creating systemic change. For some, change will involve confronting the imposter syndrome where women doubt themselves–their ability and worthiness of being in a role (Dahlvig, 2013). For others, acting as a role model for future women leaders will be their contribution in changing the percentage of women leaders nationally.

The steps women take to contribute to the shift in the leadership landscape nationwide will vary for different people. For some, the first step will involve self-negotiating. The shift may lead to inserting themselves into the leadership arena when they have previously removed themselves from the leadership pipeline. Others might be at a stage where they need to determine what opportunities interest them and ensure that these align with their core values. Being open to opportunities that have perceived familial barriers and actively negotiating terms that remove barriers, such as spousal accommodations and tuition waivers for dependents, is imperative for the health of higher education so that women do not remove themselves from the leadership arena.

Creating a plan for pursuing leadership opportunities and being proactive is essential. Participants highlighted how building and utilizing a broad network of individuals to help open doors and evaluate opportunities was helpful. Seeking a mixed pool of leaders, associates, peers, friends, acquaintances, and mentors who can offer guidance, share information, give feedback, make introductions, and provide negotiating practice will assist women to reach the top levels of organizations.

The participants in this study clearly illustrated through their experiences that preparing before entering negotiations yielded better outcomes. It also minimized the possibility of tension

and resentment post-negotiation between the various parties which had positive consequences for the future working relationship. Future women leaders can learn from these experiences.

Recommendations for Presidential Search Committees

Several things can be gleaned from this study that will enhance negotiations for women, and thus, for the organizations that they serve. Creating a win-win outcome was important to the women presidents in this study. It would be beneficial for those engaged in the negotiation process with women candidates to understand the perspective from both sides in order to help identify mutually beneficial outcomes. Greater understanding will create a more positive and productive working dynamic when beginning the new role.

Reaching mutually agreeable terms can take time. Rushed negotiations did not yield positive results for the participants who had encountered such situations. Being rushed led to compromised outcomes and feelings of resentment. Given the investment an institution is going to make in a person over their appointment period, it is of benefit to both parties to take the time needed upfront to produce win-win outcomes.

Occasionally, something is overlooked in negotiations or circumstances change after the initial round of negotiations. In these situations, participants demonstrated that being open to making adjustments to the terms of employment was prudent. Doing so will have a long-term benefit on both parties as people are less likely to entertain recruitment efforts if they are satisfied with their position and feel fairly treated by their current institution.

Recommendations for Institutions of Higher Education

The leadership bench in higher education is in desperate need of diversification. Boards also need to have broad representation of gender, race, ethnicity, and sexual orientation. Diverse groups generate richer discussions and make decisions that represent the interests of all

of their constituents. Diversified leadership teams also symbolically send a powerful message to their constituents (Lennon et al., 2013). It demonstrates that the organization is interested in meeting the needs of all of their constituents.

Although the percentage of women who serve as presidents has increased over the last few decades, there is little other diversification within the group. A generation of future leaders who have different backgrounds needs to be cultivated, trained and mentored. The diversification of the profession can be enhanced or hindered by the actions of institutions when recruiting and negotiating with future leaders. The composition of governing boards needs to be carefully watched and boards need to be held accountable for who they are appointing as presidents.

An increase in the number of women serving on boards must part of the plan to create greater gender balance in organizations. According to the literature, there is a correlation between the number of women on boards and the number of women employed and serving in leadership roles within an organization (Adams & Ferreira, 2009; Ehrenberg et al., 2012). The correlation between boards and workplace gender equity provides evidence that encouraging diversified leadership makes good business sense.

Recommendations for Improved Practices

Information is readily available more than ever before. Institutions should acknowledge the prevalence of information and proactively ensure that salary data is public for all positions in their organizations. Criteria for promotion and salary standards should be clear, consistent, and well documented. Equal access to information is a basic step that would foster a greater chance for women and diverse candidates to negotiate terms that are commensurate with their peers or predecessors.

Women need to be educated and trained in negotiation. They need these skills for personal negotiations but also to assist with their duties as administrators. Leadership programs such as the HERS Institute have added negotiation as a topic to their summer institute curriculum and others need to do the same. Training on negotiation will help women reframe the concept and dispel their misgivings about the activity which hopefully will lead to more win-win outcomes for them.

Implication for Future Research

A gap in the literature regarding negotiation and examining how the phenomenon was experienced and how it impacted women leaders in higher education was identified by the researcher. This study attempted to fill part of that gap. Throughout the course of the study, other areas were noted that had a gap, or topics were identified that would be worthy of additional study to strengthen the body of knowledge. Five areas arose that would be worthy of future research.

The study was created to address the gap in understanding the perspective of women presidents. A greater understanding was achieved but the pool of participants was very homogenous which limited diversity of perspective. Expanding the study so that the pool of participants was more diverse (race, ethnicity, sexual orientation) would be valuable and address a gap in this study. It would be beneficial to understand the nuances of the experience of women from different ethnic and racial and sexual orientations with the phenomenon of negotiation to foster broader insight about the topic. Comparing and contrasting across populations could also reveal valuable insights about the phenomenon.

Another way to add to the richness of the study would be to add the perspective of the people who conducted various negotiations with the participants. Interviewing the negotiators

would yield information to compare with the president's perspective. Multiple perspectives would strengthen the validity of the study. Additionally, it would create depth to the study as perceptions of the negotiating experience could be compared and analyzed for differences/similarities by the two different parties.

Conducting a study that compared the phenomenon of negotiation from the perspective of different generations of women would be interesting. Given the average age of women college presidents in the United States is 61 (ACE, 2017, p. 30), their personal experiences and pressures are different from women of different ages. Studying women leaders at different stages in their lives would offer the opportunity to consider external forces that influence their careers, such as the impact of motherhood and childrearing has on women and their leadership ascent.

As the number of dual working households increase in the United States, understanding the impact of two working partners on a woman's career is timely. In academia, 72% of women have partners who also work–36% within academia and the 36% outside the sector (Londa Schiebinger, 2008). Considering the related pressures women are under and the choices they make in respect of their partner's career is important to consider in context of future leadership in the United States.

Finally, comparing and contrasting the experiences of women and men in higher education with negotiation would be informative. A study focused this way would offer the opportunity to study similarities and differences between genders as it relates to negotiation. An additional benefit of the research would be to offer insights to women about dealing with men when negotiating as they undoubtedly will encounter negotiating with men during their careers. Creating shared understanding of each other's perspective on the topic would yield healthier and more productive negotiations for all parties.

Conclusion

The path to presidency is not quick nor do leaders rise to the top of an organization on their own. Typically, holding the position of president follows a climb that has involved many steps and a long career. During their ascent to the top position, and when holding the position, negotiation is an activity that presidents encounter frequently. Women leaders are poised to take on leadership roles, but they must be ready to negotiate and be prepared to face the challenges inherent in leading institutes of higher education over the next century.

Now, more than ever, higher education needs the strongest leaders possible. These leaders and their institutions are under intense scrutiny and the pressures they face are extreme. They must build universities that are conducive to the changing demographics of the student population, defend freedom of speech and thought, create organizational cultures where transparency and accountability are uncompromised, and nurture institutions that are financially viable. These are big challenges and meeting them successfully will be essential for university presidents over the next decade and beyond. It will take highly principled, resilient college presidents who possess a strong level of emotional intelligence and are savvy negotiators to usher higher education into a new era, regardless of gender.

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APPENDIX A: INTRODUCTORY EMAIL TO POTENTIAL STUDY PARTICIPANTS

Dear [insert title and name],

My name is Kim Tobin and I am a PhD candidate at Colorado State University in the School of Education. I am conducting a research study on the phenomenon of negotiation as it pertains to women leaders in higher education. The title of my project is "How women presidents of research institutions have navigated negotiation in reaching the top: A phenomenological study."

As I am sure you are acutely aware, women are in the minority as presidents in higher education. Of 4800 institutions nationwide, just 26.4% have women as presidents. This has rate has barely moved in the last decade. At institutions deemed as having a high level of research activity in the Carnegie classification system, just 17% are women. I am interested in understanding how the phenomenon of negotiation has impacted women in higher education and their ascent to the top positions in these organization.

It would be a privilege to conduct a personal interview with you to learn about your experience with negotiation as it relates to your professional progression in higher education. If you are willing to participate in the study, my travel schedule will allow me to interview you in person on your campus at a mutually convenient time. Participation will take approximately 60 minutes for a personal interview at a location of your choosing or by telephone. Your participation in this research is voluntary. Should you decide to participate, you may withdraw your consent and stop participation at any time without penalty.

I understand that you hold a very public position and professional negotiations are a private matter. Your identity will be protected by assigning a participant number to you in the study. Any reference to your experience with negotiation will only be referred to your assigned participant number. The interview recordings will be deleted after they have been transcribed.

While there are no direct benefits to you, I hope to gain more knowledge on how women have handled negotiation during their careers and what they have learned along the way in the hope that the findings will help emerging women leaders with an activity that is highly gendered and often disadvantages women yet has long-term and significant impact on their professional and personal lives.

Given your position, preserving confidentiality is the greatest risk in participating in this study. Beyond this there are no known other risks in participating in this study.

If you would like to participants or have any questions, please contact Kim Tobin at kim.tobin@colostate.edu or 970-217-4628. If you have any questions about your rights as a volunteer in this research, contact the CSU IRB at: RICRO_IRB@mail.colostate.edu; 970-491-1553.

Sincerely,
Kim Tobin
PhD candidate

APPENDIX B: CONFIRMATION EMAIL

Dear [insert title and name],

Thank you for agreeing to participate in my study. Given the demands on you, I am honored that you are willing to share 60 minutes to discuss your experience with negotiation.

To make scheduling easier, I would be happy to work with your assistant. If you would so kindly send me their name and contact information, I will work with them to schedule the interview in the next 60 days. Looking forward to interviewing you. Thank you for agreeing to participate in the study.

Sincerely,

Kim Tobin

PhD candidate

Colorado State University

970-217-4628

APPENDIX C: CONSENT FORM

Consent to Participate in a Research Study

Colorado State University

TITLE OF STUDY: How women presidents of research institutions have navigated negotiation in reaching the top: A phenomenological study.

PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR: Linda Kuk, School of Education, 970-222-1337 or linda.kuk@colostate.edu

CO-PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR: Kim Tobin, PhD candidate, School of Education, 970-217-4628 or kim.tobin@colostate.edu

WHY AM I BEING INVITED TO TAKE PART IN THIS RESEARCH? You have been invited to participate in the study as you are a woman serving as a president at a research university.

WHO IS DOING THE STUDY? The research is being conducted by Kim Tobin with advisement from Dr. Linda Kuk.

WHAT IS THE PURPOSE OF THIS STUDY? The purpose is to understand the phenomenon of negotiation through the lived experiences of women presidents serving at research institutions.

WHERE IS THE STUDY GOING TO TAKE PLACE AND HOW LONG WILL IT LAST? The interviews will be conducted in person at the president's home institution in a location of their choosing or via telephone. The interviews will be scheduled for 60 minutes. Following the interview, participants will be invited to review the interview transcript. This may take an additional commitment of 60 minutes to review and send edits to the researcher.

WHAT WILL I BE ASKED TO DO?

- Participate in a 60 minute interview
- Review and provide feedback on the interview transcript (60 minutes)

ARE THERE REASONS WHY I SHOULD NOT TAKE PART IN THIS STUDY?

Sharing one's experiences with activities such as negotiation can make people vulnerable or subject to critique by peers or future employers.

WHAT ARE THE POSSIBLE RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS?

There are no known risks associated with the procedures of this study. It is not possible to identify all potential risks in research procedures, but the researcher(s) have taken reasonable safeguards to minimize any known and potential, but unknown, risks.

ARE THERE ANY BENEFITS FROM TAKING PART IN THIS STUDY? There are no direct benefits to participants in this study.

DO I HAVE TO TAKE PART IN THE STUDY? Your participation in this research is voluntary. If you decide to participate in the study, you may withdraw your consent and stop participating at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled.

WHO WILL SEE THE INFORMATION THAT I GIVE? We will keep private all research records that identify you, to the extent allowed by law.

For this study, we will assign a code to your data (ex. President 1) so that the only place your name will appear in our records is on the consent and in our data spreadsheet which links you to your code. Only the researcher will have access to the link between you, your code, and your data. The only exceptions to this are if we are asked to share the research files for audit purposes with the CSU Institutional Review Board ethics committee, if necessary. In addition, for funded studies, the CSU financial management team may also request an audit of research expenditures. For financial audits, only the fact that you participated would be shared, not any research data. When I write about the study to share with other researchers, I will write about the combined information that I have gathered. You will not be identified in these written materials. I may publish the results of this study; however, I will keep your name and other identifying information private.

WHAT HAPPENS IF I AM INJURED BECAUSE OF THE RESEARCH? The Colorado Governmental Immunity Act determines and may limit Colorado State University's legal responsibility if an injury happens because of this study. Claims against the University must be filed within 180 days of the injury.

WHAT IF I HAVE QUESTIONS?

Before you decide whether to accept this invitation to take part in the study, please ask any questions that might come to mind now. Later, if you have questions about the study, you can contact the co-principal investigator Kim Tobin at kim.tobin@colostate.edu If you have any questions about your rights as a volunteer in this research, contact the CSU IRB at: RICRO_IRB@mail.colostate.edu; 970-491-1553. We will give you a copy of this consent form.

WHAT ELSE DO I NEED TO KNOW? To aid transcription of the interviews, they will be recorded electronically. After transcription is complete and the participant has reviewed the transcript and is satisfied with its content, the audio recordings will be permanently deleted.

Your signature acknowledges that you have read the information stated and willingly sign this consent form. Your signature also acknowledges that you have received, on the date signed, a copy of this document containing 3 pages.

_____   _____

Signature of participant   Date

_____

Printed name of participant

_____   _____

Name of researcher   Date

_____

Signature of Research Staff

APPENDIX D: INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Research Question # 1 - How did women college president participants navigate the process of negotiation in securing professional positions prior to becoming president?

    a. What are the times during your career when you had to negotiate?

    b. How did you learn to negotiate?

    c. What have you learned about yourself engaging in the negotiating on behalf of yourself professionally?

    d. What did you do differently for each subsequent negotiation process during your career journey?

Research Question # 2 - What were the priorities and foci when negotiating during different points of the participating presidents' career?

    a. What were things that you negotiated for and have these changed over time?

    b. How did your personal values align with the negotiation process and what you asked for?

Research Question # 3 - What was the process of negotiating that was used by the participating college president during the process of becoming a college president?

    a. What was the process used for negotiating your presidency?

    b. What were your priorities and foci when negotiating for your college presidency? How did these vary from earlier positions?

    c. What nuances did you encounter?

Research Question # 4 - How did the negotiating process set up/impact the participating presidents' relationship with the governing board where the participating presidents became president?

    a. Who from the organization conducted the negotiation with you?

    b. How, if at all, did the negotiation process shape your relationship with them going forward?

Research Question # 5 - Overall, how do the participating college presidents feel about negotiation, and what would they have done differently negotiating during their careers?

    a. How did you feel about yourself after each negotiation?

    b. Looking back on your entire career, how do you feel about yourself and your performance with this activity?

    c. Would you have done anything different in preparing to negotiate throughout your career?

    d. What advice would you give aspiring women leaders to prepare for this activity?

APPENDIX E: POST-INTERVIEW EMAIL

Dear [insert title and name],

Thank you for participating in my study: "How women presidents of research institutions have navigated negotiation in reaching the top." It was wonderful meeting you and hearing about your insights regarding the phenomenon of negotiation.

Should you have any questions about this project at any time, you may contact me at kim.tobin@colostate.edu or 970-217-4628. If you have any questions about your rights as a volunteer in this research, contact the CSU IRB at: RICRO_IRB@mail.colostate.edu ; 970-491-1553.

Sincerely,

Kim Tobin

PhD candidate and Associate Vice President of Advancement

Colorado State University