WHAT MAKES A LEADER: EXAMINING HOW SEARCH COMMITTEES

CONCEPTUALIZE, MEASURE, AND EVALUATE LEADERSHIP

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To my mom: thank you for instilling a deep desire to learn, the tenacity to encounter anything life throws my way, and always believing in me. You live on within me and every fiber of my being is influenced by the lessons you taught me.

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The purpose of this research was to investigate the social and cultural

constructions of leadership and how search committee members evaluate candidates for

leadership positions. Moreover, how they conceptualize, measure, and evaluate

leadership potential of candidates. To explore this issue, the following research

questioned were answered: How do members of an executive search committee construct

their views of leadership?; In what ways do the individual, social, and cultural

constructions of leadership held by search committee members influence behaviors and

outcomes of a search committee?

In this study, I investigated how members of a search committee constructed their

views of leadership and in turn how this influenced the search process for an executive

leader. In order to explore this issue, this study is approached through the constructivism

paradigm and informed by critical inquiry, using case study methodology. I followed one

executive search process from the charge meeting until the committee made its

recommendation to the hiring authority. The unit analyzed in this search employed a

leadership competency model and tools which mapped to this model, in an effort to

mitigate the influence of bias. I used semi-structured interviews with committee members

to understand their views on leadership. I supplemented interviews with observations and

document analysis as means of collecting data for the study.

Three findings emerged through data analysis: the role of background and identity

on views of leadership, the influence of personal and societal constructions of leadership

on individual behaviors and search outcomes, and the application or utility of using a leadership competency model. Through my findings, I demonstrated how individual's background and identity shaped their perceptions of what it meant to be a leader. Additionally, how they rated and talked about candidates matched their individual views about leadership rather than the leadership competency model they were asked to use. More specifically, analysis illuminated that minoritized search committee members had drastically different beliefs about leadership and experiences serving on the search committee. I concluded the study by outlining implications for policy, future practice, and future research, including offering a conceptual framework and tools for an equity-minded search process.

Megan Palmer, PhD, Co-Chair

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

People are an organization's single greatest asset. Although all members of an organization play a role in how it functions, leaders play a unique role is setting the vision and direction. The selection of new leaders is an important ritual that must be studied and understood. There is an abundance of research about leadership in higher education; however, the search process to identify new leaders remains opaque. This is particularly true in academic medicine. Understanding the search process for executive leaders remains largely unexplored in the literature.

"From the beginning, American constructions of race and class have determined who had access to education" (Tatum, 2007 p. 40). People of "underrepresented status" have historically been discriminated against based on their gender, ethnicity/race, color, dis/ability, and other identities. In fact, until recently, people of color and women were not allowed to study or work as faculty at many colleges and universities in the United States. Although some progress has been made regarding access of people of color and women at the executive level (e.g., dean and department chair), the picture remains bleak. University leadership reflects neither the faculty or student body nor the world in which we work and live. My motivation behind this qualitative study is to explore ways in which the hiring process for university leaders can become more equitable and to help institutions close the gap in diversity disparity for their campus community. Although equity among leadership positions has not been fully realized for persons of underrepresented status, increasing student, faculty, and leadership diversity is a popular strategic goal on most higher education campuses.

Although women and people of color are attending college and earning terminal degrees, they are not advancing in rank or continuing in academia at the same rate as White men (West & Curtis, 2006). Allen et al. (2000) identified the low representation of Black students at selective undergraduate institutions and in prestigious graduate degree programs as one factor contributing to continued inequities between Blacks and Whites in the faculty ranks. This problem is even worse in STEM fields where women earn 42% of all Ph.D.s in science and engineering (National Science Foundation [NSF], 2013a), yet they hold only 28% of tenure-track faculty positions in those fields (NSF, 2013b). Despite the increase in the numbers of women and people of color attending U.S. colleges and universities and smaller, but steady, increases in diversifying the faculty, institutions continue to have less racial and gender diversity among the faculty compared to the general population and the students these institutions and communities serve. "Disparities in the percentage of faculty of color versus white are similar to disparities among postsecondary students" (U.S. Department of Education, 2016 p. 73).

Of all full-time faculty in degree-granting postsecondary institutions in fall, 2018, among professors, 75% were White (40% were White males and 35% were White females), 12% were Asian/Pacific Islander (7% were Asian/Pacific Islander males and 5% were Asian/Pacific Islander females), and 3 percent each were Black males, Black females, Hispanic males, and Hispanic females (U.S. Department of Education, NCES 2020). Those who were American Indian/Alaska Native and those who were of two or more races each made up one percent or less of full-time faculty. Even more alarming is the percentage of White faculty who are on the tenure-track (65%) and who have tenure (77%) compared with faculty of color and women. At the same time, women are

overrepresented in full-time, non-tenure-track faculty positions. Consequently, they are clustered in the lowest faculty ranks in traditionally female disciplines. They also carry heavier teaching and service loads than their male colleagues, are paid less, and have fewer opportunities for advancement (Guarino, & Borden, 2017; Harper, Baldwin, Gansneder, & Chronister, 2001; O'Meara, Kuvaeva, Nyunt, Waugaman, & Jackson, 2017). "Women constitute fewer than 10% of the professoriate in the top fifty research universities. This can have negative implications for women's professional success and advancement in rank and to leadership positions. Additionally, women of color fare even worse on college and university faculties" (Taylor et al., 2010 p. 15). Moreover, these problems are likely more serious at urban-serving campuses, which tend to serve higher numbers of minoritized populations.

The presence of underrepresented minorities (URMs) is less than 10% in certain academic disciplines, particularly science, technology, engineering, and math (STEM) fields and academic medicine and women who enter are likely to leave academia within 10 years (Easterly & Ricard, 2011). According to Jackson, Hillard, and Schneider (2014), "stereotypes and implicit bias negatively affect the hiring, retention, and promotion of women in STEM" (p. 431). These issues with recruitment and retention of women and people of color, particularly in STEM fields, is a major problem and contributes to the lack of diversity at senior faculty ranks and leadership positions (Corrice, 2009). Women faculty in academic medicine and STEM fields face many barriers in their career advancement (Association of American Medical Colleges, 2016). Women make up approximately half of all medical students and residents and one-third of full-time faculty

in academic medicine (Joliff, et al., 2012). Women of color only make up one-quarter (28%) of all women faculty (Association of American Medical Colleges, 2016).

This matter worsens when looking at the make-up of institutional leaders. University leadership at the level of dean and department chair continues to be an area where, despite efforts to diversify faculty ranks, headway has yet to be made. Recent initiatives, such as with the American Council on Education (ACE), are designed to correct this imbalance and facilitate the development of people of color and women in leadership positions. According to an ACE (2016) study, excluding minority-serving institutions, just 11% of all colleges and universities were headed by minority presidents. Women and minoritized leaders are not represented in numbers that reflect their percentages as college and university students, let alone their percentages of the overall population (Harvey, 2001; Perna, et al., 2007; Roberts, 2020). The roles of department chairs, deans, and other university leadership continue to be areas where significant progress has yet to be made.

The proportion of women in executive leadership positions in the academic medicine has remained "stubbornly and shockingly low at 12%" (Travis et al., 2013 p. 1414). In 2014, of all chairs, about 14% were women; women of color represented 3% of all chairs and 18% of all women chairs (Association of American Medical Colleges, 2016). In 2018, information from the AAMC Council of Deans showed the number has crept up to 16% "and that's despite a deep bench of qualified women that has existed for the past 10 to 15 years" (Travis, 2018, para 2). The disparity between women and men in mid-level administrative positions is less in the dean's offices of medical schools, where women make up 44% of assistant, 37% of associate, and 32% of senior associate deans

(Joliff, et al., 2012). Although interventions in academic medicine (e.g., professional, faculty, or leadership development programs, formal mentoring programs) have served as stepping stones, a major gender and racial disparity continue to exist at more senior leadership positions. One such intervention, the Hedwig van Ameringen Executive Leadership in Academic Medicine (ELAM) program, provides senior women faculty an intensive one-year fellowship of leadership training aimed at expanding the national pool of qualified women candidates for leadership in academic medicine, dentistry, public health and pharmacy. Although ELAM has as its goal the development of women leaders—specifically as deans in the fields of academic medicine, dentistry, and public health—it has had a significant impact on the representation of women in dean-level positions, it has had less impact on full dean positions (Dannels et al., 2008). It is time for higher education—specifically academic medicine—to consider how leaders are recruited and selected and the barriers that continue to exist in this process.

Statement of the Problem

Whereas strides have been made, recruiting and retaining administrators of color and women into executive level positions at the same rate as their White male colleagues remains an unresolved dilemma in higher education. There continues to be a problem with how people of color and women are treated by search committees and other leaders.

This is despite multiple institutional or organizational safeguards, such as search committee membership, which is often vetted through an Office of Equal Opportunity and hiring authorities who are required to include people or color and women on the committee. These offices monitor the number of candidates from minoritized populations. Additionally, some hiring authorities even expect search committees or

search firms to bring a diverse group of finalists. Despite all this, people of color and women are hired at disproportionally low rates for university administrative positions. Often, the method of increasing representation for people of color and women has been relegated to placing affirmative action representatives and token people of color and/or women on hiring committees and "diversifying" the hiring committee. Although many collegiate institutions have attempted to use quick cosmetic fixes to improve the leadership disparity between people of color and women in administrative roles and their majority counterparts, these tactics have had little to no progress in diversifying leadership ranks (Jackson, 2001). These actions are essential to increasing representation, yet "these single-focused linear measures are not adequate alone when addressing the socially entrenched and complex power negotiations of institutional racism, institutional culture, and socialization" (Wolfe & Freeman, 2013, p. 2).

Research on people of color in leadership positions has shown leaders of color are: not viewed as legitimate, feel they have to fight tokenism and stereotypical labels, and face power inequities when compared to their White counterparts (Madden, 2011; McKay et al., 2007; Ospina & Foldy, 2009; Patitu & Hinton, 2003). Despite more racial equity in the academy and an increase of faculty from minoritized backgrounds, many challenges still exist for the few who do make it to the level of dean or department chair.

Several researchers point to discrimination as the root cause for disproportionate representation in leadership positions, which inspires my investigation into this phenomenon. Jordan (1988) considered colleges and universities to be as discriminatory as any other business or organization, which could account for the small number of people of color at PWIs. If discrimination is the cause for this under-representation, those

who advance to the dean and department chair position will most certainly experience

continuing prejudice within these institutions. Studies and first-hand accounts document

the trials and tribulations of Black PWI administrators and show a consistent pattern.

Poussaint (1974) studied Black administrators and found that many of them were

disenchanted and isolated in their work roles. Tucker (1980) asserted Black

administrators at PWIs were not often given the power and resources to be effective,

leaving them feeling incompetent and their integrity compromised. Furthermore, Davis

(1994) stated Black administrators preparing to work at PWIs must "develop a tough skin

so that they can deal with racist behavior, personal harassment, and indignities" (p. 149).

Discrimination by the majority population is the foundation for inequality. According to

Morrison and Glinow (1990), there is "structural, systemic discrimination as the root

cause of differential treatment rather than actions or characteristics of individuals" (p.

201). Do these factors play a role in whether or not women and people of color are

prepared (e.g., mentored, promoted) for leadership positions, for applying for leadership

positions, or in the recruitment process? My interest is to: explore whether racially and

gender-driven perceptions are the source of the lack of diversity in higher education

leadership; and, examine how search committee members' individual social and cultural

constructions of leadership influence participant's behaviors or the outcome of the search.

I focus specifically on how search committees evaluate candidates for an

executive leadership position. Ross (2008) referred to this problem as "The

Organizational Unconscious":

> Unconscious organizational patterns, or "norms" of behavior, exert an
> enormous influence over organizational decisions, choices, and behaviors.
> These deep- seated company characteristics often are the reason that our
> efforts to change organizational behavior fail. Despite our best conscious

efforts, the "organizational unconscious" perpetuates the status quo and keeps old patterns, values, and behavioral norms firmly rooted. (p. 11)

In essence, the culture of an organization often guides its decision-making process. Systematic obstacles, such as policies and internal procedures, also contribute to an organization's inability or unwillingness to change. These systemic barriers are forms of institutional racism.

Applied to a leadership search process, Ross' (2008) words highlight the tendency for search committee members charged with identifying candidates to look for candidates who resemble themselves (or the norms of the traditional faculty body they have internalized). In fact, the practice of hiring individuals with the same characteristics is often hidden behind policies and procedures that govern the selection process, creating a form of institutional racism. According to Smith et al. (2002), "institutional racism exists when institutions or organizations, including educational ones have standard operating procedures (intended or unintended) that hurt members of one or more races in relation to members of the dominant race" (p. 224). Since academe has historically been a White male bastion of power, and its hierarchy favors Whites over non-Whites, the paradigm will continue to affect the recruitment of minoritized faculty members and negate diversity and inclusion efforts. The selection process can contain bias at every stage: pre-search, search, and negotiation/acceptance. Issues of organizational unconsciousness, institutionalized racism and sexism, and unconscious bias, swept under the rug, continue to hinder the most concerted efforts to recruit and retain female and minoritized institutional leaders.

Understanding one's own beliefs, values, and traditions is essential to determining whether cultural bias exists. Building upon definitions provided by leading scholars, for

this dissertation, I define unconscious bias as an implicit process of interpreting and applying judgement to an individual's attitudes, behaviors and characteristics, culture, race, or ethnicity (Banaji & Greenwald, 2013; Beattie et al., 2013; Dovidio & Gaertner, 2000; Ross, 2014). It is essential to understand the ramifications of failing to identify one's own biases, which ultimately influence our thoughts and the choices we make. Faculty members who serve on search committees must not only understand the concepts of unconscious bias, but also be willing to identify their own personal biases. According to Kayes (2006):

> Although search committees are part of the diverse hiring picture, diversification of faculty and staff at US colleges and universities cannot occur without their eyes being opened to the various biases, assumptions and stereotypes that influence their perceptions, judgments and decisions. (p. 69)

Therefore, it is also imperative search committee members develop the skills necessary to mitigate instances of bias that occur during the process. Institutions must work hard to overturn objections from search committee members who insist they are able to be objective and measure candidates without the influence of personal bias. Admitting biases exist is the first step to minimizing its affects.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this work was to investigate the process undertaken by individuals working to recruit and retain faculty of color and women to the ranks to leadership positions in U.S. institutions of higher education. Via this study, I sought to understand how search committees conceptualize, measure, and evaluate leadership potential of candidates. I operated under the assumption that bias exists in every facet of life,

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including the search process, and therefore strategies must be identified to recognize and mitigate bias.

In the study, I explored this concept by observing the search process from developing the position posting through the committee's making their recommendations to the hiring authority. I specifically sought to understand the perspectives of individuals who served on the search committee by conducting semi-structured interviews. The research questions that guided this study were:

- How do members of an executive search committee construct their views of leadership?

- In what ways do the individual, social, and cultural constructions of leadership held by search committee members influence behaviors and outcomes of a search committee?

Through this study, I sought to understand how search committees evaluated candidates. Within this evaluation, particular attention was paid to how women and candidates of color were talked about by search committee members. Recording both overt and covert discrimination was important to answering this question.

By their very nature, search committees are comprised of a number of individuals, each of whom come to the search committee with a specific role. This is particularly true with executive level searches. In an ideal world, every search committee would be comprised of individuals from diverse backgrounds and perspectives, recognizing that individuals bring in their own identity and lived experiences into the search process and therefore how they view leadership and in turn evaluate candidates.

These research questions assume unconscious bias does exist in all parts of a search. This study was designed to develop a deeper understanding of how search committee members evaluate candidates for university leadership positions and the phenomenon of bias in the candidate evaluation process.

Significance of the Study

One of the equity issues in U.S. institutions of higher education is that while student diversity has improved, the number of those who hold leadership positions has not kept pace (American Council on Education, 2007; National Center for Education Statistics, 2008). It is clear that an issue exists as it relates to the recruitment of women and people of color into university leadership positions. Despite espoused desires to diversify administrative ranks, a practice of exclusion has been the norm for many institutions of higher education. Institutional policies often facilitate exclusion rather than encouraging diversification. According to Winkle-Wagner et al. (2012), "higher education institutions have, since their earliest inception into this country adopted educational policies that essentially focus on exclusion as a way to create prestige" (p. 2). In fact, many scholars (Bell, 1989, 1993; Delgado & Stefancic, 2012; Gillborn, 2008) have argued racism is a permanent fixture in U.S. social institutions, including colleges and universities. These policies have systematically prevented or, at a minimum, hindered women and people of color from attending institutions of higher education. This in turn has a chilling effect on these populations from later becoming faculty members and ultimately institutional leaders.

One of the most important decisions members of an organization make is who to hire. This is especially important when deciding on who to hire or promote for leadership

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positions. So, the identification and development of college and university leaders who are representative of the general population in the United States, one that is increasingly diverse, is important for all institutions of higher education. Thus, it is important to engage stakeholders and gatekeepers who are responsible for selecting and promoting leaders. Also, to examine the complex structural barriers which undergird advantage for some and disadvantage for others, mainly people of color and women. According to Blackburn et al. (1994), "higher education institutions, as well as national research centers, need to focus on the experiences of faculty of color if we hope to understand the work environments needed to support creative talents" (p. 280). Despite increases in enrollment of people of color and women in colleges and universities, faculty appointments, and administrative employment throughout higher education, the potential for a person of color or woman to lead a school or department within a majority institution in the United States remains bleak.

Universities have successfully diversified their institution by: a) individuals' seeing the value in diversifying its faculty; b) having upper administrative support; c) providing tools for administrators and faculty to support the search and screen process; d) measuring or assessing that goals are being met (Bensimon, et al., 2000; Blackwell, 1988; Hurtado, et al., 1999). Although experts in leadership, organizational change, and education through their literature, research, and best practices all provide advice on how to make changes, there is no simple solution to diversifying those who hold leadership positions in higher education.

The source of discrimination or oppression faced can be divided into three categories: social, organizational/institutional, and internal. Social barriers include

general social attitudes (e.g., stereotypes) and prejudices towards people of color and women, especially as they relate to them in leadership positions. Examples include daily doses of racism and sexism and treatment as though they are invisible to exclusion from informal networks. Institutional and organizational barriers are influenced by greater social pressures. Internal barriers include a fear of failure or a low self-esteem. One name for this phenomenon, often associated with underrepresented individuals, is the imposter syndrome. Clance and Imes (1978) defined it as a feeling of internal inadequacy that exists despite evidence of success (e.g., earned degrees, scholastic honors, praise and professional recognition from colleagues and respected authorities); they consider themselves to be "impostors." I would argue imposter syndrome is not a result of a personal flaw, instead it is a reasonable response to systemic and structural forces of diminishment and presumed inadequacy. The social and organizational/institutional barriers are often much more pervasive than internal barriers, and internal barriers would likely decrease if the other barriers decreased. However, this problem does not only exist at the individual level and to believe so could be catastrophic.

In order to understand the systems that continue to reproduce inequities and disproportionately low numbers of people of color and women in positions of leadership, it is necessary to examine the societal and organizational structures in place that perpetuate these inequalities. For example, while many U.S. institutions of higher education claim a commitment to diversifying—from students to top administrators—with pledges to diversity appearing often and central in institutional mission statements and strategic plans, these ideals are not often exhibited in hiring decisions and other

tangible measures. In fact, the problem is institutional racism and sexism can easily be

cloaked in the guise of diversity initiatives.

> All forms of power, inequality, and domination are systematic, rather than
> individual. . . . In other words, racism [and sexism] should not been seen
> as about individuals with bad attitudes, not because these individuals do
> not exist (they do), but because such a way of thinking underestimates the
> scope and scale of racism, thus leaving us without an account of how
> racism gets reproduced. (Ahmed, 2012 p. 44)

As such, there is a danger in believing that eliminating a single racist or sexist person will

eliminate racism or sexism. This allows institutions to continue to reproduce racism and

sexism while creating the illusion it is gone (Bonilla-Silva, 2014). Rather, it is necessary

to consider how institutions of higher education reproduce racism and sexism and its

effect on people of color and women trying to enter positions of leadership. This problem

continues, in part, because diversity work has come to mean inclusion of people who

"look different" or who are "different" rather than looking at systemic issues. However,

"the very idea that diversity about those who "look different" shows us how [diversity

work] can keep whiteness in place. . . . Alternatively, as a sign of the proximity of those

who "look different," diversity can expose the whiteness of what is already in place"

(Ahmed, 2012 p. 33).

Limited research has been conducted on how search committee members

conceptualize leadership and in turn measure and evaluate candidates for leadership

positions. In the realm of existing scholarship, there is still much to learn about what

influences the hiring of people of color and women into leadership roles in higher

education. Even less attention has been given to systemic racism and sexism infused in

the search process, which speaks directly to the problem I explores in this study.

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Definition of Terms

The following terms are defined for this study:

Leadership: Yukl (2013) defined leadership as "the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives" (p. 8). This definition suggests several components central to the phenomenon of leadership. Defining leadership as a process means leadership is a transactional event that happens between leaders and their followers. "Organizations provide its managers with legitimate authority to lead, but there is no assurance that they will be able to lead effectively" (Luenenburg, 2011 p. 1).

Leadership Competency Model: Leadership competencies are leadership skills and behaviors that contribute to superior performance (Society for Human Resource Management, 2008). By using a competency-based approach to leadership, organizations can better identify and develop their next generation of leaders (Brownwell, 2006).

Whiteness: This term describes a state of unconsciousness often invisible to White people that perpetuates a lack of knowledge or understanding of difference—a root cause of oppression (hooks, 1994). It is a set of cultural practices consisting of structural advantage and racial privilege that are usually unmarked and unnamed (Frankenburg, 1993). "In a social context where white people have too often viewed themselves as nonracial or racially neutral, it is crucial to look at the "racialness" of the white experience" (p. 1). "Racism is based on the concept of Whiteness—a powerful fiction enforced by power and violence" (Kivel, 1996 p. 19).

Unconscious Bias: This is social behavior that is motivated by learned stereotypes.

These thoughts are hidden in the unconscious and affect the manner in which individuals interact with people. The behaviors typically materialize in tendencies or inclinations, which contribute to discriminatory behavior (Blanton & Jaccard, 2008). These automatic responses result in a judgment without question; unconscious bias provides us with a shortcut to interact with our world and the people in it. It is essential to understand the ramifications of failing to identify one's own biases, which ultimately influence our thoughts and the choices we make. Individuals who serve on search committees must not only understand the concepts of unconscious bias but also identify and mitigate their own personal biases.

Underrepresented Minorities: This term can be used to describe individuals (e.g., students, leader candidates) from a racial and ethnic minority group whose percentage is lower than other races within the country, state, institution, and/or academic discipline. The groups that are considered underrepresented differ based on status at an institution: student, faculty, or leader. For example, according to the Association of American Medical Colleges (AAMC, 2004), "underrepresented in medicine' (URM) means those racial and ethnic populations that are underrepresented in the medical profession relative to their numbers in the general population."

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Organization of the Project

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My dissertation is organized into five chapters. The following chapters include a review of the literature, description of research methods, findings, and implications. In Chapter Two, I present a review of the extant literature relevant to my study. The literature review begins with a discussion of what is known about leadership. I then narrow the literature review to what is known about leadership in higher education and

the leadership search process in higher education. Next, I discuss what is known about unconscious bias in higher education hiring and recruitment and I conclude the chapter with a section on leadership competencies. In Chapter Three, I detail my research design. I include sections on the constructivist paradigm, researcher positionality and bias, research design and case selection, setting, population, data collection strategies, and trustworthiness. In Chapter Four, I describe the experiences of the search committee members who participated in my study and present my research findings. Finally, in Chapter Five, I present the implications and limitations associated with my research. In summary, these chapters comprise a complete case exploring how an executive search committee conceptualized, measured, and evaluated leadership in one particular search.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, I present highlights and analyze the existing literature related to this study. I also provide background and context for this research study and include an overview of the importance of diversity in higher education. Despite efforts to diversify the field, issues with recruitment and retention of people of color and women into the academy, particularly in STEM fields, remain a major problem and contribute to the lack of diversity at senior faculty ranks and leadership positions (Corrice, 2009). A critical framework is used to frame the existing literature and need for this study.

I reviewed various articles, books, and dissertations was completed to evaluate the literature base regarding the impact of unconscious bias on recruitment and hiring decisions. Although there is limited research that addresses unconscious bias and the faculty search process, there was even less specific to the search process for university leaders. For the purposes of this literature review, I identified and synthesized what is currently known in the research in this area. First, a broad overview of leadership is presented. This is followed by a review of leadership in higher education. Next is an overview of the leadership search process in higher education followed by a review unconscious bias in the higher education recruitment and hiring process. The literature review concludes with a discussion on leadership competency models and their utility in the search and screen process.

Context for the Study

The practice of exclusion, specifically as it relates to the diversification of faculty, has been an accepted norm in education for centuries. According to Weinberg (1977), even prolific African American scholars such as W.E.B. Du Bois and Carter G.

Woodson—both graduates of Harvard University—were excluded from employment at the institutions where they were educated. Weinberg (1977) stated, "Since its earliest beginnings, the American public school system has been deeply committed to the maintenance of racial and ethnic barriers. Higher education, both public and private, shared this outlook" (p. 1). For African Americans who were afforded educational opportunities in American higher education, they were often segregated and provided with limited resources (Tatum, 2007). The right to education for people of color did not happen without the concerted effort of each community. Williamson, Rhoades, and Dunson (2007) suggested, "Blacks waged the most public, aggressive, and long-lasting attack on separate schools, and it is with the Black community that the link between education and social justice as collective racial advancement is most clearly articulated" (p. 205). The right to desegregated education was finally forced by the U.S. Supreme Court in the landmark *Brown vs. Board of Education* (1954) case. Although this case had positive effects on desegregating public schools, just a decade later, the number of African American teachers and administrators dropped from 82,000 to 44,000 and the number of students and the number of students majoring in education dropped 66% between 1975 to 1985 (Hudson & Holmes, 1994). Fifty years later, the U.S. Supreme Court ruled in *Grutter vs. Bollinger* (2003) colleges could make admissions decisions based on race at the graduate level. This ruling affects not only who is able to attend graduate school and ultimately enter the professoriate, but also who will be eligible for senior faculty of color available to be hired into senior administrative positions.

Women in the United States did not have access to higher education until the 1830s (Jones-Wilson et al., 1996). Oberlin College was the first college in the country to

admit women, and one of the first to admit African Americans. However, once admitted, women were typically restricted to what they could study. At Oberlin, female students studied in the "Ladies Department." As one of the first colleges to admit African American students beginning in 1835, by 1900 nearly half of all African American college graduates in the country had graduated from Oberlin College. In contrast, Harvard had graduated just 11 African American men and women. Yet, inclusion is not enough; higher education cannot realize its full potential until people of all races and women are significantly represented at all levels, including the highest ones.

The lack of diversity should not be a surprise given the historically racist and sexist nature of American institutions of higher education (Wilder, 2014). Prior to the 1960s, the lack of administrators of color and women at Predominantly White Institutions (PWIs) was viewed as commonplace due to the existence of segregation and widespread racism and sexism, including in educational institutions (Feagin, 2014; Wilson, 1995). In fact, it was not until the American Civil Rights Movement that higher education was forced to open its doors to more people of color and women, due to state and federal civil rights mandates (Chang, 2005). However, not all PWIs immediately welcomed the demand for a culturally diverse leadership upon their campuses (Arthur & Shapiro, 1995; Kawewe, 1997; Payne, 2004; Perna et al., 2007; Wilson, 1995). Although some minorities have been able to shatter this glass ceiling and enter these ranks, the need for greater inclusion at the highest levels of university administration remains. "Once you have seen in it from the inside, any illusions that the academic job search is a wholly rational process designed to yield the best candidate for the position are burst asunder" (University of California Berkley, n.d. para. 1).

Cole and Barber (2003) described five potential benefits of achieving a more ethnically diverse faculty. I believe this list can be extrapolated to women as well. First, achieving equity for Blacks (and other groups) in employment suggests career opportunities are not impossible due to discrimination. Second, raising the representation of women and people of color in the faculty will promote the academic success of female students and students of color. Third, a more diverse faculty will ensure the contributions of diverse groups are recognized. Fourth, greater faculty diversity provides more role models for minority students, thereby raising their career aspirations and academic performance. Fifth, ''faculty diversity ensures that theories and empirical data will be informed by the special perspectives that, by virtue of their own experience, only members of certain racial and ethnic groups and women can bring to research and teaching'' (p. 3).

Leadership

In order to understand this study, it is first important to provide an overview from the literature on what is known about leadership. This section includes a review of general leadership theories, leadership as a social and cultural construction, the interplay of race, gender, and leadership, and the intersection of Whiteness, White privilege and leadership.

Leadership Theories

In this section, I examine how leadership theories seek to explain how and why certain people become leaders and excel in leadership roles. According to Yukl (2013), the topic of leadership as a subject of scientific study began in the 1930s and 1940s, although the idea of what it means to be a leader and the scholarship on leadership

continues to evolve. In the 1950s, leadership theorists were interested in effective leadership behavior with a focus on two broad categories: task accomplishment and developing relationships with followers. Today, the former is most often associated with male leaders and the later with female leaders. Then, in the 1980s, researchers became interested in the "emotional and symbolic aspects of leadership" (Yukl, 2013, p. 260) and the theories of charismatic and transformational leadership were developed. Then, in the 1990s and 2000s, there was an increased interest in studying leadership differences among women and men.

Leadership theories have evolved in the last century to the point where they begin to be the basis for models that accurately describe the activities of leaders with good correlation to their success (Yukl, 2013). Leadership theories, including those specific to higher education, began with the positivist ontological view where a researcher could come to know a singular, objective, shared reality (Kezar et al., 2006). Leadership could be studied and understood universally and could be generalized to all leaders in all organizational contexts. This allowed for the development of leadership competency models. However, the positivist paradigm did not account for individual differences, including race and gender, and the organizational or societal contexts in which leadership occurs.

According to Yukl (2013), a majority of the research on leadership in the United States prior to 2000 was focused solely on the White male perspective. The researchers and participants in studies were almost exclusively White men, as were most of the leaders of organizations being studied. Given the inception of the United States as a colony settled by Europeans, largely controlled by men, its systems have always been

made for White men, including positions of organizational leadership. There are implications here for the present project. According to Frankenberg (1993):

> Whiteness has been simultaneously ignored and universalized: studies of members of the dominant race or culture, unless focused on racism per se, bracket the issues of face and culture and presume by implication the racial neutrality of the subjects of the study. (pp. 17-18)

Earlier models of leadership did not consider the varied perspectives or contributions of women or people of color in leadership roles.

More recent leadership theories have considered the social constructivism paradigm (Kezar et al., 2006). This ontological view holds that reality is developed through one's interactions with the world. Although early views of leadership theory strove to identify generalizable principles that guide leaders, more recent leadership theories have come to understand multiple realities and that leadership is a social and cultural construction. Leadership theorists from this perspective believe it is necessary to examine multiple interpretations or perspectives, to understand a shared sense of reality, and that one's understanding of reality would always be partial and imperfect. Therefore, the way people interpret leaders' behaviors is also important to understand (Birnbaum, 1992). Later in this chapter, there will be an outline of how others assess leaders and potential leaders when they are a person of color or a woman. Understanding the intersection of these identities is important to understanding how search committees evaluate candidates and in turn how this affects the diversity of who is hired into leadership positions.

In addition to the importance of individuals' perceptions, the context in which an organization operates is of particularly important. According to Bolman and Deal (2008), leaders, through their positions of authority, create social reality by managing and

interpreting meaning. Thus, leadership must be studied in a particular context, looking at the interaction between how the context shapes perspective as well as how perspective shapes the leadership context. Although there are some commonly agreed upon leadership competencies, organizational context determines the skills and traits needed. For example, leadership differs from secondary schools and higher education and even within higher education from undergraduate to professional schools, based on the varying structures and cultures of these environments and experiences of individuals in these environments.

As previously mentioned, leadership is a social and cultural construction and varies by organizational context and societal influences. People of color and women are not always socialized in the same way and this may affect their likelihood of being perceived as a leader by others. This raises the question of what "counts" as leadership for certain people. Individuals are socialized from a young age about ideas of who and what a leader is. For example, boys and girls learn as young as five to seven years old that leaders and some professions tend to be dominated by White men. This becomes a filter or lens through which search committee members see candidates. This continues to be indoctrinated, despite the fact there are many women and people of color in leadership positions.

From the early trait theories to the modern theories of transformational leadership, each attempt to describe the behavior of successful leaders. In the next section, I consider the social and cultural constructions of leadership. The concept of what it means to be a leader is held by individuals and constructed by social and cultural norms. I will discuss

social and cultural constructions of leadership relative to how this influences how women and people of color are viewed as potential and successful leaders.

Social and Cultural Constructions of Leadership

"Leaders are embedded in a social system, which constrains behaviors" (Pfeffer, 1977 p. 107). Most leadership theories assume leadership is something that is knowable and definite; however, sociologist Keith Grint (1997, 2005) argued there is no agreed definition of what leadership is or who might be regarded as a leader. For the purpose of this study, Yukl's (2013) definition of leadership is used: "the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives" (p. 8). In this section, I examine an alternative approach in which leadership is a contested construct, influenced by society and culture.

With Berger and Luckman's The Social Construction of Reality published in 1966, this concept found its hold. From this perspective, leadership characteristics of both the person and situation are central to most theories of leadership (Grint 1997, 2005; Yukl, 2013). Berger and Luckman (cited in Speed, 1991 p. 400) stated people socially construct reality by their use of agreed and shared meaning. Thus, beliefs about the world are social inventions. Drawing from Berger and Luckman's social constructivist ideas, Grint (1997) built an argument for leadership based in people's perceptions. By making leadership a product of the observer, he explained why people look at leaders and potential leaders differently—everyone is looking for something different and this is influenced by their own identity and experiences. It also explains why no common

definition of leadership can be agreed upon or why completely different approaches to leadership work in similar situations.

Sandberg (2001) outlined three components of social constructivism that are relevant to this study. Dualistic ontology is the idea there are two entities, the subject and the object, that are separate and independent of each other. In this case, the leader and the search committee members. Objective epistemology is the notion that beyond human consciousness there is an objective reality. Social constructivists believe there is a reality and that it is through people's interpretations that meaning comes. Assuming that the individual is the prime creator of reality in this way is termed as individualistic epistemology. This individualistic construction of what it means to be a leader and how leaders are viewed allows the researcher to explore how individuals on the search committee members conceptualize, measure, and evaluate the leadership potential of candidates. When you say or think "horse," for example, you mind focuses on an idea—a concept—that your mind has about what a horse is, might be, and even things it cannot be. The same is true when you say or think "leader." This study sought to examine how members of the search committee constructed their views of what a leader is, might be, and even what it is not.

Interplay of Gender, Race, and Leadership

In this section, I narrow the review of leadership to examine the interplay of gender and race on leadership. It is important to consider the allostatic load minoritized individuals carry as a result of their identity and how they are percevied. The intersection of these two dynamics is also explored, as well as a specific look at Whiteness and White privilege.

Gender and Leadership.

"Influential women have been classified in a number of ways, some unflattering, many fitting stereotypes about women in the workplace" (Bass & Stogdill, 1990 p. 24). In order to understand why women are not in leadership roles to the same degree as men, it is important to examine the social construction of gender and its intersection with dominant views of leadership.

> Throughout the history of Western culture, three beliefs about women and men have prevailed: that they have fundamentally different psychological and sexual natures, that men are inherently the dominant or superior sex, and that both male-female difference and male dominance are natural"
> (Bem, 1993 p. 1)

Until the mid-19th century, this naturalness was typically undergirded in religious terms and since then has been conceived in scientific terms of biological superiority.

This perspective justified why women should not engage in a host of activities normal for their male counterparts such as engaging in formal education, holding positions of leadership, or having many political or legal rights. Women of color had even less access to these things.

> But as profound as the transformation of America's consciousness has been during the past 150 years, hidden assumptions about sex and gender remain embedded in cultural discourses, social institutions, and individual psyches that invisibly and systematically reproduce male power in generation after generation." (Bem, 1993, pp. 1-2)

Bem argued it is not the notion men are inherently superior to women, but the underpinning of that perception that is treacherous: that men and the male experience is viewed as neutral, and women and the female experience as a sex-specific deviation from that norm. In other words, men treated as human and women as "other." This male-female difference is superimposed on so many aspects of the social world that a cultural

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connection is thereby forged between sex and virtually every other aspect of human experience.

When examining the lack of women in leadership positions, it is important to consider these social constructions of gender and their influence on organizations and the men and women who are a part of them. Cultural stereotypes can make it appear women are not suited for leadership roles (Koenig et al., 2011). This cultural mismatch, or role incongruity, between women and the perceived requirements of leadership may fuel biased evaluations of women as leaders or potential leaders (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Perpetuating this mismatch, women tend to be associated with communal qualities (e.g., caring, compassionate, sympathetic) and men tend to be associated with agentic qualities (e.g., aggressive, competitive). In lieu of leadership competencies, many search committees and individuals tend to believe agentic qualities are associated with a successful leader (Eagly & Carli, 2007). Given agentic qualities are ascribed more to men than women (Gallup News Service, 2001; Spence & Buckner, 2000), leadership is more often associated with men and masculinity. When women and their lived experiences are not valued, in part because the gendered nature of organizations, they are not considered as strong choices for leadership positions. Leadership in masculinized contexts often depends on status and autocratic, self-promoting, competitive behavior, all of which are viewed negatively when engaged in by women (Eagly et al., 1994; El-Alayli et al., 2018; Heilman & Okimoto, 2007; Yoder, 2001).

Views of women and constructions of leadership have tangible and catastrophic effects on women leaders. For example, women continue to face challenges reaching the rank of full professor and attaining leadership positions. Yoder (2001) contended, "how

women enact leadership is inextricably intertwined with being female" (p. 2). Women are often seen as less likely to display key leadership behaviors, while male leaders are seen by men as more likely to use inspiration, delegation, intellectual stimulation, and problem solving than female leaders (Martell & DeSmet, 2001). Because people more easily perceive men as being highly competent, men are more likely to be considered leaders, given opportunities, and emerge as leaders than women. In other words, women do not fit the part; they do not fit the leadership mold.

Additionally, leadership occurs in the social context of organizations, which vary in how congenial they are to women. It is important to remember how deeply embedded, often giving preference to male perspectives, organizations, including institutions of higher education, operate in a masculinized context. The current social structure and organizational context are implicated in fundamentally maintaining these gender norms. Consequently, gender plays a role in how women are viewed as leaders and their potential for leadership.

Despite rhetoric and beliefs about changing leadership practices that might be more compatible with women's preferences in leadership behavior (e.g., collaborative, relational), writers have argued that, in reality, women are still at a disadvantage. Women leaders tend to highly value collaboration, not only among leaders, but also with others internal and external to the organization. The difficulties in implementing collaboration may "reduce women's effectiveness when they attempt this kind of leadership, even when [an organization's] rhetoric seems to value [it]" (Madden, 2007 p. 204). In addition, Blackmore (1999) contended women are viewed as change agents only when it serves the organizational goals.

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However, as long as these standards continue to be used, Martin (1994) argued merely adding women to an institution does not solve inequity. In a study about microaggressions experienced by queer people, Nadal and colleagues (2010) identified a range of microaggressions that may cumulatively convey disrespect, negative perceptions, or hostility. These include use of derogatory language, assumptions and stereotypes, discomfort, denial of heterosexism, and exoticism. Dozier (2015a, 2015b) would add isolation, sexualized jokes and overly-familiar behavior, and invisibility. Women, especially those in leadership positions, may experience this same range of microaggressions, especially during the search and screen process.

Changes need to be made to organizational policies to specifically aid women in reaching equality. Female leaders continue to face challenges that prevent advancement, even if not explicitly hindered by their university's policies (AAUW Educational Foundation and AAUW Legal Advocacy Fund, 2004; Aguirre, 2000). Universities that want to increase the number of women in leadership positions need to examine the policies they have in place well before a search committee is convened. For example, does the promotion and tenure process allow for faculty members to stop their clock when having children, or for family responsibilities?

Race and Leadership.

We live in a racially fragmented society. Although the U.S. Supreme Court ruled formal segregation unconstitutional in 1954, U.S. society remains segregated in housing, education, employment, and virtually every other indicator of socioeconomic well-being and status. As a result, the pipeline of Blacks who attended college, let alone earned a terminal or professional degree more than 50 years ago is lower than that of their White

counterparts. Although the number of people of color completing college and entering the professoriate has increased, there remain far too few people of color in leadership positions in higher education.

Research has shown that despite their leadership acumen, many racial and ethnic minorities will encounter ceilings if institutions of higher education do not create an environment that welcomes their contributions. Konrad (2003) argued this phenomenon is due to individual stereotyping and prejudices, but, more importantly, to institutional discrimination. As suggested by critical race theory, minority status shapes individuals and is also part of the larger social structure in which leadership emerges. Although this marginalization is often subtle and typically unintended (Woodford et al., 2015), it, nonetheless, may leave minority leaders feeling like outsiders. Therefore, it is important to consider the lack of people of color in leadership positions not due to personal lack of interest or bias on behalf of search committee members, but rather large systemic issues around race.

Intersection of Race and Gender.

The prospect for women of color trying to climb to leadership positions in higher education—or any other sector—remains particularly bleak. Women of color have even less access to receive a formal education, hold positions of leadership, or have many political or legal rights, due to the intersecting oppressions of race and gender (Crenshaw, 1989; de la Luz Reyes & Halcon, 1996; Johnson-Bailey & Cervero, 2008). Crenshaw (1989) coined the term "intersectionality" to describe the intersecting discrimination and oppression of Black women and others who hold two or more minority identities. She described it as "greater than the sum of racism and sexism" (p. 140). Nearly 30 years

later, people of intersecting minority identities continue to experience discrimination and oppression both for each of their minority identities and their intersected compound. According to Johnson-Bailey and Cervero (2008), for women of color, race and gender are "fused positionalities" (p. 313). In other words, there is a "double jeopardy" for individuals with intersecting minority identities. According to Roberts (2020), "in academic medicine, progress at the intersection of gender and race/ethnicity has been similarly fragmented, slow, and incremental. Much remains to be done to achieve true equity" (p. 1460). As a result, there are pervasive and complex barriers facing administrators of color and women and it is important to focus on the structural and systemic barriers and deficit thinking women of color face in higher education, especially when trying to advance the number of women of color who are deans or department chairs.

However, Crenshaw (1989) also acknowledged that of the two identities, discrimination based on race is more prevalent. That is not to say women of color in academia do not face both explicit and implicit racism and sexism, because they do. Rather, it is difficult to say if women of color would face discrimination to the degree they do if it were not for their intersectional identity. Additionally, women and minoritized leaders are likely to experience tokenism and "role encapsulation," (LaSalata et al., 2008; Pitcher, 2017). In other words, they are both critiqued more and have additional expectations placed on them. However, given the strong role race plays in society, Johnson-Bailey and Cervero (2008) believed gender to more often be a peripheral issue with race was the primary reason women of color in academia face discrimination.

Racism is based on the concept of Whiteness. Furthermore, race is a socially constructed concept invented mainly by White people that "has been a profound determinant of one's political rights, one's location in the labor market, and indeed one's sense of 'identity'" (Omi & Winant, 1994, p. 1). The categories that are used to make a distinction between groups of people are at best blurred and at worst, completely arbitrary (Omi & Winant, 1994). Despite its nature as a social construction, race has considerable consequences for different groups. Often used as justification to oppress certain groups, race is a fluctuating concept that develops in precise historical contexts, defines power relationships in society, and becomes part and parcel of the circumstances faced by diverse groups (Anderson & Collins, 1998; Feagin, 2014). As Omi and Winant (1994) illustrated, the concept of race has changed and been shaped by American social life and historical occurrences to best suite those in power—largely White men. This power to oppress has a real effect on preventing women and people of color from being promoted into leadership positions.

Whiteness, White Privilege, and Leadership.

Because the majority of current university leaders and members, members of search committees for leadership positions, and search consultants are White men (Dreher et al., 2011), it is important to consider White privilege and power in perspective of the search process. Matias (2016) defined the emotionality of feeling White. She argued conversations about race are inherently charged with emotions and to deny or further repress emotions, and the state of discomfort they create, makes us nothing more than somnambulists, going through life asleep. Rather, she suggested White people must acknowledge their emotions and use them constructively.

Suffice it to say that, we, as a collective humanity, cannot pick and choose which emotions we consider important and which we consider unwanted, precisely because emotions can never be divorced from one another. Love feels hurt. Sadness feels hope. Anger feels unwelcomes. And these emotions don't materialize from thin air; indeed, they stem from somewhere deep within us. (Matias, 2016, p. 2)

In the search committee and hiring environment, this translates to search committee members being aware of and acknowledging their biases of candidates. If search committees are committed to antiracism, individuals must: 1) feel their emotions related to race; 2) understand where these emotions stem from; 3) develop the emotionally ovaries to withstand the ups and downs of discussing race (Matias, 2016). Open discussion about social constructions of race, particularly as it relates to evaluating candidates of color, are important, but sometimes difficult and even foreign, conversations for search committees to have if we are ever going to challenge these constructions and ultimately increase representational diversity in leadership positions.

Today, members of university search committees and institutional leaders, which are largely comprised of White men, and are often are not consciously aware of the role race and implicit bias have on their evaluation of candidates. In fact, some White search committee members and leaders even insist they are color blind—if they do not notice the race of candidates, then they cannot act in a racist manner during the section process (Bonilla-Silva, 2014). However, research has shown colorblindness weakens inclusion efforts because it emphasizes individualism, assimilation, and the ignoring of cultural group identities (Cox, 1993; Foldy et al., 2009), rather than an appreciation for the value a diverse leader brings to an organization. However, it is safe to say most would not openly espouse racist or sexist comments as a reason for not hiring someone—though this does still happen. Rather, as Bonilla-Silva (2014) shared in his book Racism without

Racists, making race (or sex-based) decisions without using these terms can be difficult to combat, yet has the same effect as overt racism.

However, Whiteness is not simply about the race of an individual. Although race does play an important role in one's worldview, it is important to consider the fact that American culture and most organizations in the United States were constructed by and for White people (Feagin, 2014). People of color and women are routinely and systematically discriminated against in these contexts. It is not about the racist and sexist individual, but rather the racist and sexist system. Social constructions of leadership in these contexts give strong preference towards White male leaders. With this understanding of the social and cultural constructions of face in mind, these frameworks can be used to examine the search and screen process for new university leaders.

I argue leadership is a construction, framed largely to promote and keep White men, like myself, at the top of organizations. This has a strong effect on who is viewed as a competent and capable leader and, as a result, affects who is hired into university leadership roles. The use of leadership competencies may be one way to minimize the conscious and unconscious biases that cause hiring decisions that perpetuate current hiring trends.

Leadership in Higher Education

Much of the research on higher education leadership focuses on college presidents (Kezar et al., 2006). However, in the last 15 years, scholars have broadened the scope to include those in non-presidential leadership positions such as deans and department chairs.

Understanding the distinguishing aspects of any college or university begins with an examination of the institutional culture (Kuh & Whitt, 1988). Contextually bound, culture differs by institution and is always evolving. Individuals can interpret an organization's culture differently, which is influenced by their individual identity and life experiences—either recognizing characteristics of their own culture, or not. In its most sinister form, culture can be "an alienating, ethnocentric force that goads members of a group . . . to reinforce their own beliefs while rejecting those of other groups" (Kuh & Whitt, 1988, p. 15).

The challenges of campus climate, leadership, and the search committee are interconnected with the campus climate being the overall, larger sphere of influence. Campus climate is defined as the current perceptions, attitudes, and expectations that define the institution and its members (Peterson & Spenser, 1990). The current campus climate often comes from historical attitudes, social and organizational norms, and the expectations of its members. It includes all individuals who make up the university such as the faculty, staff, and students. The numbers of underrepresented groups in a particular university or school can impact (positively or negatively) the climate and opportunities for individuals from these underrepresented groups (Hurtado et al., 1999). When a campus does not have many diverse leaders, the campus climate is more likely to perpetuate stereotypes and biases because there are a few examples to counteract this perception (Aronson, 2008). According to Claud Steele (2010), contingencies are "the conditions in a setting that reward some behaviors and punish others, and thereby determine how we respond in the setting and what we learn" (p. 68). He went on to write, "contingencies are conditions you have to deal with in a setting in order to function in it.

And identity contingencies are contingencies that are special to you because you have a given social identity" (p. 68). What Steele's research highlights in the experiences of women and people of color is largely influenced by the environment. When there are not many women or people of color in senior leadership positions at an institution, stereotypes and biases can act as a deterrent. Some of these prejudices may not be conscious because they have never been questioned or addressed. Prejudices can be built into hiring processes and institutional policies, passed from faculty to faculty and search committee to search committee (Gurin et al., 2004; Gurin & Nagda, 2006; Hurtado, 2007; Smith & Moreno, 2006).

Leadership is the most visible portion of the university to external constituents and perspective leaders. Leadership is involved in enacting policies, creating the mission and initiatives, and providing support and resources. Leaders create, promote, and enforce changes at the institution. As such, they are fundamental in setting the tone for the institutional culture. Leaders are often the designated hiring authority and as such oversee the charge for search committees. However, if leaders do not recognize the need for diverse leadership, they may not charge or support search committees to do so.

At the intersection of leadership and the campus climate are the search committees who make hiring decisions. Search committees are the gatekeepers to the institution: they need to be aware of, understand, and demonstrate equitable hiring practices and the role of unconscious bias, if the university wishes to diversity its' leadership. Search committees are often affected by the traditional and current campus climate and the support of leadership; if they do not believe in the benefits of diverse leadership, it is unlikely diverse leadership will be hired in the first place.

Merely adding diverse members to a campus will not eradicate a campus climate that marginalizes them, particularly if structures are not in place for support (Martin, 1994). In addition, search committees' choices will affect future leadership and campus climate—leaders who are hired through this process are the same that will later serve on search committees and shape policies and future search committees' charges. Even if a campus is not formally against diversity (in fact, most promote in in their strategic plans and diversity statements), a lack of proactive measures and procedures can create loopholes that allow for pockets of hostile environments for underrepresented minorities. It is necessary for leaders to understand the benefits of a diverse leadership team and in turn create organizational change so that they are promoting a positive campus climate, and supporting these changes. Proactive leadership towards a multicultural campus sends a powerful message the institution is committed to diversity and equality (Blackwell, 1998.) University leaders are instrumental to setting and carrying out the vision and mission of the institution. Given the unique work of institutional leaders, it is critical to identify competencies to evaluate potential leaders during the hiring process.

Leadership Roles in Higher Education

Although other studies have focused on the faculty search process, it is important to highlight the differences of this study, which focused on the leadership search process (excluding president/chancellor). Instead this study examined the search process at the level of school-level leadership (e.g., department chair or dean). In academic leadership, some positions and qualifications are viewed as antecedents to others. Two basic qualifications for nearly all academic leadership positions are a terminal degree and a

faculty position with tenure. Beyond that, the selection process and leadership competencies for each level and type of position can vary greatly.

Although faculty searches are often done with an internal search committee, the scope and scale of a leadership search is often much larger. It is not uncommon for a college or university to hire a search firm or consultant to manage the process for a leadership search. The search for academic leaders (e.g., chancellor, dean, department chair) has led to the creation of nearly 30 firms that help colleges and universities find new leaders, and more than half of all academic institutions now employ them—for fees ranging from $100,000 to $500,000 for major searchers (Martin & Samels, 2006). "Deciding whether to use a search firm has both practical and symbolic dimensions" (p. 135). Failure to find a new leader, or a leader who is not successful can cause major and visible setbacks for an institution. From a practical perspective, a firm or consultant can carry out work others do not have time to do, such as drafting and sending correspondence, travel and itinerary arrangement, and dual career resources. Because they are often not academics themselves, consultants can be seen as outsiders interfering in a faculty matter. They may also have a poor understanding of the institution or school's character or needs. Other institutions have decided to use human and fiscal resources to conduct some or all leadership searches internally. Regardless the process, it is important to note these searches are significantly different than a faculty search.

The other important difference is the qualifications or competencies needed for various leadership positions. Entry level academic administrative jobs (e.g., program director, assistant dean) often require different competencies than more intermediate academic administrative jobs (e.g., department chair, dean). It is important for

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institutions, faculty members, and search committees to have a clear understanding of the skills needed for each type of position, and these vary by institution type and school/discipline. Professional schools, such as medicine, are often more complex, so the role of a department chair in a medical school is much different than that of a department chair in a liberal arts school, for example.

Leadership Search Process in Higher Education

Leaders in higher education commonly remain in their position for several years, and wield significant influence over the direction of the unit or institution they oversee. Additionally, due to the shared governance structure of U.S. institutions of higher education, the selection process for new leaders involves a variety of stakeholders. This section outlines the search committee structure commonly used in higher education. Next, common assumptions made during the hiring process are outlined. Finally, three key stages of the search process, which were examined in this study, are outlined: pre-search, sourcing candidates, and the interview process. This section will not address the job offer and negotiation stages of the hiring process, because they will not be a part of the case study analysis. Instead, emphasis is placed on parts of the search process where the search committee is involved, rather than parts where just the hiring authority is involved.

Many U.S. colleges and universities have sought to diversify faculty and staff hiring not only by issuing policy statements and mandates but also by investing in programs, initiatives, and strategies all intended to increase the number of people of color hired (Kayes, 2006). Admittedly, addressing resistance to diversity by institutions and individuals is more complex and difficult than inventing short-term initiatives, projects,

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and strategies. In fact, doing so will result only in temporary and cosmetic changes in diverse hiring statistics, but not in real, long-term diversification of the institution. More people of color and women may be hired into leadership roles, but if there is an underlying organizational culture that does not value or support them, they are likely to leave or be viewed as unsuccessful and creating a revolving door effect (Kayes, 2006). "Since colleges and universities are composed of people who all carry the baggage of stereotypes and biases, such institutions cannot become progressive, multicultural educational environments without the consent and cooperation of [everyone]" (p. 65). To understand the framing of this dissertation, I provide an overview of the roles and responsibilities of the search committee in the search process.

Search Committees

University hiring authorities often decide to use a search committee to identify new leaders. Sometimes called a search and screen committee, the committee's goal is to search for and recommend the best candidate for a leadership position. The committee is entrusted to enact upon the hiring authority's charge, institutional policies, and legal hiring regulations; however, if is not careful, the committee can unintentionally screen out underrepresented candidates. Search committees have a tremendous responsibility, and "their decisions will shape the position criteria and the advertisement, the tone of the preliminary interview and the questions asked of candidates…and of course the selection of candidates" (Dowdall, 2007, p. 72). Due to the confidential nature of the search process, the process has, oftentimes, remained uninterrogated.

"The most fundamental purpose of a search committee is to facilitate the generation of a robust qualified pool of job applicants. . . who best meet the needs of the

recruiting unit or campus" (Indiana University, 2015 p. 5). Tasked with filing a vacancy, these committees are charged with: drafting a job posting, advertising the position, waiting for an applicant pool, evaluating the vitae of applicants, and finally, narrowing the pool of candidates to a short list (often three to five candidates) for consideration by the hiring authority (Turner, 2002). This approach, however, can be catastrophic, missing opportunities to ensure a talented and diverse applicant is identified. A search committee keenly focused on identifying a diverse finalist pool needs to be intentional at each step, especially in the writing of the job description and deciding where to post the advertisement.

Search committees are formed by a hiring authority (e.g., chancellor, provost dean, or department chair) and should include individuals from "diverse backgrounds who may have helpful—and divergent—ideas that can enhance efforts to recruit and evaluate candidates" (Harvard University, 2016, p. 8). Scholars strongly suggest diversity in committee composition, as the diversification is more likely to generate a pool of applicants who are representative of a variety of backgrounds, cultures, and experiences (Bilimoria & Buch, 2010; Kayes, 2006; Lee, 2014; Turner, 2002). This can include women and people of color and individuals from different academic disciplines or specialties. Search committees can range in size from three members to nearly a dozen, particularly for higher level searchers; there is no specific number of members on a search committee.

Search committees typically have a chair or co-chair model, with the remaining members holding equal status as committee members. The search committee chair or co-chairs should have the "confidence and respect of colleagues, and have a record of

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conducting unit business with integrity, civility, and punctuality" (Indiana University, 2015, p. 6). Given search committee chairs are often peers with the other members outside of the process, these characteristics are important to the functioning of the group. The search committee chair is charged with setting a clear agenda and timeline, getting buy in from committee members, and then making sure the committee adheres to it (Harvard University, 2016). Otherwise, the search committee chair has the same review and assessment responsibilities as other committee members when it comes to reviewing the candidate pool.

The chair is also tasked with ensuring the review process is fair and consistent, while other times, this role is delegated to other members of the search committee. Given their role as gatekeepers, it is important for search committees to attend to issues of equity. Equity-minded (Bensimon, 2005) search committees are important because of the unique gatekeeping role search committees play for universities. Much of the responsibility to ensure a diverse pool of candidates applies and a diverse slate of qualified candidates is presented to the hiring authority is the responsibility of the search committee. It is the responsibility of university leaders and administrators to help search committees make more equitable hiring decisions by providing support and resources. Financial support can come in the form of providing resources so search committees can source candidates and advertise broadly. It is also important for universities to provide education and development to search committee members about how biases and perceptions can affect search decisions (Harvard University, 2016; Indiana University, 2015). As previously stated, it is my belief that bias and discrimination are, unfortunately, deeply woven into every aspect of society, academic institutions, and search processes.

Therefore, it is important for these assumptions to be interrogated and challenged at all stages of the search process, starting with the pre-search.

Pre-Search Launch

Preparing to launch a search is a crucial stage of the search process. As a general rule, position descriptions and advertisements should be intentionally constructed to attract the largest pool of qualified candidates as possible (Indiana University, 2015). The search committee, with guidance from the hiring authority and internal and external stakeholders, should develop the position announcement, being careful that, "highly specific language about professional pedigree, field specialization, and research focus could have the effect of discouraging viable applicants, this resulting in a smaller, less diverse pool" (p. 14). Search committees or institutions can also add the college or universities diversity and inclusion statement to job postings.

The development of the job posting is an overlooked step in ensuring individuals from minority backgrounds will see and apply for the job, be fairly considered for it, and ultimately hired into the position. Position descriptions are often written with specific criteria. If a job description is written with specific criteria about the pedigree of graduate institution, the number of applicants will be lower, even though there are otherwise qualified minoritized candidates. Additionally, research has shown women are less likely to apply for jobs unless they feel they meet 100% of a job's requirements, while men are more likely to apply if they think they meet at least 60% of the job's requirements (Brands & Fernandez-Mateo, 2017; Mohr, 2014). This leads to men being more likely to apply for leadership positions earlier in their career and continuing to pursue more advance leadership positions. Instead, position descriptions should avoid advertising a

role based on meeting an extensive list of previous experiences and instead focus on what competencies successful candidates need to achieve in the position.

Job posting systems can also be used to explicitly convey the competencies required for positions. These competencies should also be prominent in all recruitment materials and throughout the institutions hiring processes (Ottenritter, 2006). Federal requirements for affirmative action obligate a search committee to make a "good faith effort" to develop a talent pool reflecting the availability of people of color and women in the labor force (University of Cincinnati, 2014). Search committees need to be intentional to advertise positions in publications and outlets that target female and faculty members from minoritized backgrounds.

Sourcing Candidates

"The candidate sourcing process (soliciting applicants) is key to attracting qualified candidates, improving diversity in the applicant pool, and hiring the best candidate" (University of Cincinnati, 2014). Good candidate sourcing involves organizations' taking a proactive approach to finding qualified people, rather than relying on candidates to see a job posting and apply. This strategy is particularly important when trying to increase representational diversity. "Despite the tight academic market, the best candidates—the ones you want—have many good options. There may never really be a time when "post and pray" worked, but it certainly doesn't work now" (Harvard University, 2016, p. 8).

Rather, search committee members need to be proactive and actively recruit women and people of color (Hoffmeir, 2003). "Many highly qualified candidates have to be invited to apply, especially if they do not see themselves as a natural fit for [your

institution], your department, or [the] specific position" (Harvard University, 2016, p. 8).

Given leadership positions are often not specific to a specialty or discipline, sourcing can

be used across a variety of potential leadership positions.

Interview Process

During the interview process, leadership competencies should be assessed by

questions asked of the candidates. Search committees could use leadership competencies

to provide clear descriptions of the skill sets required for positions. With the focus on

assessment relative to the aforementioned competencies, candidates might be assessed

using structured interview questions and a standardized evaluation tool. This will

encourage interviewers to assess the candidates based on pre-established competencies,

rather than their own individual criteria or notions of what it means to be a leader. In turn,

this will help hiring authorities evaluate candidates based on the same criteria.

Standardized forms can be used both during the review of application materials and to

evaluate the candidate's interview. As previously mentioned, the remainder of the search

process, including the offer and negation stage were not covered in this study because

they involve the hiring authority and not the search committee.

Unconscious Bias in Higher Education Recruitment and Hiring

Unconscious bias is one dimension of a racialized and gendered social system,

including but not limited to racism, sexism, prejudice, discrimination, intolerance, and

stereotyping (Pitts, 2017). "Biases that we do not acknowledge but that persist,

unchallenged, in the recesses of our minds, undoubtedly shape our society" (Rudman,

2004, p. 130). Unconscious bias is inextricably woven into every search process, often to

the detriment of people of color and women. In March 2013, a U.S. Equal Employment

Opportunity Commission (EEOC) report identified, "unconscious bias and perceptions about African Americans" as one of the seven "major obstacles hindering equal opportunities for African Americans in the federal workforce" (EEOC, 2013). Despite training and awareness of unconscious bias, there continues to be a problem with how people of color and women are viewed by search committees. Given bias cannot be removed from the search process, I am interested in discovering if a leadership competency model can help mitigate the influence of bias, which is the central focus of this study.

Research that specifically addresses biases and the recruitment of women and people of color into university leadership positions specifically is even more limited. Research conducted by Beattie et al. (2013) examined the role of unconscious bias toward ethnic diversity in the evaluation of candidates under consideration during an academic search process. When participants were given curriculum vitae with photographs of White and non-White applicants, Beattie et al. (2013) observed "irrespective of ethnicity, participants across the sample held a moderate pro-White bias" (p. 193). This is not surprising, given biases and prejudices are engrained deeply in us.

Biases exist as challenges to search committees for leadership positions. Researchers (Beattie et al., 2013; Stewart & Perlow, 2001; Zeigart & Hanges, 2005) have found hiring is not "race blind." Both explicit and subtle forms of discrimination regularly occur in hiring decisions. As mentioned in the leadership section of this literature review, the expectations of leaders and search committees can bias them against excellent candidates. That is in part because what makes someone a strong candidate for a faculty position is not the same as what makes someone a good leader; however, search

committees may ascribe the same expectations, despite the difference in the responsibilities.

According to psychologist Joseph LeDoux (2003), bias is a natural and unavoidable physiological experience that serves as a "danger detector." Humans have a natural tendency to feel more comfortable with people who are like them; those who are similar in race, gender, religion, age, and many other characteristics. Bias allows humans to detect those who are not like them and make judgements about what or who is "safe" and what or who is not. Often this function of bias works in the favor of an individual and allows him or her to create general "rules" or "classifications" rather than approaching every situation or individual as novel.

Bias is influenced by one's background and identity. Additionally, individuals are aware of some of their biases. For example, a leader may believe employees from a certain university received the best training and develop a "bias" towards employees with a degree from that institution. This can cause individuals to look at the same thing, person, or project, and depending on their perspective, they might interpret it completely differently. It is as if everyone has their own pair of eyeglasses or contact lenses that have been shaped by their background and personal experiences. These lenses determine what others see and do not see in the world and how reality is interpreted.

Alternatively, an unconscious bias is a mental association without awareness, intention, or control (Harvard University, 2007). These biases cause us to behave or judge situations or people without being aware of doing so. Unconscious bias is not inherently good or bad, rather, it is a natural function of the human mind (Ross, 2015). However, recognizing unconscious bias helps individuals gain more insight into why they interpret

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and evaluate situations and individuals a particular way, and to make more conscious decisions.

These unconscious biases can often be in conflict with inidivual's conscious attitudes, behaviors, and intentions. Although most people are raised and taught to be good, caring, and honest individuals, implicit bias can sometimes cause an incongruence between values and belief systems and actions; the road to good intentions is paved with unconscious bias. When there is a disconnect between one's values and beliefs (e.g., treat everyone fairly regardless of race or sex) and one's unconscious bias (e.g. affinity bias, gender bias), this can cause cognitive dissonance (Van Ryn & Saha, 2011). This explains, in part, the fact that even though many search committee members and leaders have consciously worked on increasing the diversity and inclusion of U.S. institutions of higher education, they have not been as successful as they have hoped.

Research in social psychology shows that, "over time stereotypes and prejudices become invisible to those who rely on them" (Stone & Moskowitz, 2011, p. 768). This automatic categorization can unconsciously trigger thoughts (stereotypes) and feelings (prejudices), even if these reactions are explicitly denied and rejected. This suggests that, when activated, implicit negative attitudes and stereotypes can shape how search committee members and other leaders evaluate and interact with minority applicants. This creates differential views of what types of experiences and leadership characteristics or values are even noticed in a candidate.

Each search committee member brings a lifetime of experience and cultural history that shapes the evaluation process and creates non-conscious hypotheses (expectations or stereotypes) (University of Cincinnati, 2014). "If the use and impact of

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bias is not acknowledged and addresses, the process for recruitment, selection, and advancement can be flawed, resulting in some candidates being underestimated and/or disadvantaged unfairly, while others are inadvertently advantage" (p. 14). Workshops and trainings that help search committee members and other leaders learn about and become aware of their own biases can teach them skills that reduce bias when they interact with minoritized applicants. However, even when they are educated about their stereotypes and prejudices, bias can influence their evaluation of applicants. In fact, individuals rely on stereotypes and prejudices most when they are required to make a quick decision with little information (Devine, 1989; Groman & Ginsburg, 2004), which is often the case when making a hiring decision. Nevertheless, emerging research also reveals several strategies for reducing the activation and use of negative stereotypes and attitudes in judgement and interaction (Monteith et al., 2009). As such, training search committee members and other leaders in bias awareness can play an important role in reducing decisions made with implicit bias that result in minoritized applicants from being targeted in the writing and advertising of a posting, during the screening of the written materials, and in the final evaluation. Bias can be used in both quick decision-making (e.g., is this person or environment "safe?") and more obscure and deep-seated situations. The latter is the focus of this study. How, despite espoused commitments to diversity, both on the organization and individual level, do biases continue to hinder the hiring of women and people of color into leadership positions?

Given its biological foundation, it is impossible to eliminate biases completely. Instead, individuals must work to become aware them. As such, search committee members and other leaders must explore both why they have specific biases and how to

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navigate them. Not relying on instinct and "fit" is one possible option; instead using more objective measures, like a leadership competency tool will be explored in this study. The good news is there are strategies to mitigate the negative impact of biases on organizational decision-making. According to Ross (2013), the most important thing in learning about one's biases is accepting bias is natural and ever-present, and that people can learn to watch for it in themselves and help others to do the same. Additionally, it is important to develop skills to help make decisions more consciously. This is particularly important during the search and screen process if organizations hope to diversify and retain this talent. Bias may be as natural as breathing—and it may be impossible to completely eliminate—but by shifting one's mindset and inviting constant inquiry into how decisions are made, organizations can recruit and retain people of color and women into leadership positions.

Bias in the Search Process

There are things that can be done to mitigate the negative impact of biases on organizational decision making. By becoming aware of and accepting that we all have bias, we can learn to watch for it in ourselves and help others who work with us to do the same (Ross, 2015). This process of building awareness is particularly important during the search process, given the lack of information and quick pace at which decisions are made about candidates. Institutional policies and practices and individual beliefs may contribute to the discrimination of women and people of color. However, when search committee members and leaders are conscious of their own biases, they are less likely to blindly dictate their decisions. Despite organizations' and individuals' commitments to diversifying the candidate pool, seemingly small decisions or omissions can have drastic

consequences during the search and screen process particularly for candidates who are people of color and women. Further, at the level of university leader, several real and perceived barriers continue to exist due to how positions are written and announced and how applications are screened.

In fact, implicit bias plays a role in nearly every search process, often to the detriment of people of color and women. More specifically, researchers found in an organizational climate with racial bias present, implicit racism and bias was more likely to surface in the search process (Ziegert & Hanges, 2005). Consequently, simply having a name that sounds Black can reduce the chance of getting an interview, according to a study conducted by researchers at MIT and the University of Chicago (Bertrand & Mullainathan, 2004). This research showed this phenomenon is true even at organizations actively recruiting for candidates from diverse backgrounds. Similar trends have been identified in virtually every aspect of the talent management and recruiting system. For example, another study from the University of Warsaw found women described with feminine job titles (e.g., "chairwoman") are perceived (by men) to be significantly less warm and marginally less competent than women with masculine job titles (Budziszewska et al., 2014). As a result, men in this study reported they were less likely to hire these women.

However, safeguards can be put in place around many aspects of talent management including recruiting, interviewing, hiring, promoting, and performance reviews. In this research, I focused specifically on the recruitment and interview stages of the search and screen process. In addition to attending workshops and trainings, it is important for individuals engaged in the search and screening of candidates to engage in

self-reflection about their own biases. Ross (2015) suggested a series of reflective

questions search committee members and leaders can ask themselves:

- "Does this person's resume remind you in any way about yourself?"

- "Does it remind you of somebody you know? Is that positive or negative?"

- "Are there things about the resume that particularly influence your

    impression? Are they really relevant to the job?"

Questions like these can help individuals to consider if their biases are affecting how they

are rating or evaluating a particular candidate. If a member finds he or she has a bias

(either positive or negative) toward a candidate, he or she can pause, consider what

informs this bias, and restart reviewing that candidate's materials from the beginning. For

example, if a candidate comes from an academic program the reviewer knows someone

else came from and that person was not knowledgeable or competent, in their opinion, the

reviewer is likely going to have a negative bias. Search committees can also commit to

engaging in regular and ongoing conversations about individual's biases throughout the

search process—from drafting the posting to the final search committee meeting where a

decision is made regarding who to suggest to the hiring authority. This is important

because researchers such as Ehrlinger et al. (2005) and Pronin et al. (2004) have found

individuals believe they have few biases and that their biases will not affect their ability

to make an objective judgement.

Similarly, adding structures and systems into the search process can also assist in

reducing the effect of implicit bias from search committee members and leaders.

"Research shows that the traditional job interview is a poor indication of a candidate's

potential. However, when search committees structure the interview process, they are

more effective at predicting success, forming consistent evaluations, and reducing discrimination" (Brecher et al., 2006, p.155). One way this can be done is by creating a uniform structure to the screening process as this creates consistency. Researchers (Bragger et al., 2002) have found the use of a structured interviewing process, in which questions are consistent across candidates, has been found to reduce bias relative to unstructured interviews.

Another way to use systems as a check and balance is for an organization to look across multiple searches to pinpoint places in the system where breakdowns are occurring. For example, if people of color and women are not applying for leadership positions, there may be an issue about the sourcing. On the other hand, if the majority of people of color and women do not make it past the review of curriculum vitae and other written material, there may be unintended bias on behalf of the search committee members during the screening (Steinpreis, Anders, & Ritzke, 1999). Again, this can and does happen despite a commitment to hiring more diverse candidates. Similar metrics can be used post-hire to examine the percentage of faculty leaders who are still at the institution one or five years later, and the percentage who have been promoted.

Leadership Competencies

Until recently, there have not been any widely accepted leadership competencies to evaluate potential university leaders. Specifically, within academic medicine Mallon and Buckley (2012) found there was a gap in identifying leadership competencies. In fact, often "search committees lack clarity regarding expectations for members, selection criteria, and even the search process itself" (Palmer et al., 2015, p. 426).

Researchers (Bryman, 2007; Creswell et al., 1990) have identified a number of leadership behaviors that demonstrate effectiveness of a department leader: strategic direction, being considerate, being trustworthy and having personal integrity, and good communication, among others. However, no single competency model has been agreed upon. Next, I highlight a competency model that has been used by search committees to evaluate candidates for leadership positions in academic medicine.

Academic Medicine Leadership Competency Model

Academic medicine, often considered a niche area within higher education, did not have a clear set of competencies against which to evaluate leaders until the past few years (Mallon & Buckley, 2012; Palmer et al., 2015). Instead, Palmer et al. (2015) found "candidates are often still judged primarily on the strength of their academic credentials on the basis of the assumption that the skills that lead to being a well-funded, tenured, high-ranking faculty member will translate into being an effective [leader]" (p. 425). These authors identified six key leadership competencies: leadership and team development; performance and talent management; vision and strategic planning; emotional intelligence; communication skills; and, a commitment to the tripartite mission. Given this model was developed within the academic medicine context, this included education, research, and patient care (sometimes considered service in other institutions). Since the initial review of applicants included a rigorous evaluation of their academic credentials (e.g., research, funding), these metrics were not included in this competency-based model.

A question emerges: why are candidates for university leadership positions selected on the "thickness of their CV"—success in research, external funding,

publications, service, and teaching (Palmer, et al., 2015) rather than their ability to demonstrate competency in leadership? The search committee must go beyond finding "the best faculty member" to looking for "the best leader." This means starting at the recruitment stage, asking candidates to address the competencies as early as their letter of interest to having search committees use these competencies during each stage of the candidate evaluation (Palmer et al., 2015).

Chapter Summary

In this literature review, I addressed what is known in the literature about leadership in general as well as within the context of higher education. Next, I detailed the leadership search process in higher education and offered a review of the literature on bias in higher education recruitment and hiring. Finally, I concluded with a review of leadership competency models and a competency-based approach to recruitment in academic medicine (Palmer et al., 2015). The current body of work has used a variety of methods, including simulated evaluations and online surveys of search committee members who have served on search committees, to determine the effects of unconscious bias in search and screen process. However, there is still a void in the literature regarding the use of leadership competencies to help mitigate the role of unconscious bias in the search and screen process of university leaders.

CHAPTER THREE: STUDY DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

My dissertation provides an understanding of how search committee members constructed their views of leadership and how the views held by these individuals influenced the behaviors and outcomes of the search I examined. In this chapter, I detail the methods I implemented to achieve this goal. First, I present important theoretical considerations, giving special attention to the constructivism paradigm. Second, I discuss my positionality and bias and its influence in my research project. Third, I outline my study's research design and case selection. Specifically, I used a case study approach to examine constructions of leadership within an executive search process in academic medicine. Fourth, I draw attention to the setting of my study. Fifth, I write about the population and provide summaries of the participants in my study. Sixth, I explain my data collection strategies, including a description of my observations, semi-structured interviews, and document analysis. Finally, I discuss trustworthiness. Generally, the methodology chapter provides theoretical considerations and the practical steps I used to conduct my dissertation research study.

The following research questions guided this study:

- How do members of an executive search committee construct their views of leadership?

- In what ways do the individual, social, and cultural constructions of leadership held by search committee members influence behaviors and outcomes of a search committee?

The recruitment process is especially vague, nebulous, and indeterminate and can be shrouded in secrecy. Qualitative research involves real-world situations of a natural

uncontrolled environment (Patton, 2002). By examining particular recruitment exercises as they actually happen, in a naturalistic setting, and at every stage of the process, this study provided the researcher with detailed qualitative data on a recruitment process for a higher education leader. In this study, I investigated how members of a search committee constructed their views of leadership and in turn how this influenced the search process for an executive leader. In order to explore this issue, this study is approached through the constructivism paradigm and informed by critical inquiry, using case study methodology and employing semi-structured interviews, observations, and document analysis as means of collecting data for the study (Ahmed, 2012; van Manen, 1990).

The Constructivism Paradigm

Scholars using a constructivism approach view reality as pluralistic, simultaneously co-created and socially constructed (Mertens, 2015). The basic epistemological assumption guiding the constructivist paradigm is that "knowledge is socially constructed by people active in the research process" (Mertens, 2015, p. 16) and researchers should attempt to understand the complex world of lived experience from the point of view of those who live it (Schwandt, 2000). In other words, individuals generate knowledge and meaning from an interaction between their experiences and their ideas. Furthermore, this worldview suggests knowledge is based within the current context of the world with its multiple perspectives of class, race, gender, and other affiliations involved in the construction of multiple realities (Creswell, 1998). It also recognizes the racist and sexist context of institutions of higher education and the power differential that exists between people of color and women compared to White men, of which I am one. Also, alternate constructions of reality do not constitute absolute truth; instead, they

provide alternate and more informed realities for individuals or groups holding those

constructions (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). The social conditions identified by this paradigm

acknowledge the importance of different discourses and marginalized people and groups

in attempting to reveal suppressed hierarchies, dominations, and contradictions (Creswell,

1998) that exist during the recruitment and selection process of a new university leader.

Furthermore, counterstories also have a valid destructive function (Delgado & Stefancic,

2012). In other words, sharing the experiences and lived experiences of people of color

and women can challenge the dominant and hegemonic White male perspective.

Researcher Positionality and Bias

Before I describe my methods for this study, I am compelled to acknowledge my

own positionality and bias. As a White male exploring this phenomenon, my perspectives

on race and gender create a bias that will without question factor in the analysis. Janesick

(2000) pointed out that "qualitative researchers accept the fact that research is

ideologically driven. There is no value-free or bias-free design" (p. 385). Therefore, as a

White male who is captivated by the interactions that take place in university leadership,

and who believes racism and sexism are inextricably part and parcel of the American

experience, I bring certain biases to this research.

Regardless, my lived experience is still that of a White man. I have lived most of

my life in the Midwest of the United States. I have been in the majority in nearly every

organization I have been a part of and community I have lived in. Growing up I attended

a predominately White school and all of my teachings were White. In fact, it was not

until my doctoral education that I can remember an educator of color. Growing up, I was

taught my accomplishments in life were because of the person I am, because I "worked

hard," not because of the color of my skin. I have since learned of the many advantages I receive due to my Whiteness. Acknowledging my Whiteness as a researcher means, in part, disrupting the notion that there is only one standard of a successful leader. It also influences how I see my participants and make sense of their experiences and the data. Therefore, I must acknowledge the lens in which I see the world and this study is influenced by my Whiteness and take active steps to raise my own awareness.

According to Peshkin (1988), acknowledging ones' own subjectivity—in this case how my implicit biases are influenced by my identity as a White male—provides the researcher with knowledge of how their personal qualities are revealed through contact with the research phenomenon. In this study, my identity influenced how data was interpreted and what meaning is made of these data. Additionally, acknowledging my personal biases provides readers with information necessary to properly interpret my findings.

One bias that I hold is influenced by my own background. I identify as a White, cis-gender, male who is gay. Because my identity as gay is not always immediately visible to others, I do not feel I am often immediately judged based on this identity, unless I self-disclose it. I often have the privilege, even with this minoritized identity, when to choose to disclose my sexual orientation. Although this comes with its own set of challenges of being authentic, I can often make the choice to come out based on if I deem an environment to be safe or others are welcoming. Throughout my life I have been discriminated in personal and professional settings based on my identity as a gay male. However, even when I do come out, I acknowledge my White male identity often still gives me a particular set of privileges. As I reflect on my own experience in the job

search process, I know I have been afforded job opportunities given my identity as a White male. As I engaged in this study, it was particularly important for me to remember I have not experienced discrimination due to my identity during the job search process, to my knowledge.

Another bias I have is that I expected race and gender to play a role in the perceived leadership effectiveness—with people of color and women generally being evaluated lower than White men. I believed this would happen universally, including by people of color and women on the search committees, but would be stronger by White men. My awareness to these issues has been heightened through my PhD studies in urban education. As the only White male in my PhD cohort and one of the only White men in my doctoral program, I am conscious to listen to the voices and perspectives of others, particularly about their lived experiences. In order to center the voices of the participants, I tried to suspend my preconceived ideas or expectations for the study. One way I did this was by having two other people, another White man and a White woman, read and code half of the redacted transcripts. Knowing many of the themes would be gendered, I was intentional that one of the people I asked to help with coding and making sense of themes was a woman. Although many of the codes and themes we found were similar, there were some difference in what we each picked up.

Additionally, it is important to acknowledge I held multiple positions within the context of my project, because I work and study at the same institution used for the context of this study. As such, I had a unique and pre-existing relationship with some of the members on the search committee and with others involved in the search process. Additionally, this insider status allowed me to understand the local context albeit with

potential blind spots. Remaining conscious of my personal biases and positionality was essential throughout this study.

Research Design and Case Selection

This study employed a case study design, which is a type of qualitative analysis. Yin (1994) specifically emphasized using case study methodology to investigate contextual conditions. Case study also relies on multiple sources of evidence. In this case study, I used interviews as the main source of data collection, while observations and document analysis provided me additional context and understanding to the search. The case in this study is meant to be heuristic in nature. According to Clegg and Sliefe (2009), the constructivist paradigm grew out of phenomenology and hermeneutics. Another hallmark of heuristic studies is the researcher has an interest in the phenomenon being studied (Patton, 2002), which I do. As a White male who studies leadership and inequities, I am particularly interested in why many White males do not acknowledge or talk about biases related to race and gender in the search and selection of leaders.

Case study methodology allowed me to gain a deeper understanding to the influences of race and gender in this search and the utility of leadership competencies to mitigate the role of bias in the search process.

> Case study research is an investigative approach used to thoroughly describe complex phenomena. . . in was to unearth new and deeper understandings of these phenomena. Specifically, this methodology focuses on the concept of case, the particular example or instance from a class or group of events, issues, or programs, and how people interact with components of these phenomena. (Moore et al., 2012, pp. 243-244)

Using case study methodology also allowed for simultaneous investigation into the context and other variables that might play a role in order to provide a deeper understanding of the forces at work. Therefore, I argue, the multiple realities that exist for

university leaders—and those on search committees and other leaders who are evaluating them—are best examined using case study methodology.

Prior to this study, I was already immersed in the culture and had "local knowledge," having worked at the university for eight years (Geertz, 1983). I use similar language in daily interactions with faculty and leaders, because I have a shared understanding of how the university works and a history of events. This history and shared knowledge gave me some perspective in how faculty members and leaders communicate and interact. The search committee members were more likely to act normally in front of me during observations due to my status, and the addition of local knowledge allowed me to ask specific questions and have a certain understanding that an outside researcher may not know to inquire about or in a manner that elicits the best response. On the other hand, this insider status could mean I did not notice or give my attention to certain aspects during the search.

Generalizing to other institutions experiencing this phenomenon is not the goal of this research. Rather, as Stake (1995) stated, "case study research is not sampling research. We do not study a case primarily to understand other cases. Our first obligation is to understand this one case" (p. 4). The case in this study was selected specifically to understand the particular case in depth, not to find out what is generally true about university leadership level searches. As a result, this research was not an attempt to create a generalizable model of racial or gender leadership, but rather an effort to discern the situational truth of the case and describe it fully, so applications may be made to other cases with similar patterns.

Setting

The setting for this research study was a mid-size public institution in the Midwest that primarily serves undergraduate students with some graduate coexistence (The Carnegie Classification of Institutions of Higher Education, n. d.). The institution has selective admission standards. Within the institution, this study took place within the institution's medical school, which is the largest medical school in the United States (Association of American Medical Colleges, 2019).

Leadership Competency Model

The School of Medicine where this search occurred utilizes a leadership competency model for the recruitment and development of executive leaders. Palmer et al. (2015) developed a competency-based approach, which was used in this particular search. The model has six leadership competencies: leadership and team development, performance and talent management, vision and strategic planning, emotional intelligence, communication skills, and commitment to the tripartite mission.

In the search I examined, this leadership competency model was firmly embedded into all aspects of the search process and the tools used as a part of it. Palmer et. al (2015) state they developed this model because, "chair candidates are often still judged primarily on the strength of their academic credentials on the basis of the assumption that the skills that lead to being a well-funded, tenured, high-ranking faculty member will translate into being an effective department chair" (p. 425). Further, Hoffmeir (2003) found this can lead to a precarious outcome: department chairs who are selected because of their reputation within their discipline, rather than their leadership skills.

In an effort to improve the recruitment process, the School of Medicine implemented a number of changes to their executive search process to identify talented leaders, improve efficiencies, and reduce bias:

- Clarified staff and faculty roles of the search members and added an assistant or associate dean from the faculty affairs office as a co-chair on each search committee to ensure the integrity of the process.

- Created greater consistency in the search committee size and composition. Specifically, limiting search committees to nine members, including the co-chairs and one to three members from the department—all of whom are selected by the dean, with input from the faculty affairs office and his executive leadership cabinet. Committee members were selected as much for their capability to identify leaders as for which stakeholder group they represent.

- Practices, such as communication templates, a committee member code of conduct, and the hiring authority's charge guidelines were all standardized.

- Minimizing the potential impact of unconscious bias through the interview process. The interviews in this search used structured interview questions and committee members were assigned to ask the same quest during each interview. Each question was mapped to a leadership competency and labeled as such on the list of questions, so committee members knew what they questioned was intended to elicit. All evaluation rubrics (e.g. review of candidate materials, interviews) were based on the leadership competency model. All committee members were asked to view the Association of American Medical Colleges (2010) Analysis in Brief (Corrine, 2009).

Data Collection Strategies

The data were primarily collected through interviews. Direct observation and document analysis allowed me greater understanding of the case and to ask probing questions to my participants. All data collection strategies and instruments were approved by the university's Institutional Review Board (IRB).

The main source of data for my study was interviews. For this, members of the search committees were interviewed. After the committee's charge meeting, I sent each committee member and the hiring authority an e-mail invitation to participate in an individual semi-structured interview (Appendix A). All participants who participated in an interview signed a consent form prior to participation in the study (Appendix B). During the interviews I asked committee members about topics such as their views of leadership and if they believed those views influenced their behaviors and outcomes of the search. The interview protocol (Appendix C) was piloted with three individuals who had recently participated in an executive search. These data were used to refine the interview protocol, but data collected during the pilot was not a part of the findings of this study since participants participated in a different search and this particular case study is based on one particular search. All members of the search committee were interviewed, including four women and one male person of color, which allowed for triangulation of perspectives. Interviews with the person of color and women helped me address any blind spots I may have had as an insider and White man, despite intentions to be consciously attentive to all issues during data collection and analysis.

Additionally, I actively listened and reflected on my understanding of participants' responses throughout the interview. This method helped to ensure the

credibility and conformability of my study's results, while allowing for a deeper and better understanding of my participants (Dimock, 2001). The credibility of my results refers to the concept that my findings match the participant's perceptions, while the conformability refers to the fact my data matches the focus of my inquiry rather than the researcher's preconceived notions or beliefs (Rossman & Rallis 2003).

The interview questions were designed as probes to encourage participants to reflect on their beliefs about leadership. It was my goal to explore and elicit how search committee members constructed their views of leadership. The questions were also designed to determine how these views of leadership influenced the behaviors and outcomes of the search. The interview protocol was divided into three sections: information about the participant's background; how individual search committee members constructed their views of leadership; and, how these constructions of leadership influenced the behaviors and outcomes of a search committee, including how they evaluated the candidates. Due to the nature of these questions, the individual search committee members were best suited to answer these questions.

All interviews were conducted in private settings. In an effort to be flexible and make the participants comfortable, I allowed them to choose the location of the interview. In all cases, the participants had private offices and asked to meet there. Allowing the research participants to choose how the interview was facilitated empowered them and encouraged more honest responses, since they were presumably comfortable in their own offices. Each interview was scheduled for one hour to allow enough time to fully discuss the questions. Given the reflective nature of the interview protocol, my hope was the interviews were constructed in such a way that made my participants gain as much as I

did from the process (Rossman & Rallis 2003). The participants were given a summary of the transcription for post-member checking. The participants were asked to make revisions solely if any factual corrections were needed. Member checking is a process in which the researcher checks with the participants to ensure that the interview data accurately described their perspectives. The goal was to ensure the interview results were both trustworthy and authentic.

Direct observation allowed me to better understand the context of the study. Although observations were not a formal method, observing allowed me to understand the natural contexts with which search committee members interact and was essential to understanding the details of the search as well as participants feeling comfortable with me. This intimate understanding of the search allowed me to ask probing questions during my interviews. Due to the sensitive nature of the study topic and the fact that observational evidence is often valuable in supplying additional information about the topic being studied (Adler & Adler, 1994; Yin, 1994), observation of study participants interacting with each other was a crucial part for this study. Participant observation, which requires the assumption of some type of role within the case study setting, such as an active participant in events (Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2006; Stake, 1995; Yin, 1994), is not appropriate for this study.

Field observations were conducted by attending search committee meetings. I took notes while observing the search committee, but due to the sensitivity of the conversations and to respect the expectation of privacy these observations were not recorded. I attempted to counter any observer effect at meetings by being as unobtrusive as possible, so that what took place in my presence did not differ significantly from what

would have happened in my absence (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998). I believe my prolonged presence with the search committees, being a member of the university community, and my prior relationship with some individuals on the committees helped participants feel they could maintain their normal behavior (Adler & Adler, 1994), because it was crucial for me to observe participants' unfiltered comments and evaluations of candidates.

Finally, relevant documents (e.g., the committee member's comments about candidates) were mined for information. This occurred after all interviews and observations were complete and helped confirm or enhance the evidence gained through interviews and observations. Documents can be used to corroborate information from other sources (Yin, 1994). This method complemented the interviews and was used to triangulate findings, providing a more complete picture.

No major risks were anticipated for participants in this study. Allowing the participants to arrange the time and location of the interviews reduced inconvenience. Search committee members were told that participation in the interview was completely voluntary and they could decide not to participate without explanation. Each participant was informed prior to the start of the interview session they could refuse to answer any question, talk about any topic, or end the interview session whenever they wish.

Confidentiality was addressed by keeping participants' identities anonymous. Asking these participants to give their perspectives about leadership within the sensitive context of an executive leadership search had the potential to make participants feel vulnerable, particularly if they possessed unpopular beliefs and were bluntly honest about them. As a counteractive measure, each study participant was assigned a pseudonym. Other demographics and identifying information about participants were also masked

where appropriate. Hence, only limited information was provided in the participants

section. Only the researcher had access to the actual names and contact information of the

participants. All confidential information was stored and will subsequently be destroyed

in accordance to the procedures outlined by the institutional review board that approved

this study. To my knowledge, participants did not perceive any type of coercion to

participate in the study. Rather, it is my hope they gained some therapeutic benefit from

narrating their stories and experienced satisfaction from contributing to research.

Data Analysis

Qualitative data can be analyzed in a variety of ways. Meloy (2002) described

qualitative analysis as the process of organizing data in a manner that develops clear and

distinct themes. Prior to data analysis, I reviewed all interview transcripts, notes from the

interviews and observations, and documents related to the evaluation of candidates.

Additionally, I revisited the purpose of the study and the research questions. I had the

research questions posted so they were constantly visible and could be referenced

throughout the analysis process. These steps helped improve researcher familiarity of the

study and the data prior to beginning data analysis (Creswell, 2003).

After interviews were conducted, each audio recording was transcribed and

verified. Transcribing was initially done with the transcription service Temi and then I

cleaned and verified each transcript. Verification of the transcript involved reviewing all

transcripts with the original audio recording and correcting errors as a means of insuring

accuracy. Verifying transcripts was done before any coding took place.

After verification of the transcripts was complete, I analyzed and interpreted

them. Specially, I used the qualitative software package ATLAS.ti to store data and assist

in my analysis. Through a process of thematic analysis, a variety of themes emerged. I also used the ATLAS.ti software to scan transcriptions for thematic patterns, develop a coding taxonomy, apply the emergent thematic codes, and tag the data for retrieval and display. I then read and reread the data to look for particular codes, leading to the creation of themes (Huberman & Miles, 1994). As previously mentioned, half of the transcripts were shared with two others who also helped code the data. I developed consistent coding procedures to ensure all the information was accurately and correctly interpreted, including providing the research questions to both individuals. Together, we talked about the data, including potential themes and findings. We analyzed the data by identifying the themes that emerged from the raw data, a process sometimes referred to as "open coding," rather than examining individual words or sentences (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). During open coding, I began by identifying and tentatively naming the conceptual categories into which the phenomena observed could be grouped. The goal was to create descriptive categories, which formed a preliminary framework for analysis. I grouped phrases or topics that appeared to be similar into the same category. These categories were gradually modified during the subsequent stages of analysis that followed. The next stage of analysis involved a re-examination of the categories identified to determine how they were linked, a process called "axial coding" (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). The categories identified in open coding were compared and combined as I assembled the "big picture" of the case study. Finally, I mapped themes to my research questions.

These themes were found by "bringing together components or fragments of ideas or experiences, which often are meaningless when viewed alone" (Leininger, 1985 p. 60). According to Patton (2002), qualitative research is grounded in thick, rich description,

which "forms the bedrock of all qualitative reporting" (p. 438). First proposed by Geertz (1973), the concept of thick description was designed to promote deep and substantial interpretations, thus immersing the readers in the experience and setting (as cited in Patton, 2002). However, endless description is not the same as thick descriptions and is not useful in presenting a powerful narrative (Janesick, 2000); therefore, the intent is to report salient themes. It must also be noted that description differs from interpretation, which explains the findings and answers the questions raised in the data (Patton, 2002). Creswell (2003) indicated the "final step in data analysis involves making an interpretation of the data. . . a meaning derived from a comparison of the findings with the information gleaned from the literature" (p. 195).

Observation notes and document analysis were used to complete my analysis. Once all interviews were analyzed and themes were identified, I reviewed my observation notes to find if what I observed confirmed or contradicted what participants told me during their interview. Although the main purpose of the observations was to gain a better understanding of the search, there were some observations that helped inform my analysis. Similarly, the document analysis helped to confirm or expand on findings identified from the interview transcripts.

Trustworthiness

Several authors have articulated the importance that multiple methods of data collection, or triangulation, can play in ensuring validity in qualitative research (Berg, 2001; Glesne, 1999; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Silvermann, 2001). Triangulation refers to the use of multiple sources and methods for collecting data such as interviews, observations, and document analysis (Creswell, 1998). Lincoln and Guba (1985)

identified three components to ensuring trustworthiness in qualitative inquiry: credibility, transferability, and confirmability. Given the limited scope of a single case study design, it was important results and conclusions, while unique to this particular case, were trustworthy as they contribute to the larger body of scholarship. Credibility was confirmed through prolonged engagement during data collection. In this study, I engaged in nine individual interviews with members of the search committee. Additionally, I conducted three observations, which helped me to better understand the search and participants. Given the situational uniqueness, transferability is limited and not the focus of qualitative research or a case study. However, thick descriptions help me to make explicit connections to the contexts surrounding data collection. Confirmability is established though triangulation (Guba & Lincoln, 1995). Although the information gathered during the interviews was valuable, the observations and document analysis allowed for me to triangulate and confirm what I found in the interviews. Interspersing the interviews and observations allowed me to use one to inform the next.

Chapter Summary

Via case study, I examined how members of an executive search committee constructed their views of leadership and in what ways their views of leadership influenced the behaviors and outcomes of one search. All eight members of the search committee and the hiring authority agreed to participate in semi-structured interviews and be observed. I transcribed the interview data and then conducted data analysis of the qualitative data. Additionally, I described how I worked to ensure trustworthiness and provide participant's safeguards. Chapter Four contains findings from my research. Chapter Five includes implications of this research and concludes the dissertation.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH FINDINGS

In this chapter, I present two main thematic findings emerging from the data collection and analysis presented in the prior chapter. These themes map back to my research questions:

- How do members of an executive search committee construct their views of leadership?

- In what ways do the individual and societal constructions of leadership held by search committee members influence the behaviors and outcomes of a search?

In this research project, I examined one executive-level search committee and the findings are limited to explaining this particular case. Nonetheless, through these findings I offer an understanding of the individual and social and cultural constructions of leadership and how search committee members evaluate candidates for leadership positions.

My primary goal in Chapter Four is to enable the reader to understand how search committee members' constructions of leadership influenced the outcomes of this particular search. To achieve this goal, I include several interview quotes from my semi-structured interviews as I present my research findings and describe this case study. Although the primary role of the observations and document analysis was to provide context for the interviews with participants, data from these sources helped to punctuate my findings. I present my study's research findings in a way that shows both what the participants have in common as they experienced this search as well as unique aspects of individual participant's experiences.

Study Participants

A total of nine individuals participated in this study. All participants were employed by the institution where the search occurred and were members of the search committee for the case being studied. The entire group of eight search committee members and the hiring authority participated in this study. I provide a brief description of each participant (see Table 1), identifying each with a pseudonym. I use pseudonyms in the table and throughout my dissertation and mask other identifying factors (e.g., medical specialty and position at the institution) in an effort to ensure the anonymity of the participants.

Four women and five men participated in my study. One of the men identified as Black; he was the only participant in my study who did not identify as White. Table 1 also illustrates the participants' educational credentials including four PhDs and five MDs. Academic credentials were important to note because, in general, these individuals received drastically different training and socialization to academic medicine. Additionally, in this search, the hiring authority included in his charge to the committee the leader for this position would need to be a physician. I have included their role on the search committee, since that was important for how participants saw themselves in this case and how I organized my findings. In the next section, I introduce the study participants and provide insight into each person.

Table 1:
Participants' Characteristics

Pseudonym	Sex	Race	Role on search committee	Degree
Alex	Male	White	Hiring authority	MD
Brandon	Male	Black/African American	Member	PhD
Cori	Female	White	Co-Chair	PhD
Jillian	Female	White	Co-Chair	MD
Jordan	Male	White	Member	MD
Liam	Male	White	Member	PhD
Lisa	Female	White	Member	MD
Olivia	Female	White	Member	PhD
Robert	Male	White	Member	MD

Alex

Of the members of the committee, Alex was the newest person to the institution, being hired just two years prior. He did not talk as much as others about his background, but he did share several examples about how previous executive searches shaped the way he viewed this search and his role on it. As the hiring authority, Alex gave the search committee their charge, but was otherwise not at the interviews or committee deliberations I observed, with few exceptions. Occasionally, Alex would attend the end of deliberations at the airport interviews. I interviewed Alex after all other observations and interviews were conducted to get his sense of how the search committee did, from his perspective.

Brandon

Brandon was the one person of color on the search committee. As such, it was important in the data analysis to pay particular attention to some of the nuanced experiences and perspectives he shared. During our interview, Brandon spoke about how his graduate training and professional experience shaped his views about leadership. He shared:

> when you look at organizations that are transformational and truly have this great impact they focus on bilateral decision-making or group thinking. They promote a culture of risk taking. They embed practices and beliefs into policy and living documents like a mission, vision, and strategic plan. Then, finally they ask, why are we being constrained by these variables.

It was clear from the interview he had significant experience and training in leadership development. He also credited his professional experience outside of academic medicine for helping to shape his views about leadership, stating many people in academic medicine tend to cite the same authors and studies. His broad professional experience meant he was familiar with leadership development literature and practices outside of academic medicine.

It is important to acknowledge that Brandon was the only member of the search committee who had a reporting relationship with the hiring authority. Although he did not directly report to the hiring authority. Additionally, I had a previous professional relationship with Brandon. Specifically, we had worked together on various projects. Both of these relationship dynamics likely influenced both his views of the hiring authority and his willingness to speak opening during the interview. Additionally, he stated he knew the majority of the search committee members, which was not true for many of the other members. He explained, "because I hold an office that is involved in

the central administration, I interact with a lot of the stakeholders." Although Brandon was the only non-White committee member, topics of race did not explicitly emerge during the interview, even when I specifically asked him.

Cori

Cori had extensive experience both serving on and co-chairing executive searches. In speaking about the executive search process she shared:

> It is hard for me to see this work without seeing myself in it, right? Because I've been involved with it for so long. It's such an important part of my development as a leader and a scholar. I see this as one of the most important things we have done as a team to improve the institution is by choosing really good leaders.

Perhaps because of this, she was the only participant to cite the leadership competencies adopted by the school for executive searches. In addition to the leadership competencies, Cori also referenced the influence of her graduate training and professional experience in shaping her views about leadership. She was the only person to talk about an awareness of her Whiteness. Cori also studied organizational leadership and education systems in her graduate training. Additionally, Cori and I had worked together for almost five years at the time of the interview.

Jillian

Jillian was the only participant in a position that reported directly to the Dean on the search committee and as such had the most senior position within the medical school, notwithstanding Alex's role. Although a medical doctor, Jillian had significant leadership

experience and training and held a variety of progressively higher leadership positions in academic medicine. She did not talk about her personal background during the interview.

Jordan

Jordan had a long tenure with the institution and had been in a leadership position for many years. Jordan spent the most time talking about his background, both professional and personal. Jordan shared he was the first in his family to attend college or to become a physician. He also spoke about growing up in a lower social-economic-status. For example, he shared:

> I grew up poor. I grew up with a divorced family, handicapped mother that couldn't work . . . . I'm the first kid in my family to ever go to college. First kid from my high school to ever go to an Ivy league school.

Playing high school and college sports were pivotal in his ability to access higher education. Jordan said, "I didn't even know what an Ivy league school was until the coach showed up at my high school." Additionally, sports played a foundational role in his view of leadership. Throughout the interview, he referred to his various coaches and the lessons he learned from them and playing on a team. He said:

> I don't care how good you are that without the other people all working in the same direction, you will never achieve your potential. It is important for an effective leader to understand you will ride the wave with everyone else, but you're not going to ride any wave if you don't have everyone else there with you. If you don't build a group that is talented and motivated and buys in to what the vision is.

The other theme that surfaced during my interview with Jordan was the importance of relationships. With almost every response or example, he shared a story about how his relationship with someone helped him with the task or situation at hand.

Liam

Liam was the only basic science researcher on the committee and he was also a representative of the unit searching for a new leader. In fact, he will report to the person being recruited in this search. Given his tenure of more than 20 years with the unit, he often discussed the changes he has observed with the unit and the school. Liam did not talk at all about his personal background, but did refer to his professional background as a researcher informing his views about leadership.

Lisa

Lisa was a community physician and spent most of her time working clinically. She also had a faculty appointment with the School of Medicine and worked with learners who come through her medical practice. When asked why she was on the search committee Lisa said, "My hope is to have a bigger faculty role here. I had more of a faculty role where I was before." Although she did not have formal training in leadership, she spoke about the various books she had read and was able to speak fluently about leadership, including citing specific books, authors, and leadership theories.

Olivia

Olivia's graduate training included both the study of medicine and education. She also referenced her formal training in leadership. For example, when I asked about characteristics of an effective leader she articulated, "I mean these are sort of the things I teach." When Oliva described her background, she did not elaborate on her personal or professional background other than her degree and what brought her to the institution 15 years ago. At the time of the interview, I had worked with Oliva for about three years.

Robert

In addition to being a physician, Robert had earned a master's degree in business Administration (MBA) and is a chief executive of a hospital affiliated with the School of Medicine. Robert explained that he viewed himself both as an academic and an administrator. He said, "up until this job I spent my whole career in academic medical centers. So, I think I'm kind of the academic bridge." Additionally, Robert was a third-generation physician. Robert spoke both of his business acumen and training in leadership.

Central to the success of my study was all members of the search committee agreeing to participate in the observation portion of my study. Thankfully, all members of the search committee and the hiring authority agreed to be observed and participate in individual interviews. Furthermore, several participants expressed that participating in the interview portion of this study was helpful for them to reflect on theirs views of leadership and role on this search committee. Candidates of the search process were secondary participants as I observed them during their job interviews. I am incredibly thankful for the willingness and vulnerability all of my participants shared with me.

Finding One: The Role of Background and Identity on Views of Leadership

The first major theme of my research is that the background of the search committee members influenced how they constructed their views of leadership. As described in Chapter Two, leadership is an individual and social construction. Furthermore, women and people of color view leadership differently and, they are viewed differently when considered to be a leader. Participants most notably had varied experiences based on gender. Variations by race may have appeared if the committee had

more racial diversity. In general, the male participants explained their background in greater detail and were more confident about their own leadership compared to the female participants. As noted, my study had only one participant who was a person of color; however, I expect I would have found more significant themes in regard to race had more participants been people of color. I did find some differences in how applicants of color were discussed and evaluated differently than White male candidates. Still, a salient theme across all of the participants' experiences was that their background shaped how they viewed leadership. In detailing this finding, I first describe how participants' backgrounds influenced how they view leadership, then detail participant's reflections on who they thought were leaders, and finally share the specific characteristics they identified as important for leaders.

Gender Matters

I began each interview asking participants to describe their professional background. Immediately, differences by gender began to appear. Many of the male participants spoke extensively about their background, including their formal training in leadership and academic pedigree. The tenor of these comments appeared to be boastful. Jordan shared:

> I'm a team builder by nature. I grew up poor. I grew up with a divorced family, handicapped mother that couldn't work from the time I was eight or nine. I had an older brother that was a drug addict, [in name of large Midwest city], in a tough neighborhood. I'm the first kid in my family to ever go to college. First kid from my high school to ever go to an Ivy league school. I didn't even know what an Ivy league school was until the coach showed up at my high school.

Jordan's story depicts an image that he "pulled himself up by his bootstraps" and came from nothing. Jordan, however, did not acknowledge his privilege as a White male or the

variety of advantages he faced as a result of his identity. This mentality stood out to me as a White male and someone who also grew up in a lower socio-economic status family. Jordan reflected on how he received his current leadership position:

> I look back and I realize all these experiences I've had in life actually prepared me to be in this place at this moment, but looking at me on a resume. Yeah. The search committee would go, he has no academic experience. He's been a volunteer faculty for, for 10 years. So, I don't know how you get the diversity [of perspectives on the search committee].

Jordan had been in his current role for several years and acknowledged he may not be a strong contender for his current position if he were to apply today. At the same time, he maintained a perspective that he worked hard and therefore deserved to be in the space and position he occupied. Jordan also shared an example from a commencement speech he was recently asked to give. He said:

> It is funny you are talking to me today, because last month I was working on what I was going to say to this graduating class. First time I've done something like this. So I wanted to talk to them about my life, my journey, my life experiences, and to encourage them for their journey as they begin it. . . . and the way I said this to them is, they're graduating from a top 10 high school in the country and that I graduated from top a university, med school, and residency, and I've worked with incredible people, brilliant people.

Throughout our conversation, I did not hear an acknowledgement of privilege from Jordan nor did I hear an awareness from him regarding how his identity likely played a role in some of his achievements, relationships he had, the school he attended, and other facets of his life.

Jordan attributed much of his success to his hard work, however, other participants described the formal leadership training they had received or intentional awareness-building activities they engaged in. This was particularly evident in the interviews with three of the women (Cori, Jillian, and Lisa) and person of color

(Brandon). These participants viewed their successes as intentional efforts rather than solely the result of hard work and luck. This is in contrast to some of the innate beliefs about leadership many of the White male participants had. For example, Cori reflected on the crucial role some of the faculty members from graduate school were for her:

> Some of my early faculty members in my master's program and then later in my PhD program really helped me to think about how are we thinking about issues of culturally relevant pedagogy. I don't think we use the term culturally relevant pedagogy at the time, but like thinking about how are we making sure that marginalized voices are a part of the conversation in the classroom, both from our students and from our readings. Those are things that are really important to me.

She offered several examples of faculty members or graduate school classes, which informed her views about leadership. Similarly, Lisa shared as a physician she did not receive any formal training in college or medical school. However, given her aspiration to continue to move up in the organization, she acknowledged the need to learn more about leadership:

> So maybe just some of my own reading. That's a very Stephen Covey thing. His approach has a lot of wisdom. It might also come from my faith background. As a Christian that is a tenant within the ideas of Christian leadership.

Like Cori, Brandon described his training, "I definitely have formal training and leadership. I have also studied organizational learning." It is important to acknowledge Cori and Brandon come from academic disciplines where leadership is more commonly a focus, while formal leadership is not typically a part of the training most physicians or scientists receive. With the exception of Robert, the two other White men alluded to their lack of leadership training as if it was not an issue. For example, Liam says, "I haven't read that much about leadership in terms of certain qualities, but you know it when you see it."

Leader=White Man

When you ask someone to picture a leader, the image that is conjured is almost always of a White man. This was also the case with my participants. Although I did not explicitly ask participants to talk about specific leaders in their lives, however, almost every participant provided examples of individuals they saw as leaders. Regardless of the participants' sex or race, men were more likely to be cited as leaders. Of the 22 examples provided, 14 were men, five were women, and the sex was not clearly stated in the remaining three. With one exception, the other four female leader examples were from the women or person of color on the committee. Additionally, when women were mentioned, feminine language about them being caring and kind or "not losing their temper" was used. In contrast, many of the male leaders were admired and celebrated for their traditionally masculine leadership traits, such as being tough and decisive. Although race was not specifically discussed in all examples, of those where race was identified, all of the examples were White.

Participants cited public or famous figures as well as individual they personally knew as leaders. Robert shared:

> Actually, one of the reasons I came to [the health system] was because the first time I met [name redacted]. The cool thing about [name redacted] is he's a very blue collar, salt of the earth kind of guy. He comes from a family of construction workers in [redacted]. Raised [in a] poor Catholic family, there is not an air to him. He is very down to earth and it's never about him and if you look at how he does things, it is very understated. . . .As a fellow Irish Catholic, he swears from time to time, which I appreciate cause, he's not someone who takes himself too seriously and we've all been around leaders who expect people to rise when they walk in the room. Life is too short to be full of yourself.

I asked Robert if this male leader played a role in his coming back to be a leader here, and he responded:

> Yeah, he is the reason I came to [the health system]. . . . He is very much a servant leader, very high energy. It is never about him. It's about doing what's the right thing to help take care of patients and organization. And I've been honest with him and I was honest with [name redacted] too.

Robert's responses about this leader indicate the social capital he has to know executives in the health system where he is applying, so that he could "scope out" who his potential new boss was. Similarly, people of color are also viewed differently. Women and people of color in leadership roles have to attend to how others view their attire, lexicon, body language, level of informality, and demeanor. Although Robert does not outwardly acknowledge it, his comments suggest he seeks a leader who looks like him, speaks like him, and has a similar background to his. This will carry over and influence his construction of what it means to be a leader in this particular search.

Another facet that is illuminated in Robert's interview is the influence of having an affinity toward someone who looks like you. In Robert's case, this meant the leader he referenced was also Catholic. Relatedly, during my interview with and observations of Liam, I heard him describe finding a leader who understands his work as a basic science researcher. Liam expressed:

> I know how difficult it is to do what we do and to rise to the certain levels out in the field and how much goes into that entire process. I mean, it doesn't happen overnight. It's people that are in it for the long haul and that are fully committed. So, I appreciate it. And you know, since I've kind of been there myself knowing what it takes to lead a program. So that's what I look for in other potential leaders.

Liam seems to be drawing parallels between his own professional background and who would be good in this role. As he stated, this perspective on leadership is clearly affecting how he views leadership and in turn evaluates candidates for this search. During my observations, it was clear to me Liam was looking for candidates with a similar

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experience to him. On several occasions he appeared visibly frustrated by candidate's responses to questions. For example, after asking a question about vision and strategic planning, Ken had an audible sigh to the candidate's response. I believe this was because the candidate did not speak about the future emphasis on research, which he had expressed was very important to him. Later, during deliberations, Liam seemed to question this candidate's level of interest in the position. Similarly, Jordan spoke of finding a candidate who he feels comfortable enough to have a beer with:

> That's why I think having a scoring type system is important, because I'm
> the kind of person that tries to read people or, how can I say this: Do I
> want to have a beer with him? And I inherently think the best of people. It
> is a fault of mine. And until somebody sort of proves me wrong, I'm going
> to try to think the best of them.

This passage is significant for a few reasons. Like Liam and Robert, Jordan wanted a leader who looks like him physically, has had similar experiences to his own, and who he can relate to on a personal level. I followed-up up with Jordan by asking, "But, then do you see there being an issue that if you see someone that you would like to have beer with that, do you think you're then looking for someone who looks more similar to you than someone else?" He responded:

> No, I want to know somebody who personally I like, who gives off a vibe
> of 'I want to part of that team.' I think there are people that give that vibe
> and people that don't. In the young woman that--I say young because I'm
> old-- that we interviewed the other day, I thought she gave off that vibe, at
> least to me. And that wasn't live, that was on Zoom. So, my initial
> assessment of her is she has really good interpersonal skills, which I think
> is critical.

Jordan surmised an age difference between himself and the female candidate, yet both had terminal degrees and were well established in their careers. Jordan self-monitored his ageist comment with, "I say that because I am old." However, his reference of the female

candidate as young also hints at an implicit belief that perhaps she is not senior enough for this leadership position.

Similarly, some participants described current leaders they know and used them as a comparison to who they thought would be a good leader for the role they were reaching for. Brandon remarked:

> I think that someone like a [name redacted] is like the ideal [position redacted] because he was a community doc and he has balanced being fully engaged and present in that environment, but also understanding the balance of being a team player, contributing back toward the greater [university] brand and the central administration.

This demonstrates how the individuals in my study looked at role models and current leaders as they thought about the next generation of leaders. The females and person of color on this search committee were almost as likely as their White male counterparts to mention White male leaders as the exemplar, as Brandon does in his example. It is important to acknowledge the preponderance of leadership roles in academic medicine are held by White men, but nonetheless, search committee members must break this mold and see leaders with other social identities as successful. Otherwise, this cycle of disproportionately hiring White males into leadership positions will be difficult to disrupt, even when institutions and hiring authorities espouse the need to increase representational diversity in leadership roles.

Not only did participants generally cite men as leaders, they also downplayed the flaws of male leaders. Three participants discussed male leaders and how either they or others were willing to overlook their flaws or lack of experience. This happened only with male leaders. When asked what experiences had informed her views about leadership Olivia said:

> In looking at like the two chairs that I've had recently in [name of
> department redacted], I feel like the first one that hired me really had
> innate emotional intelligence. Now, he had his flaws too, but he was really
> authentic. Whereas my current one I feel like, he may not have had as
> authentic or as inherent emotional intelligence, but he reads so much and
> tries to improve that he applies that and tries to get better at it.

Olivia mentioned both of these chairs as leadership examples, but understated the flaws

of the first chair by saying "he was really authentic." Others participants did this for male

leaders too. For example, Brandon shared:

> When I was at [name of institution redacted], we had this great leader, but
> he was selected to be a leader because of his research in [name of
> discipline redacted], not because of his leadership skills. Often you are
> promoted into leadership because of your contributions to clinical care,
> research, etc.

Brandon described a culture where people were promoted to leadership positions for

traits other than leadership. As I have mentioned, this problem is not with the individual,

rather it is situated within the organization. When an organization values certain

behaviors or markers of achievement, then individuals conform to those standards.

Similarly, organizations and individuals can overlook the lack of experience—in

this case of a White male candidate—and individuals can justify why someone without

experience would still be qualified for a leadership position. Lisa recalled the credentials

of one of the candidates in the search:

> I remember there was one CV for this guy somewhere in the Midwest who
> was pretty young, but had these great experiences and really diverse. . . .
> So, I remember fighting for this guy. I think he's an underdog.

Although Jordan backtracked on his comments describing a female candidate as young

but "really authentic," here Lisa minimized the male candidate's age be describing his

"great experiences." These three examples provide insight on how, in this particular

search, the potential flaws in male candidates were not seen as disqualifying while those of female candidates changed how search committee members discussed them.

Finally, I discuss how women leaders or role models were described by participants. Cori and Brandon shared stories or examples about women in leadership. Cori cited two female faculty members and a prominent female researcher, all of whom influenced the trajectory of her career and research. Brandon spoke about his supervisor, who is a female physician leader; however, as he discussed her he used it as a way to build on his own experience—his idea of a strong leader aligns with his beliefs about himself and his own style.

When women were mentioned, feminine language (e.g., caring, kind) was often used. Note the gendered language in Jordan's description of a woman leader, in this case, his grandmother:

> I was sort of raised by my grandmother who immigrated from the [redacted] when she was nine with her mom. She had five kids. Her husband died when he was 39. So, she was left with three teenagers and two children, by herself in the late thirties and early forties. That woman was the hardest working, most positive woman I think I've ever met in my life. Because I was with her all the time, it rolled off on me. She never thought of herself as a victim, even though the cards that she was dealt were tough. She managed to start her own party store, run her own business, help with her five kids and countless grandchildren. I looked back at her and she was loving, caring, positive. I never saw her mad, no matter what was thrown her way.

Gendered language is deeply engrained in American culture and language. It was also used by participants throughout the search process and in the interviews I conducted. In this quote, Jordan views his grandmother as someone who overcomes adversity while bring loving, caring, and positive, which are qualities expected of women, but not of

men. Across all participants, overwhelmingly, men were cited as leaders. Next, I will discuss the characteristics participants thought of when asked about an "effective leader."

Effective Leaders Are a Reflection of Oneself

A final thread in this finding regarding the role of participants' backgrounds in shaping their views of leadership is how participants described the characteristics of an effective leader. The participants' backgrounds—their upbringing, family, education— greatly influenced their perception of effective leadership. Notably, every participant was able to clearly articulate through adjectives, stories, and examples their description of an "effective leader."

As mentioned in Chapter Two, it is important to acknowledge there is no singular view of leadership. Similarly, Alex stated, "I don't assume that someone who is a physician is a good leader. Those are different competency sides." Just as there are nine participants in this study, there were nine perspectives about what would make an effective leader.

Many of the participants referred to their background as a major influence on their beliefs about leadership. Four participants described the role of formal leadership. Olivia shared:

> These are the things I teach. One thing is high emotional intelligence, and that really encompasses a lot: self-awareness, being able to manage their emotions, being able to relate to others, and having empathy. Also, being visionary, but also practical. [That] is what I look for in a leader.

When I prompted participants to think about an effective leader, several had a list of words that quickly came to mind. These lists were informed by a combination of formal training, readings on the topic of leadership, and professional experience. Jillian said:

Effective leaders. I can give you a list of words: they are helpful, they have a high degree of integrity, they have the capacity to make decisions, they have capacity in general, they have resilience and they have the ability to be appropriately direct and nuanced, and often at the same time.

Although there was some overlap in responses, such as emotional intelligence, each participant had their own criteria for what characterized an effective leader. There was one participant who began her response differently. Cori's response was unique in her focus on leadership competencies. She began her response to my inquiry be stating, "I actually use a lot of the competencies that we use in the search process to talk about what makes an effective leader. . . . So that's like kind of my first and foremost." Cori went on to talk about some of her other experiences and leaders who influenced her beliefs about leadership, but she came back to how this leadership competency model was the foundation of the search in her mind. Cori argued this competency model allowed the search committee to think beyond the one search to the needs of the unit, school, and institution. Cori's very different perspective illustrates an important caution: when each committee member enters the search process with a different set of beliefs about effective leadership, it could affect what they are looking for in candidates and in turn how they evaluate them. The use of a competency model not only provides common language for everyone to use and measure candidates by, it also helps to mitigate some of the variability of search committee member's background.

Summary of Finding One: The Role of Background and Identity on Views of Leadership

Through stories and examples, participants described how their backgrounds influenced their views of leadership. For both male and female participants, gender was a salient theme in how leadership was discussed. When participants were asked to talk

about their background, in general, the men talked extensively about their training and background. The female participants, on the other hand, talked little about themselves and when they did couched their success as a part of a larger team or as the result of a community of others. For both male and female participants, when leaders were cited, only five of the 22 examples were of women. Together, these inform the characteristics participants think of in terms of an effective leader. It is necessary to examine search committee member's backgrounds in order to understand their views of leadership as these views of leadership ultimately influence the search process. In presenting finding one, I demonstrate views of leadership are socially and culturally constructed. Therefore, each search committee member sees leadership in a nuanced way. Finding one largely focuses on the role of participant's background and identity as well as their beliefs about what leadership characteristics are important.

Finding Two: The Influence of Personal and Societal Constructions of Leadership on Individual Behaviors and Search Outcomes

The second major theme of my research pertains to the variety of ways participants either acknowledged their views of leadership influenced their behaviors as well as the outcomes of the search. As outlined in Chapter Two, search committees have a tremendous responsibility, and "their decisions will shape the position criteria and the advertisement, the tone of the preliminary interview and the questions asked of candidates. . . and of course the selection of candidates" (Dowdall, 2007, p. 72). However, because the process is confidential in nature, it remains unexamined. In this section, I interrogate how the social and cultural constructions of leadership influenced search committee member's behaviors and the outcomes of this particular search. The

participants shared their experiences serving on the search committee, including how they

perceived themselves and others influencing the search. Similar to the first finding,

participants most notably had varied experiences based on their gender. In general, the

male participants were more willing to assert their beliefs while the female participants

were often dismissive of their experience and expertise, questioned themselves, and

wondered if they should share their perspectives. As I posited previously, I suspect

themes regarding race would have emerged had there been more participants of color in

my study. To discuss this finding, I first outline how participants exerted influence over

the search, then discuss the role of the committee, and finally examine how candidates

were evaluated.

Influence of Individual Search Committee Members

Participants in this study had one of three roles on the search committee: hiring

authority, committee co-chair, or committee member. Regardless of role, there were clear

distinctions in how individuals had influence over the search. Many of the behaviors,

such as deciding if and when to speak up, were influenced by participants' beliefs about

leadership and their role on the search committee. For example, I asked Lisa if she

thought her views of leadership influenced the outcome of the search process. She

answered:

> I hope. I mean, if those are what I think are important in leadership, I think
> I was viewing these CVs and viewing that dinner with [name redacted]
> with that lens. That these are the values and principles I find important in
> leadership.

At all stages of the search process, from conceptualizing the position description and

sourcing for candidates through evaluating candidates during the interview process, these

social and cultural constructions of leadership infiltrated the search process. This was

particularly true for the hiring authority.

Both search committee members and the hiring authority were clear this search

was ultimately the purview of the hiring authority. I asked each member what they

thought about the committee charge and if they agreed with it or not. Early in the search,

the question about if the individual who was selected for this role should be a physician

or hold a PhD was raised. During my observations and interviews, this was a point of

contention for some members of the committee and the larger university community.

Olivia shared:

> I kind of questioned that decision. I mean, because I am sure a PhD could
> be in that role. But then when he explained a little bit more and reminded
> me about the new hospital and how that can be advantageous, then I
> bought in to that. I approach search committees: give me the charge and
> that's where my lens will be. So that's how I approach it. If that's what
> Alex wants, then that's sort of what I'll look for.

Although Olivia questioned if the individual in this role would need to be a physician, she

ultimately deferred to Alex's perspective as the hiring authority. Throughout the

remainder of the interview, Olivia did not mention other areas of disagreement with

Alex's perspective. In contrast, Liam was open in expressing his concerns. When asked if

he agreed with Alex's charge of the committee he remarked:

> It didn't matter if I agreed or didn't; I mean it is what it is going to be. So,
> you know, research was not a priority for this position. And given the
> changing landscape of [the campus] and the [academic program] program
> here, there was no point to disagree with it.

I observed Liam raise this point several times during my observations and our interview.

However, I do not believe he was the only one representing this perspective. From what I

heard, there were other members of the unit that this individual would have oversight for

who shared this view. Liam did acknowledge the need for a different type of leader in

saying, "they need a different kind of person in this position versus what has been here

for the last [number of] years, or before that, even before I got here. It's not a research

program anymore." Cori, who has served on and co-chaired several searches, understood

this dynamic as she explained:

> That becomes one of the biggest sticking points is that you're balancing
> the committee members interest in hiring a particular kind of person with
> the hiring authority's interest in hiring in particular kind of person and
> sometimes those can be competing. Your job as the co-chair is to remind
> the committee of that true north attend, to unconscious bias, and really
> attend to the process to ensure that all the voices get heard.

Cori saw it as her role, as one of the co-chairs, to serve as a moderator not only to ensure

all perspectives were heard, but also to ensure the successful conclusion of the search.

The hiring authority continued to exercise his influence over the search beyond

the charge meeting. For example, there were at least two candidates Alex instructed the

search committee to interview. Although some members of the search committee did not

seem to be concerned about this, citing Alex knew best who was needed for this position,

other members of the committee saw this as a sign of exerting his influence. For example,

Brandon expressed:

> It is hard to say like how people truly feel, but I can only imagine the
> people that don't know [the hiring authority] might have said, 'this is an
> example of politics' or something. The search committee identified their
> candidates, but we're being asked to interview more candidates. So, I think
> there's a tough balance there sometimes.

Brandon alluded to the unspoken norms and expectations both in this search and of the

individual who will be in this position. Brandon spoke of a time when the hiring authority

insisted the committee interview a candidate who had not applied. Brandon said:

It is hard to say how people truly feel, but I can only imagine the people that don't know [the hiring authority] might have said, 'this is an example of politics' or something. The search committee identified their candidates, but we're being asked to interview more candidates. So, I think there's a tough balance there sometimes.

I believe, given his positionality as a Black man, Brandon was more aware of the politics of this search, specifically that the search committee space is not neutral. Politics are ever-present, but some people, based on their positionality, are able to see it more clearly. My observation was as the one person of color on the search committee, Brandon was able to see and articulate some of the politics that existed in the search. Liam shared a similar perspective about Alex's telling the co-chairs additional candidates had to be interviewed:

It just is way it is going to be. It has been made clear by [the co-chairs] too. It's like if [the hiring authority] wants to interview somebody, that person's going to be interviewed. It doesn't matter what the search committee thinks. So why are we here? Why doesn't he just select the people he wants to interview and then we will interview them. It's nice to be give the appearance of a democracy in a way, but I think when it boils down to it, it has been made very clear by the co-chairs of whose search this is. I don't have a problem with that it is just part of the process. So, yeah, these latecomers why they didn't apply initially doesn't matter. It doesn't matter because they're going to get interviewed whether we want them to be interviewed or not.

Liam's perspective goes beyond Brandon's. In fact, he questions the entire purpose of the search and if the committee has any agency or utility at all. These participants' views about the influence of the hiring authority are in contrast to how Alex views himself in the process. During my observations, I also noticed several committee members appeared upset when they were told additional candidates would have to be interviewed at the hiring authority's purgative. Regardless if they found it disruptive or not, almost every

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participant had specific examples of how Alex was heavily involved in the search

process. In contrast, when I asked Alex about his interactions with the committee he said:

> I would say based on my minimal interaction that my view of leadership
> would probably have very minimal impact on the view of the committee. .
> . . Very humbly, I don't think my view of leadership probably has
> impacted the committee members at all.

At the start of the interview, Alex also shared:

> I like to do is let the search committee do its work after charging the
> search committee at the beginning. My practice is I let the chairs of the
> search committee now I'm available. . . . but I tend not to want to interfere
> in the work of the committee and wait for the work product that they give
> me-- usually a series of names of people who they view as potentially
> qualified for the position. I don't think that has been any different [with
> this search]. I do engage with the chairs of the committee, probably
> engaging them more at a level that I'm familiar with than at the beginning
> of the search. Every school has its way. I like to hear how things are
> going, so that I can assist in certain ways.

Alex described wanting to remain engaged in the search and he did so by talking with the

co-chairs. As he went on, Alex shared that this was his way of responding to being

dissatisfied with how previous searches had gone. Alex recalled:

> This is my second [executive level] search [at this institution]. We did the
> [redacted] search and then this one. To speak about the [redacted] search,
> that committee operated without speaking to me at all, which made me
> uncomfortable. I had no idea what they were doing. I had no idea, did we
> have a big pool? Did we have a small pool? Who applied? I like to be kept
> in the loop by the chairs, but let the committee do its work.

Participants, including Alex, wanted what was best for the institution and this included

the best candidate for this executive leadership position. Alex understood the importance

of the various perspectives that were gained from the search committee. Earlier in the

interview, he discussed how his intentional selection of each member of the search

committee, because they each represented various stakeholders and perspectives. When I

asked Alex about how he viewed his role, he said:

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The role of the hiring authority ultimately is to make a selection from a group of individuals who have been screened as capable for the position by the search committee and to make the best possible selection for the school. I certainly use my lens, but I have to think about what's in the best interest of the school in making the decision.

These conversation exchanges with Brandon, Liam, and Alex further describe the influence of the hiring authority on the search committee. Their thoughts about this topic provide valuable insights and practical suggestions for how hiring authorities and other individuals in positions of authority can influence a search committee.

The two committee co-chairs were in a unique position as both members and leaders of the search committee and as such were aware of the degree of influence they had over committee members. Cori shared:

One of the things I'm always aware of is the extent to which the committee members like defer to the co-chairs, because I don't want to make my voice be the only one at the table. So even for example, in some of our deliberations you might hear me say to one of the committee members, we haven't heard from you on this candidate. What do you think? Did that answer your question? or something like that. Part of the way that I want my voice to be heard is that I want other voices to be heard. That is what my primary need is, to make sure that I'm managing the flow of conversation in such a way that everyone has a voice at the table.

Similarly, when I asked Jillian if she thought others on the search committee listened to her perspective she stated:

Maybe excessively, Honestly. . . . In other words, is the committee that malleable that they are just going to do what I say, and if they are, then why the hell don't you just let me interview these people and we'll be done with it?

Together, these narratives shed light on the role and influence of appointing members of a search committee in leadership positions, such as co-chairs. In this case, both participants were aware their voices had the ability to influence committee members and perhaps even shift perceptions about candidates or the directions of a search. They could

end conversation or they could encourage it. Cori explained how all voices at the table were valuable and she aimed to bring them out through discussion.

Committee co-chairs also served as mediators, both with the hiring authority and with stakeholders not on the search committee. Cori, in discussing Liam's and Lisa's roles as faculty members embedded in the unit said, "I really see myself as an ambassador for those folks, because I know that it can be very hard to be the person who always gets asked those questions [at the unit level]." Cori went on to explain she would answer questions about the status of the search or listen to input from faculty members in the unit. Additionally, she saw her role to communicate regularly with Alex as the hiring authority. She explained, "I'm pretty closely checking in with Alex to make sure that we are still meeting his values associated with this search." Similarly, Jillian explained her role was to serve as a mediator between the hiring authority and search committee and to attend to the process. She explained her role as:

> being more involved in the debriefs with [the hiring authority] and [other senior leadership]. Making sure that if there are any issues that evolve within the committee itself or the committees' function that those are both recognized and appropriately managed in a timely manner, such that the committee doesn't fracture or lose focus.

The role of the search committee co-chairs in this search was important to ensuring the hiring authority's charge was met and that the search progress kept forward momentum. Because of the co-chairs unique position, they were also able to provide institutional memory and continuity from one executive search to the next.

Individual members of the search committee were also able to influence the outcomes of the search. Brandon said, "In any search, the search committee members all have influence. So, I guess the short answer I would say is yes." For example, Robert

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discussed his ability to personally influence the search. He exclaimed, "I was able to squash one candidate just because of past experience." Robert went on to recall he shared information with the search committee after a candidate's interview and based on that experience the candidate. He continued, "I confirmed it after I left first round, I called [identity redacted] on my way [home]. I was like, is this the [person]? [They were] like, oh yeah." I found it disconcerting Robert acknowledged his influence in addition to expressing his opinion to the committee before confirming his facts. This came from a place of privilege, either due to his position, gender, or both. As a White man, Robert did not have to worry about his social capital or being questioned by other members of the committee. Men, like Robert, are rewarded and encouraged to speak their minds and share their opinions whereas female participants confront social norms of being seen as "bossy" for the same behavior. Similarly, Cori and Alex both reflected on how individuals bring their identity and professional role into the search. Alex commented, "each comes with all their baggage and people have a hard time leaving their baggage at the door, so this search in particular is very politically challenging." Earlier in the interview, Alex shared the selection of each committee member was very intentional; they each were selected to represent a "microcosm of the world." Similarly, Cori explained:

> One of the things that is challenging in any search process is it is very hard for committee members to think as a committee. You are there to represent a particular part of your identity. In Brandon's case he works really closely with the campuses. In Lisa's case she is going to serve as a faculty member with this person. Knowing that that's the case, it is hard for committee members to, not because we don't want them to check their identity, we want them to have it, but to also think about how do you bring a committee together.

Participants were selected to serve on the search committee and encouraged by the hiring authority and co-chairs to bring their identity and perspective to the search process. In Robert's example, this had real implications for at least one candidate.

Although individual search committee members could influence the search, participants also noted that much of the process was democratic in nature. For example, the search committee did not vote at the end of discussions, instead they came to consensus. Although Robert discussed his influence, later in the interview he shared this influence is limited. He exclaimed, "I could probably, like I did, kill a candidate, but if it's down to a couple, I probably don't have any say. It's kind of like a gestalt." Robert acknowledged that ultimately the search committee is viewed as a single unit and together they must come up with a recommendation to the hiring authority. Liam shared, "Everybody's opinions are, I think, considered, but I'm not sure if any one person weighs more than anybody else." Liam and Brandon felt that although everyone on the search committee had a voice, some should or did have more influence. Brandon said:

> I think it's the collective diversity of the group that ultimately contributes to the candidates that emerge. . . ., but I would say the search committee chairs, the faculty [in the unit], the leadership out of [the health system] probably have much stronger influence than I do.

As previously mentioned, Brandon's identity gives him a unique perspective for how he sees the organizational politics in this search. The views of Brandon, Robert, and Liam in this section highlight some of the ways individual committee members could influence the search, but also acknowledge some of the limitations on their influence. Brandon and Liam refer to the importance of hearing everyone's perspective on the search committee. It is important to consider that not all participants come to the search committee on equal footing. Some were given authority as co-chairs of the search while others had tenure

within the institution or were in a position of authority. As Brandon said, it is the collective diversity of the group that gives the search committee its strength thus the importance all voices—regardless of tenure, position, gender, or race—are heard and considered by other search committee members.

Self-Doubt

Although the participants were equal members of the search committee, during the interviews several examples of self-doubt or self-censorship came out. This theme came up in my interviews with Jillian, Lisa, and Olivia. I juxtapose their responses with those from several of the male participants. At the start of each interview, I asked participants why they were selected to serve on the search committee. Olivia and Lisa described being on the search committee because of their positions. They did not mention the valuable perspective they brought because of their skills and experience. Although many members of the search committee were selected because of their position, the female participants were less likely to talk about their added value or perspective of being a part of the search committee. In fact, Lisa described herself by saying, "I am naturally a people pleaser" and that she thought she needed to work on that if she were to move up in the organization. Olivia noted her strength as a harmonizer. She said, "I think one of my strengths, maybe my top strength (referring to StrengthsFinder), is harmony." Both Lisa and Olivia seem to have particular views about themselves as leaders, which tend to be more relational in nature.

When I asked Olivia if she thought her views of leadership influenced the search she replied, "Yeah, I think it will, to a degree. I mean it's not like I'm a pushover in terms of it going one way versus another." Olivia further justified not being a "push over" by

explaining, "I like to hear what everyone's views are and then I make mine most in line with what I'm thinking, versus what I heard the majority and go with that." Similarly, Jillian explained how she reflected about endorsing Robert's comments about a candidate resulted in them not continuing in the search. As previously mentioned, Robert did so without first verifying the facts. He made comments about a candidate to the entire search committee and then left the meeting and called someone to verify he was right. Never in his interview did he second guess this decision. Regarding another situation, Robert expressed, "I'll tell people, I see what you are saying, but from my perspective, this is the thought process. If you haven't thought through it, you probably should not be making a decision at that point." Jillian, on the other hand, spoke about how she questioned whether what she did was right. In recalling the story, she shared:

> Which made me feel a little bit like, well, did Robert's recounting of that story or my endorsement of, 'oh yeah, it was a blistering thing.' Was that too influential to people? Was he a potentially a good candidate that we knocked out because of prior knowledge? I mean, I have questioned that. I think we came to the right decision, but I definitely have reflected on that part of our process and thought, 'was that correct' and I don't know the answer to that about whether or not it was correct. I think we ended up in the right place.

At the time of my interview with Jillian it was several months after this situation and she still questioned if what she did was right. Additionally, sharing this story showed a higher degree of vulnerability to me than most other participants. Jillian shared another story about speaking up regarding a candidate. She explained:

> Two of the guys on the committee thought this guy is awesome. He's done like everything that we need. And I'm like, dude, this guy's been fired twice. Do you not see that? . . . .At any rate, I just was like what the hell. That was a really a situation for me where I was like, wait a minute guys. I am going to speak up in this space. I'm not even gonna feel even remotely bad about it.

At first pass, Jillian was vocal about her beliefs that this candidate was not a strong contender for this position; however, at the end of her statement she said, "I am not even gonna feel even remotely bad about it." This language seems to justify her actions and behavior and serves as a form of an apology. In contrast, none of the men apologized for or felt the need to defend their decisions.

Lisa shared in at least one instance her suggestion was not listened to, but she decided not to say anything. In the first committee meeting, the faculty affairs team asked committee members to help identify places from which to source candidates. Lisa recalled specifically suggesting, "So I was just advocating for [that]. I brought up we need to post this on [two primary care specialty organization's websites] and I didn't see that it was." I suggested she could go back to see if it was ever posted where she suggested and she had. She explained, "I tried to peruse the list and I thought, 'Oh they didn't post it on there.'" However, she never said anything to anyone else on the search committee about why this suggestion was not taken. Taken as a whole, female participants were less likely to speak up about their opinions and, when they did, they were more reflective about it. Next, I discuss how participant's social and cultural constructions of leadership influenced how candidates were evaluated.

Evaluating Candidates

A central function of any search committee is to vet candidates and establish viable candidates for the hiring committee to consider. However, knowing each search committee member comes to the search with their own lens about leadership and what is needed for the role being hired for, it is important to examine how participants evaluated the candidates in this search. In my study, three themes emerged about the evaluation

process: a perception of candidate's interest in the position; the role of candidate's gender and race; and, comparing candidate's to others.

On six occasions, participants described how they tried to evaluate or gauge if candidates were really interested in the job for which they were applying. Jordan explained:

> As much as I can tell, I want to see where they have been and what is their passion, because I think you have to have passion. I don't know how you measure that, because our jobs are tough and if you don't believe in what you're doing and have a passion for it.

Liam, Lisa, and Olivia also reported how they tried to get a sense from candidates about how interested they were in this particular job. One response that stood out to me was Jillian's. She was talking about a female candidate who withdrew from the candidate pool and then rejoined after Alex talked to her. Talking about this candidate, Jillian stated:

> Which honestly made me question her decisioning a little bit, because I mean what the hell, wait for two weeks and see what they have to say. Who really cares? In your mind you can be out and can be pleasantly surprised when the committee comes back to you, but if you need that level of reassurance on the front end. In many ways she's perfect for the job. She is actually really a top contender.

Similarly, Robert shared a story about a female candidate:

> It's amazing to me to when people apply for jobs, how unorganized they are. We had someone who applied for the job who addressed it to the wrong person and she was great when you met her, but we were like, got to get the name right. I mean it's petty stuff, but details matter and the attention to detail for things.

Jillian's use of the word "reassurance" made me wonder if she was being harder on this candidate because she was a woman. Although she clearly felt this candidate was "perfect for the job" and a "really top contender" she still questioned this female candidate's commitment to the search process. During document analysis I noted in her review of

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candidate's materials Olivia wrote, "The only drawback I have with her is that her cover letter was short and I didn't get the feeling like she was sure she wanted to be applying...other applicant cover letters were more strongly written and more convincing." In Robert's example, although it is not uncommon for candidates to be judged for typos and grammatical errors in their candidate materials, this was the only example any of the participants mentioned. Additionally, Liam shared a story about a female candidate who lived out of state. He said:

> We have another person that's coming from the southwest. They never lived out of that part of the country, ever. In fact, they are there to be with the family. So, hopefully that person can be enticed to come to [our state]. We'll see. So that's always a consideration. But, I guess that's no reason not to interview somebody.

Liam attributed beliefs that as a woman this candidate would undoubtedly choose staying close to her family over this job, which could cause him to view this candidate differently and as a result rate her differently. During my observations, I overheard similar comments from search committee members. This bias can unintentionally undermine the very intention of the committee—to find a diverse pool of the most qualified candidates. They were questioning if this candidate was really interested in the position, citing her family obligations. Cori reminded the group that instead of speculating about the candidate's intentions the committee should ask in the next round of interviews rather than making assumptions about candidates. Regardless of this remark, based on the conversation about this candidate several committee members continued to question if she should move forward to the next round of interviews despite otherwise being considered a strong candidate. These views about women in the workplace and in leadership are not solely constructed by the participants, rather they are cultural

constructions about the roles of women and family. Further, organizations and policies perpetuate these beliefs, which can affect how female candidates are evaluated and therefore hiring decisions. Organizations try to structure their recruitment process to identify and hire the most talented individuals. The problem, of course, with the idea of meritocracy, is these ideas are based on the presumption the playing field is level for everyone. Unfortunately, that is far from the truth. Women and other minoritized candidates continue to face unfair expectations and standards not beholden to White and male candidates. Biases in the hiring process are especially pervasive when it comes to leadership positions.

During document analysis, while reviewing committee member's written feedback of candidate's cover letter and curriculum vita, I noted trends in the written comments that highlighted women and candidates of color differently. For example, minoritized candidate's interest was often questioned. In her feedback about a Latino candidate, Lisa wrote:

> I wonder why he's wanting to make a lateral move from his position at [redacted]? It seems like the research role at [redacted] is a good fit, unless he's just wanting to get back to something that is more varied and not specialized in just research?

Liam noted about this same candidate, "all training from universities in Mexico" and also questioned his motivations to move. Similarly, the word "fit" was typically used to describe White male candidates in the affirmative while it was used as a disqualifier for minorized candidates. The word "fit" was used 11 times in the curriculum vita review. Jillian, for example, wrote of a female candidate simply, "others are a better fit" without describing why the candidate was not a good fit or what qualities or characteristics she was evaluating with that comment. Lisa wrote of a candidate of color, "this role doesn't

seem to fit his experience." In contrast, Lisa described a White male candidate, "his experience could fit very well with this role." Olivia characterized a White male candidate by writing, "I could see this candidate potentially fitting very well in the (organizational) culture." The nebulous use of the word fit leaves too much room for personal interpretation, judgment, and bias about a candidate rather than comparing them to the leadership competency model (e.g. not having the requisite communication skills or experience with vision and strategic planning). Questions about candidate's personal life and interest in the position were solely asked of female candidates and candidates of color and similar questions were not written about White male candidates. Similarly, differences were found in the comments about candidate's research. The term "research" appeared 17 times in my document analysis. Of those, 16 references were to male candidates, both White and candidates of color. In the sole comment about a female candidate's research in the written comments, Lisa specifically highlighted a candidate's research focused on sex and gender. Although I cannot say what Lisa's perception is about this line of research, generally speaking, this could be perceived by others, especially in academic medicine, as not being rigorous research. These seemingly benign comments about candidates can affect how search committee members and other rate and view candidates, even as early as reviewing their submitted materials. Never conclusions, such as questioning likelihood to move due to family obligations, were more likely towards women and minoritized candidates. These written comments came from male and female search committee members.

Although I have discussed gender differences throughout my findings, here I highlight how a candidate's gender and race were discussed in the context of evaluating a

candidate. I asked participants if they thought as a committee they were looking for the same type of candidate. Jillian said, "I don't think there has been: it has to be a man or it has to be a White person. I don't think there's a lot of that in there. If it is, I haven't seen it." I found it interesting she cited the majority here, instead of talking about trying to source and recruit diverse candidates. Additionally, during my observations, while the committee was deliberating search committee members specifically talked how a female candidate was not only had the necessary leadership skills but was also "poised and articulate" and "polished." The demeanor of male candidates was not discussed during my observations. In contrast, Olivia explained how she specifically paid attention to the gender and race of candidates during her review of their materials. She explained:

> When I was reviewing the CVs, just because I guess my position and the awareness and the education I've received over the last few years about diversity and how we as a school approach it. So, I think put some comment about diversity in the comment box when I reviewed the CV every time, whether that was appropriate or not, I don't know. But I do have that more at the forefront of when I'm looking at things.

Additionally, as previously mentioned, Lisa shared an example of a male candidate who was "pretty young," but "had these great experiences" whereas when Jordan described the "young woman" as being distinctly different than he was. Together, these examples shed light on the various ways committee members viewed candidates' race and gender and in turn how they evaluated them. Jillian compared a male and female candidate during her interview with me. She explained:

> For example, the woman who tried to pull out [of the search], she has done some really cool things with women's health, or [male candidate's name redacted] who also pulled out. I mean, he has done some really interesting things, has had a really nice career trajectory at [his institution]. He has had a demonstrated path of competency-based achievement and promotion in his area.

In discussing the strong female candidate, she referred to her simply as "that woman" while citing the male candidate's name and institution. Evaluating candidates was also influenced by comparing candidates to other individuals.

The participants spoke about how they found themselves comparing candidates to other individuals. As previously mentioned, out of the 22 examples provided, 14 of the leaders participants cited were men. Knowing that the image participants conjured when thinking about a leader led to the natural question if this affected how participants were evaluated. When I asked Lisa if she found herself comparing candidates to other leaders or individuals in leadership positions, she expressed:

> I had never thought about that until you asked, but probably,
> unconsciously. You think about people who were good to work with or
> people who had vision and then people who didn't. So yeah, I probably
> was thinking about that in my own experiences.

When I asked Cori the same question, she replied:

> We obviously compare the candidates with one another, to some extent,
> that is our job. So that's the first comparison that we make. The second
> comparison in this search is often related to the other [leaders in similar
> positions].

Both of these participants' responses demonstrate some of the ways committee members compared candidates not only to other candidates in the search, but also to other leaders they know. Brandon described how he too found himself comparing candidates in this search to other leaders. He said:

> I think some anchoring bias is natural. Your first candidate is always
> going to a set of tone of what to expect. And then typically at the end of
> the first day you sort of reassess and come up with a person who emerges
> as the top candidate. So, going into the second day of interviews, that
> person was certainly like a reference to the other candidates.

Anchoring bias could also relate to who participants think of as successful leaders going into the search. Knowing the majority of participants cited White men as leaders could affect the way they are conceptualizing leadership and in turn measuring and evaluating candidates in this search. If this is true, female candidates and other minoritized candidates would be at a disadvantage in the search process. This could explain, in part, participants' statements and views about the candidates in this search. Despite efforts in this search to standardize interview questions and rubrics used to rate candidates' materials and interviews, in this case using a leadership competency model framework, much of the evaluation process is subjective and is open to bias.

Summary of Finding Two: The Influence of Personal and Societal Constructions of Leadership on Individual Behaviors and Search Outcomes

Overall, there were a variety of ways participants acknowledged how their views of leadership influenced their behaviors and the outcomes of the search. Views of leadership are a social and cultural construction and as such vary by committee member. Therefore, it makes sense the search committee members shared experiences in which their experiences of the search were different based on their identity. This was most notable based on gender. This was replicated in many of my observations of committee members during interviews and deliberations. For example, participants in formal positions, such as the two female co-chairs felt empowered to assert their influence, while none of the other female committee members did. These views of leadership also affected how candidates were discussed and evaluated.

In finding two, I explain how constructions of leadership of search committee members may influence the behaviors and outcomes of this search. I describe the role of

the search committee and the influence individuals—the hiring authority, co-chairs, and committee members—have on the outcome of the search. I also describe how search committee members evaluate candidates. It is notable that the experiences I describe in both finding one and finding two show search committee members constructions of leadership play a pivotal role in the selection of the finalist for this executive-level search.

Finding Three: Application of the Leadership Competency Model

As discussed in Chapter Three, a leadership competency model was used to structure this search. In fact, the school of medicine where this search took place used a leadership competency model for the recruitment and development of all of its executive leaders. All of the scoring rubrics for candidate materials and interviews were mapped to these competencies. Additionally, all of the interview questions were mapped to them. This was done to create a highly structed to safeguard from individual's bias undermining the search process. However, out of all of the participants, only one of the co-chairs acknowledged a competency model was being used to guide the search. Although all members of the search committee used the standardized tools, they did not acknowledge the process was built around identifying a leader. Further, the competency model was meant to reduce their bias. By not recognizing the model, they were in turn looking for what they deemed important characteristics of a leader.

Although participants did not cite the leadership competency model in their interviews, many participants either directly or indirectly referred to one or more of the competencies. Considering no participants cited the leadership competency framework, except Cori, I looked for the top three common themes each participant cited (see Table

3) and mapped them back to the leadership competencies used in this search (see Table

2).

Table 2:
Leadership Competency Framework

	Leadership and team development	Performance and talent management	Vision and strategic planning	Emotional intelligence	Communication skills	Commitment to the tripartite mission
Alex	X		X	X	X	X
Brandon			X	X	X	
Cori	X	X	X	X	X	X
Jillian				X	X	
Jordan	X		X	X	X	X
Liam	X			X	X	
Lisa			X	X	X	
Olivia		X	X	X		X
Robert	X	X		X	X	

Consistently participants cited emotional intelligence as a key trait for a leader.

Communication skills and vision and strategic planning were also mentioned by the

majority of participants. Upon examining by gender, no major differences were found in

specific competencies.

Table 3:
Leadership Characteristics Most Commonly Discussed

Pseudonym	Leadership and team development
Alex	• Creative/Innovative • Collaborative/Team player • Inspirational
Brandon	• Good listener/Communicator • Visionary • Creative

Cori	• Ability to communicate their values effectively • Strong administrative skills • Emotional intelligence
Jillian	• Integrity • Resilient • Capacity to make decisions
Jordan	• Passion/purpose • Motivational • Resilient
Liam	• Significant contributions in their field/specialty and reputation • Leads by example • Mentorship
Lisa	• Servant leadership • Strategic planning/Intentionality • Emotional intelligence
Olivia	• Emotional intelligence • Visionary/Innovative • Practical
Robert	• Influencer/Connector • Servant leadership • Developer

In addition to being oriented to the leadership competency model, prior to the first search committee meeting, all search committee members were sent the same information about training provided by the university's Office of Equal Opportunity as well as information from the American Association of Medical Colleges on unconscious bias. All search committee members were instructed to complete these trainings. The female participants and the person of color committee member consistently had different experiences then the White male participants remembering and recalling the training on unconscious bias. Although this finding does not directly relate back to one of my research questions, I found it important to the interplay between race and gender and social and cultural constructions of leadership. Perhaps committee members view this as a compliance measure, rather than a mechanism to impact diversity.

Unanimously, the White men who participated in my study did not recall the

training they received about unconscious bias in the hiring process. In contrast, all of the

female participants and the person of color talked extensively about this training. Jillian,

Cori, Olivia, Lisa, and Brandon were all able to cite the training and that it came from the

AAMC. When asked what training she received to serve on the search committee, Lisa

shared:

> I was really surprised by how intentional this process has been. It was neat
> for them to explain just how intentional they were about 'this is the way
> it's going to go and this is why.' I think a lot of that stemmed from the
> AAMC project that they were a part of, I was really impressed by that. It
> was very intentional.

The project Lisa refers to is one designed to create leadership competencies and to map

the entire search process to them in an effort to reduce unconscious bias. Similarly, Cori

discussed:

> Brand new members of search committees receive some really nice step-
> by-step tools to help prepare for the search process. They get a link to a
> toolbox online that includes information about unconscious bias,
> information about the competency model, examples of questions related to
> structured interviews. Then on the first search committee meeting the co-
> chairs really kind of take everyone through what the process will look like.

Jillian and Lisa shared similar experiences about receiving information about

unconscious bias and how the training process for new committee members was very

intentional. They all appreciated this type of training and found it helpful as search

committee members. Brandon, who has severed on several executives searches at the

institution, shared:

> They are pretty consistent. There is an overview of the entire process,
> what to expect, the timeline. There's a review of best practices, there's an
> overview of the process and how to maintain objectivity. They talk about
> unconscious bias and unconscious bias protocol, using professional

recruiters, maintaining confidentiality throughout the process. That's all
been pretty consistent.

In contrast, the males either were not able to recall the training they received or did not

feel like they received adequate training to serve on the search committee. None of the

male participants even mentioned the topic of unconscious bias. When I asked Robert if

he had received any training, he shared:

> Not really, and I'll be honest I probably got a little bit in trouble as the, we
> got sent 30 plus CVs. I didn't know what they were looking for. It would
> have been nice to have some orientation. These are the criteria we feel
> makes a candidate competitive.

When in fact the medical school does have a set of leadership competencies that are used

for all executive searches, including this search. The purpose of these competencies is to

help ensure all executives have some common leadership traits instead of relying on

individual search committee members' views of leadership. During my interview with

Jordan he said, "No, I asked Cori questions. So, if I had a question about stuff, I would

shoot her an email and say, hey." Similarly, Liam did not recall any training in

unconscious bias. This distinction by gender is important because it highlights the fact the

White men and others in the majority group have the privilege of not having to think

about their biases.

Summary of Finding Three: Application of the Leadership Competency Model

A leadership competency model was firmed embedded throughout the search, and

search committee members used the interview questions and rubrics that mapped to these

competencies, yet for the overwhelming majority of participants this model was not

discussed or referenced. Instead, participants shared their own leadership characteristics,

some of which mapped closely to the model and others that did not. The most commonly

cited competency was emotional intelligence followed by vision and strategic planning and communication skills. There were no significant differences in gender noted.

None of the White men who participated in my study recalled the training they received about unconscious bias in the hiring process. In contrast, all of the female participants and the person of color talked extensively about this training. This raises an important question about individuals with the most privilege not having to think about or address their biases, including in this search.

Chapter Summary

In Chapter Four, I presented three research findings. I described the influence of social and cultural constructions of leadership on the search process for an executive leadership position in a School of Medicine. I did so by sharing the experiences and perspectives of the participants who participated in my study. I presented data from the interviews, with context from my observations and document analysis, that show individuals' backgrounds influence their social and cultural constructions of leadership and how these views influence committee members' behaviors and the outcomes of this search. In my third finding I discussed how the leadership competency model was applied differently by various members of the search committee. Additionally, how male and female participants remembered the training they received to serve on the search committee, specifically on unconscious bias, differently. I highlighted the significant role gender played in participants' constructions about leadership. Understanding this case, while not generalizable, provides important insight into executive searches. The findings I put forth as part of Chapter Four also contain valuable knowledge about the interplay of race, gender, and leadership. Subsequently, in Chapter Five, I provide a summary of my

dissertation, further discuss my research findings, and state the implications and

limitations associated with my study.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Through my research, I describe the experiences of an executive search committee in an academic medical center and how its members conceptualize, measure, and evaluate leadership. In Chapter Five, I provide a summary of my research study and further discuss and interpret the findings I outlined in Chapter Four. In doing so, I relate the findings I presented in Chapter Four to the scholarship I reviewed in Chapter Two. For example, I discuss how the results from my study inform prior scholarship about the leadership search process in higher education. I also lay out implications for future research and practice regarding search committees and the selection of organizational leaders. As a part of this discussion, I introduce several suggestions for best practices and strategies for executive-level hiring. I conclude the chapter by addressing the notable limitations associated with my study and provide concluding thoughts on my dissertation. Taken together, Chapter Five provides a summary of my study, includes a discussion of my research findings, and puts forth implications for the future.

Summary of the Research Study

Through this qualitative research study, I sought to gain a greater understanding of how search committee members conceptualized, measured, and evaluated candidates in an executive search. Specifically, my research questions were:

- How do members of an executive search committee construct their views of leadership?

- In what ways do the individual social and cultural constructions of leadership held by search committee members influence behaviors and outcomes of a search committee?

I successfully answered these questions by first introducing this important and previously unexamined topic to the readers of my dissertation in Chapter One. Principally, the ways search committee members come to view leadership and how these views affect the behaviors and attitudes during the search for new leaders. In Chapter One, I explained the underrepresentation of minoritized individuals in organizations, faculty positions, and especially in leadership roles and why this is significant in U.S. institutions of higher education. Additionally, I introduced my study's design, defined key terms and concepts, and provided a basic overview of my dissertation.

Subsequently, in Chapter Two, I provided an extensive review of the literature relevant to understanding the issue. I reviewed the extant literature about leadership, leadership in higher education, the leadership search process in higher education, unconscious bias in higher education recruitment and hiring, and leadership competencies. Carefully examining this research was important and it provided the foundation for my study. For example, as part of my literature review, I explored the assumptions and stereotypes about women and people of color in leadership positions (Konrad, 2003; Yoer, 2001). I also examined the various parts of the hiring process and places where equity can be infused into the process (Bensimon, 2005; Harvard University, 2016; University of Cincinnati, 2014). Finally, and most importantly, I examined the literature on unconscious bias in higher education recruitment and hiring and leadership competencies.

In Chapter Three, I outlined the scope of my research and the specific methods I followed to carry out my case study (Patton, 2002; Yin, 1994). For example, I explained the context for the case and how I recruited members of a search committee to participate

in my study (a total of 9 participants). In Chapter Three, I also presented the constructivism approach and social constructionism. The basic epistemological assumption guiding this approach is "knowledge is socially constructed by people active in the research process" (Mertens, 2015, p. 16) and researchers should attempt to understand the complex world of lived experience from the point of view of those who live it (Schwandt, 2000). The search committee members shared their experiences with me through individual semi-structured interviews. I also observed the search committee during interviews and deliberations and conducted a document analysis, which helped inform and provide context to the interviews. I transcribed the interviews I conducted with the participants, which allowed me to become more familiar with their experiences. I used ATLAS.TI to store data and assist in my analysis. Additionally, I shared half of the transcripts with two colleagues who also helped code the data. Together, I lead a discussion and review of the data, including potential themes and findings. We analyzed the data by identifying the themes that emerged from the raw data, a process sometimes referred to as "open coding," rather than examining individual words or sentences (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). I then read and reread the remainder of the data to look for particular codes, leading to the creation of themes (Huberman & Miles, 1994). After all interviews were completed and themes from the interviews were developed, I reviewed my observation notes to look for places where they confirmed or contradicted the interview transcripts. I also conducted a document analysis of qualitative data that the search committee members submitted about candidates' written materials to look for places in their comments where topics of bias emerged. According to Patton (2002), qualitative research is grounded in thick, rich description, therefore I examined the

interview transcripts for passages for these types of data. Throughout the analytical

process, I wrote analytical notes and conducted member checks to ensure the data

analysis I conducted was accurate and trustworthy (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Patton, 2002).

In Chapter Four, I presented three findings that resulted from my research study.

Through my first finding, I demonstrate the background of the search committee

members influenced how they constructed their views of leadership. This finding

confirms my initial thesis—leadership is a construction and women and people of color

view leadership differently and they are viewed differently when considered to be a

leader. Specifically, I described the influence of one's background, who was cited as a

leader, and the characteristics used to describe a leader. A consistent theme was males

and masculine traits were more likely to be aligned with leaders. For example, when

participants talked about individuals they saw as leaders, only five out of 22 examples

were women. Notably, every participant was able to clearly articulate through adjectives,

stories, and examples their description of an "effective leader." Each participant was able

to provide a clear description of an effective leader, but only one participant—the person

on the committee specifically tasked with ensuring the competency model was applied

consistently—actually cited the leadership competency model that was used to frame this

search. Through my findings, I also explain the variety of ways participants

acknowledged their views of leadership influenced their behaviors as well as the

outcomes of the search.

In Chapter Four, I presented evidence that demonstrates participants' experiences

serving on the search committee, including how they perceived themselves and others

influencing the search. Similar to the first finding, participants most notably had varied

experiences based on their gender. In general, the male participants were more willing to assert their beliefs while the female participants were often dismissive of their experience and themselves. As I stated previously, I suspect themes regarding race would have emerged had there been more participants of color in my study. To discuss this finding, I first outlined how participants exerted influence over the search, then discussed the role of the committee, and finally examined how candidates were evaluated. I received convincing data in support of this finding from my participants. At all stages of the search process, from conceptualizing the position description and sourcing for candidates through evaluating candidates during the interview process, participants' social and cultural constructions of leadership infiltrated the search process. Male participants were more likely than female participants to speak up and share their assumptions and perspectives. The exception were the two female co-chairs, who saw their role to serve as mediators between the hiring authority and stakeholders not on the search committee. One of the most interesting components to this finding was seeing how participants' constructions of leadership manifested in how candidates were evaluated.

In my study, three themes emerged about the evaluation process: participants' perceptions of candidates' interest in the position (e.g., women not willing to move due to family obligations); the role of candidates' gender and race (e.g., being more critical of minoritized candidates); and, comparing candidates to others. Despite efforts in this search to standardize interview questions and rubrics used to rate candidates' materials and interviews—in this case using a leadership competency model framework—much of the evaluation process was subjective and open to bias. This allowed me to effectively

describe how participants acknowledged their views of leadership influenced their behaviors as well as the outcome of the search.

In Chapter Four, I discussed how the leadership competency framework, put forth by the faculty affairs office that oversaw executive recruitment, was applied to this search. The leadership competency model was firmly embedded throughout the search, and search committee members used the interview questions and rubrics mapped to these competencies. Out of all of the participants, only one of the co-chairs stated the competency model was being used to guide the search and her assessment of candidates. By not recognizing the model, they were instead evaluating for what they judged important attributes of a leader. The other highlight from my third finding was that unanimously the White men who participated in my study did not recall the training they received about unconscious bias in the hiring process. In contrast, all of the female participants and the person of color talked extensively about this training. This raises an important question about individuals with the most privilege not having to think about or address their biases, including in this search. In subsequent sections of this chapter, I further discuss my research findings and put forth their implications for research and practice in the future.

Discussion and Interpretation of Findings

In my dissertation, I effectively answer my study's research questions by describing a new and previously unexamined phenomenon. Specifically, I studied how members of an executive search committee conceptualized, measured, and evaluated candidates. Findings from my research provide a greater understanding of this phenomenon and warrant additional discussion and interpretation. Consequently, I relate

the research findings I presented in Chapter Four to the extant literature I reviewed in Chapter Two. It is vital both for future research and practice that I connect these two important chapters of my dissertation. The scholarship I examined in Chapter Two provided the foundation of knowledge that guided my study and therefore directly informs my research findings. Additionally, and equally important, the findings I presented in Chapter Four help to build new knowledge within many of the topic areas of the scholarship I reviewed in Chapter Two.

I described the influence of social and cultural constructions of leadership on the search process for an executive leadership position that show individuals' backgrounds influence their social and cultural constructions of leadership and how these views influence committee members' behaviors and the outcomes of this search. In my third finding, I discussed how the leadership competency model was applied differently by various members of the search committee. I highlighted the significant role gender played in participants' constructions about leadership. Understanding this case, while not generalizable, provides important insight into executive searches. The findings I put forth as part of Chapter Four also contain valuable knowledge about the interplay of race, gender, and leadership.

For example, through my dissertation findings I confirm what is known in the literature regarding leadership as a construction; however, my research expands this to the executive search process. I also highlight the variety of ways participants acknowledged how their views of leadership influenced their behaviors and the outcomes of the search. Additionally, through my findings I illustrate the various ways a leadership competency model can be applied by members of a search committee. Subsequently, I

further interpret my research findings and discuss the knowledge construction that resulted from my study.

Views of Leadership

The proportion of women in executive leadership positions in academic medicine has remained "stubbornly and shockingly low at 12%" (Travis, Doty, & Helitzer, 2013, p. 1,414). In 2014, of all chairs, about 14% were women; women of color represented 3% of all chairs and 18% of all women chairs (Association of American Medical Colleges, 2016). In 2018, information from the AAMC Council of Deans shows the number has crept up to 16% "and that's despite a deep bench of qualified women that has existed for the past 10 to 15 years" (Travis, 2018, para 2). I originally presented this information in Chapter Two in order to provide support for my argument calling for new research about how search committees evaluate and select new executive leaders. The search committee members who participated in my study shared stories and insights regarding how they came to conceptualize leadership and in turn would use these preconceived notions to measure and evaluate candidates.

According to Yukl (2013), it was not until the 1990s that there was an interest from researchers to study leadership differences among women and men. Further, a majority of the research on leadership in the United States prior to 2000 was focused solely on the White male perspective. Additionally, much of the research on higher education leadership focuses on college presidents (Kezar et al., 2006). However, in the last 15 years, scholars have broadened the scope to include those in non-presidential leadership positions such as deans and department chairs.

In this study, I specifically focused on examining how search committee members conceptualized, measured, and evaluated leadership within the context of an executive-level search. Individuals are socialized from a young age about ideas of who and what a leader is and this becomes a filter or lens through which search committee members see candidates. Participants cited 22 examples of leaders; only five were women and for all who race was disclosed, all were White. Additionally, when women were mentioned, feminine language about them being caring and kind or "not losing their temper" was used. In contrast, many of the male leaders were admired and celebrated for their traditionally masculine leadership traits, such as being tough and decisive. When examining the lack of women in leadership positions, it is important to consider the social constructions of gender and their influence on organizations and the men and women who are a part of them. "As profound as the transformation of America's consciousness has been during the past 150 years, hidden assumptions about sex and gender remain embedded in cultural discourses, social institutions, and individual psyches that invisibly and systematically reproduce male power in generation after generation" (Bem, 1993, pp. 1-2). Bem argued it is not the notion that men are inherently superior to women, but the underpinning of that perception that is treacherous: men and the male experience are viewed as neutral, and women and the female experience as a sex-specific deviation from that norm. Thus, men are treated as human and women as "other." This male-female difference is superimposed on so many aspects of the social world that a cultural connection is thereby forged between sex and virtually every other aspect of human experience, including views of women as leaders. Participant's examples of leaders and how males and females were described substantiates current literature about cultural

stereotypes of women in leadership roles (Koenig et al., 2011). This cultural mismatch between women and the perceived requirements of leadership may fuel biased evaluations of women as leaders, or potential leaders (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Perpetuating this disparity, women tend to be associated with communal qualities (e.g., caring, compassionate, sympathetic) and men tend to be associated with agentic qualities (e.g., aggressive, competitive). In my study, I attended to the language participants used to describe male and female candidates. For example, one participant used to describe a male candidate as "a very blue collar, salt of the earth kind of guy" and someone who swears. These types of attributes and behaviors were not used to discuss female candidates. According to Martell and DeSmet (2001), women leaders are less likely to be rewarded for displaying what are traditionally viewed as more masculine leadership behaviors. Instead, women who swear or are viewed as aggressive are labeled with terms such as "bossy." In other words, women do not fit the part; they do not fit in the leadership mold.

Views of women and social constructions of leadership have tangible and catastrophic effects on women applying for leadership roles. As stated in Chapter Two, Yoder (2001) argued, "how women enact leadership is inextricably intertwined with being female" (p. 2). Because people more easily perceive men as being highly competent, men are more likely to be considered leaders, given opportunities, and emerge as leaders than women. In other words, women do not fit the role. For both male and female participants, gender was a salient theme in how leadership was discussed. When participants were asked to talk about their background, in general, the men talked extensively about their training and background. The female participants, on the other

hand, talked little about themselves and, when they did, couched their success as a part of a larger team or as the result of a community of others. This was particularly evident in the interviews with three women (Cori, Jillian, and Lisa) and the person of color (Brandon). These participants viewed their successes as intentional efforts rather than solely the result of hard work and luck. This was in contrast to some of the innate beliefs about leadership many of the male participants had.

A notable finding of my research is the unique way constructions of leadership specifically influence individual's conceptions of leadership and the executive search process. Through stories and examples, participants described how their backgrounds influenced their views of leadership and this particular search. Through these findings, I confirm what is known in the literature about leadership as a construction; however, I also expand this to better understand decisions that are made about candidates in the executive search process. The experiences Cori, Jillian, Lisa, Brandon and other participants shared provide insight to how search committee members' pasts influence current beliefs about leadership within the context of the search. It is important to note Brandon may have self-censored because of his identity as a Black male, which influenced his understanding of the organizational and search politics. This new knowledge is important because, as I outlined in Chapter Two, much of the extent literature focuses on social and cultural constructions about leadership and the challenges women and people of color face (Bem, 1993; Yoder, 2001) and does not specifically focus on how search committees conceptualize, measure, and evaluate women and people of color, which is the focus of my study. The findings from my research provide an additional and an important lens for gaining a greater understanding of search committee

members' experiences. Additionally, through this study I provide new knowledge about how search committee members' backgrounds influence their perceptions about minoritized leaders.

Influencing the Search

From the findings of my research, I provide new knowledge about the variety of ways search committee members acknowledge their views of leadership influenced their behaviors as well as the outcomes of the search. This new knowledge is both practical and theoretical and informs prior research about the role of search committee members and the search committee. Similar to the first finding, participants most notably had varied experiences based on their gender. In general, the male participants were more willing to assert their beliefs while the female participants were often dismissive of their experience and expertise, questioned themselves, and wondered if they should share their perspectives. Expression of self-doubt may have been a political maneuver for female participants. Self-doubt can function as a mechanism to not appear to assertive, in a gendered environment that views assertive women as overpowering. Additionally, people without equal power in the organization see and understand the politics differently than the White male participants. This could lead to self-censorship of minoritized committee members, such as Brandon. As I posited previously, I suspect themes regarding race would have emerged had there been more participants of color in my study.

In Chapter Four, I described how co-chairs and search committee members acknowledged and talked about their views on leadership. I explained that male participants were willing to speak up and share their concerns or assumptions about candidates, even without having all of the facts. For example, I outlined a time when

Robert shared information about a candidate he believed to be true before confirming the facts. He said, "I confirmed it after I left first round, I called [identity redacted] on my way [home]. I was like, is this the [person]? [They were] like, oh yeah." I found it disconcerting that Robert acknowledged his influence in addition to expressing his opinion to the committee before confirming the facts. This came from a place of privilege, either due to his position, gender, or both. On the other hand, female participants expressed self-doubt and when they did speak up questioned themselves later in the interview. During the interviews several examples of self-doubt or self-censorship came up in my interviews with Jillian, Lisa, and Olivia. In Chapter Four, I juxtaposed their responses with those from several of the male participants. My descriptions of these ways committee members engage during the search provides a valuable contribution to current knowledge about executive searches.

Next, I address unique findings of participants who held leadership positions in the search either as the hiring authority or co-chairs. The participants' experiences I describe inform prior scholarship and also put forth new knowledge about the role of search committee co-chairs. Participants in formal positions, such as the hiring authority and the two female co-chairs felt empowered to assert their influence, while none of the other female committee members did. As stated in Chapter Two, the research about committee chairs is limited to talking about their roles as setting a clear agenda and timeline, getting buy in from committee members, and then making sure the committee adheres to it (Harvard University, 2016). However, in this search, Cori also encouraged other committee members to evaluate candidates based on information that was known within the context of the search and to not use hearsay or speculation. For example,

instead of assuming a female candidate was not willing to relocate due to family

obligations, asking their intentions. Cori was a particularly influential co-chair by asking

others to attend to the biased assumptions that could be drawn about women and

minoritized candidates. This search was unique in that both co-chairs were female. I

doubt a committee with two White males as co-chairs would have attended to diversity

and inclusion in the same way this committee did given its two female co-chairs. Cori

also spoke about her role as a mediator, both with the hiring authority and with

stakeholders not on the search committee. She explained, "I really see myself as an

ambassador for those folks, because I know that it can be very hard to be the person who

always gets asked those questions [at the unit level]." The fact both co-chairs were

female was the one exception to the male/female perspective found throughout my

findings. Cori and Jillian felt empowered to speak up and share their perspectives. That

said, even the co-chairs were not immune to the effects of gender norms. As noted in

Chapter Four, Jillian expressed self-doubt about speaking up, while Robert and other

male participants did not disclose feelings of self-doubt. In contrast, none of the men

apologized for or felt the need to defend their decisions.

In Chapter Four, I also wrote extensively about the influence Alex had as the

hiring authority. Specifically, I shared examples of search committee members'

expressing ways Alex inserted himself into the process. For example, on at least two

occasions, he told the committee they had to interview candidates. Liam exclaimed, "It

has been made clear by [the co-chairs] too. It's like if [the hiring authority] wants to

interview somebody, that person's going to be interviewed. It doesn't matter what the

search committee thinks. So why are we here?" Regardless if they found it disruptive or

not, almost every participant had specific examples of how Alex was heavily involved in the search process. In Chapter Four, I described how this came up with several of the participants who expressed frustration or feeling like their role as a search committee was diminished when this happened. Participants' thoughts about this topic provide valuable insights and practical suggestions for how hiring authorities and other individuals in positions of authority, such as co-chairs, can influence a search committee. Further, it is important hiring authorities and search chairs do not silence the voices of participants, especially those from minoritized backgrounds. Their perspectives on leadership are sometimes nuanced and as such should be valued.

Perhaps the most important finding was search committee members' perceptions about leadership influenced how candidates were evaluated. Prior to the completion of my study, researchers addressed the intersection of leadership, race, and gender; however, they provided little, if any, qualitative data explaining how search committee members evaluated candidates based on their identity. I respond to this research gap as participants shared their perception of candidates' interest in the position; discussed candidates' gender and race; and, compared candidates to others.

Current leaders create, promote, and enforce changes at the institution. As such, they are fundamental in setting the tone for the institutional culture. Leaders are often the designated hiring authority and as such oversee the charge for search committees. However, if leaders do not recognize the need for diverse leadership, they may not charge or support search committees to do so. When a campus does not have diverse leaders, the organization's climate is more likely to perpetuate stereotypes and biases because there are a few examples to counteract this perception (Aronson, 2008). At the institution

where this case took place, the dean's cabinet had only one woman and one person of color on it. When examining the lack of women in leadership positions, it is important to consider these social constructions of gender and their influence on organizations and the men and women who are a part of them. However, merely adding diverse members to a campus will not eradicate a campus climate that marginalizes them, particularly if structures are not in place for support (Martin, 1994). The current social structure and organizational context are implicated in fundamentally maintaining these gender norms. Consequently, gender plays a role in how women are viewed as leaders and their potential for leadership. In Chapter Four, I shared several instances of participants' imposing their own beliefs, passing judgement, and making assumptions about the female candidates. For example, Jillian, Robert, and Liam all shared during their interviews they were skeptical if a female candidate would relocate, citing perceived family obligations. During my observations, I overheard similar comments from search committee members. As noted earlier, Cori reminded the group instead of speculating about the candidate's intentions they should ask her in the next round of interviews; however, at no time during my observations did I hear the search committee ask the candidate her thoughts about moving. During deliberations about this candidate, several committee members continued to question if she should move forward to the next round of interviews despite otherwise being considered a strong candidate. Similarly, the word "fit" was used 11 times in the curriculum vita review and was typically used to describe White male candidates in the affirmative while it was used as a disqualifier for minorized candidates. The nebulous use of the word fit leaves too much room for personal interpretation, judgment, and bias about a candidate rather than comparing them to the leadership competency model.

Questions about candidates' personal life and interest in the position were asked solely of female candidates and candidates of color and similar questions were not written about White male candidates. These views about minoritized candidates are not solely constructed by the participants, rather they are cultural constructions about the roles of women and family. Some of these prejudices may not be conscious because they have never been questioned or addressed; however, cultural stereotypes can make it appear women are not suited for leadership roles (Koenig et al., 2011). Further, organizations and policies perpetuate these beliefs, which can affect how minoritized candidates are evaluated and therefore hiring decisions. Universities that want to increase the number of women in leadership positions need to examine the policies they have in place well before a search committee is convened.

At the intersection of leadership and campus climate are the search committees who make hiring decisions. Search committees are the gatekeepers to the institution: they need to be aware of, understand, and demonstrate equitable hiring practices and the role of unconscious bias, if the university wishes to diversity its leadership. Search committees are often affected by organizational climate; if they do not believe in the benefits of diverse leadership, it is unlikely diverse leadership will be selected in the first place. As I cited in Chapter Two, many U.S. colleges and universities have sought to diversify faculty and staff hiring not only by issuing policy statements and mandates but also by investing in programs, initiatives, and strategies all intended to increase the number of people of color hired (Kayes, 2006). Admittedly, addressing resistance to diversity by institutions and individuals is more complex and difficult than inventing short-term initiatives, projects, and strategies. In fact, doing so will result only in

temporary and cosmetic changes in diverse hiring statistics, but not in real, long-term diversification of the institution. More people of color and women may be hired into leadership roles, but if there is an underlying organizational culture that does not value or support them, they are likely to leave or be viewed as unsuccessful and creating a revolving door effect (Kayes, 2006). It is important for organizational leaders to understand the allostatic load minoritized induvial carry and seek ways to minimize or remedy it. "Since colleges and universities are composed of people who all carry the baggage of stereotypes and biases, such institutions cannot become progressive, multicultural educational environments without the consent and cooperation of [everyone]" (p. 65). The committee is entrusted to enact upon the hiring authority's charge, institutional policies, and legal hiring regulations; however, if it is not careful, the committee can unintentionally screen out underrepresented candidates. Search committees have a tremendous responsibility, and "their decisions will shape the position criteria and the advertisement, the tone of the preliminary interview and the questions asked of candidates…and of course the selection of candidates" (Dowdall, 2007, p. 72).

As I outlined in Chapter Four, I found drastic differences in the comments about candidates' research based on gender of the candidate. The term "research" appeared 17 times in my document analysis. Of those, 16 references were to male candidates, both White and candidates of color. The sole comment about a female candidate's research highlighted that it focused on sex and gender. These seemingly benign comments about candidates can affect how search committee members and other rate and view candidates, even as early as reviewing their submitted materials. These evaluations of candidates are important not only for the search that I examined, but also because search committees'

choices will affect future leadership and campus climate—leaders who are hired through this process are the same that will later serve on search committees and shape policies and future search committees' charges. As I outlined in Chapter Two, it is the responsibility of university leaders and administrators to help search committees make more equitable hiring decisions by providing support and resources. Financial support can come in the form of providing resources so search committees can source candidates and advertise broadly. It is also important for universities to provide education and development to search committee members about how biases and perceptions can affect search decisions (Harvard University, 2016; Indiana University, 2015). Job posting systems can be used to explicitly convey the leadership competencies required for positions. According to Ottenritter (2006), these competencies should be prominent in all recruitment materials and throughout the institutions hiring processes. As mentioned in Chapter Three, the institution at the center of this study did in fact have a leadership competency model and infused it into all stages of the search, including all of the tools used in the search. Given the unique work of institutional leaders, it is critical to use competencies to evaluate potential leaders during the hiring process.

Attending to Equity

The truth is there is a playbook when it comes to leadership and White men wrote it. As I highlighted in Chapter One, higher education and academic medicine have more women and people of color graduating and entering entry-level faculty positions; however, there will continue to be a barrier for women and people of color from entering senior leadership positions, such as the one being recruited in this search, if search committee members continue to use current leaders as the model. This pitfall is not one

that happens only to White male committee members either. The equity issues outlined in Chapter One, when viewed through the lens of participants in Chapter Four, create an opportunity for understanding the need to implement a leadership competency framework and attend to unconscious bias in the search process.

The findings I presented in Chapter Four confirm many of the conclusions contained within scholarship about unconscious bias that I reviewed in Chapter Two. It is also interesting that the findings from my research present new knowledge about the infiltration of bias into the search process despite the use of a leadership competency model. Prior to my study, there was little, if any, scholarship that examined the use of a leadership competency model as a tool to raise awareness about and mitigate the effects of bias in a search process. Making this connection is important because as my dissertation shows, organizations still have a long way to go to attend to equity in the search process. Unconscious bias is inextricably woven into every search process, often to the detriment of people of color and women. As Rudman (2014) wrote, "biases that we do not acknowledge but that persist, unchallenged, in the recesses of our minds, undoubtedly shape our society" (p. 130).

In Chapter Two, I reviewed the extant scholarship about unconscious bias (LeDoux, 2003; Pitts, 2017; Stone & Moskowitz, 2011) especially within the context of the search process (e.g., Beattie et al., 2013; Ziegert & Hanges, 2005), and leadership competency models (Mallon & Buckley, 2012; Palmer et al., 2015). The participants in my study provided direct evidence that despite the use of a leadership competency model and structures in place to guide the search, issues of bias were still intricately interlaced into the search process. In fact, when I asked participants about what guided their

evaluation of candidates only one participated cited the leadership competency model specifically. In Chapter Four, I shared several interview quotes from participants who discussed the characteristics they looked for in candidates. These quotes show that the participants each brought their own perspectives to the search, although many could be linked back to the competency model.

Until recently, there have not been any widely accepted leadership competencies to evaluate potential university leaders. As I cited in Chapter Two, within academic medicine Mallon and Buckley (2012) found there was a gap in identifying leadership competencies. In fact, often "search committees lack clarity regarding expectations for members, selection criteria, and even the search process itself" (Palmer et al., 2015, p. 426). Academic medicine, often considered a niche area within higher education, did not have a clear set of competencies against which to evaluate leaders until the past few years (Mallon & Buckley, 2012; Palmer et al., 2015). Instead, Palmer et al. (2015) found "candidates are often still judged primarily on the strength of their academic credentials on the basis of the assumption that the skills that lead to being a well-funded, tenured, high-ranking faculty member will translate into being an effective [leader]" (p. 425). In Chapter Four, I provided quotes, supported the fact that although all members of the search committee used the standardized tools, they did not acknowledge the process was built around identifying a leader. Further, the competency model was meant to reduce their bias. By not recognizing the model, they were in turn looking for what they deemed important characteristics of a leader.

In Chapter Two, I outlined the research on unconscious bias. Researchers in social psychology show that, "over time stereotypes and prejudices become invisible to those

who rely on them" (Stone & Moskowitz, 2011, p. 768). This automatic categorization can unconsciously trigger thoughts (stereotypes) and feelings (prejudices), even if these reactions are explicitly denied and rejected. This suggests attitudes and stereotypes can shape how search committee members and other leaders evaluate and interact with minoritized candidates. This creates differential views of what types of experiences and leadership characteristics or values are even noticed in a candidate. Research that specifically addresses biases and the recruitment of women and people of color into university leadership positions specifically is even more limited. Beattie et al. (2013) examined the role of unconscious bias toward ethnic diversity in the evaluation of candidates under consideration during an academic search process. When participants were given curriculum vitae with photographs of White and non-White applicants, Beattie et al. (2013) observed that "irrespective of ethnicity, participants across the sample held a moderate pro-White bias" (p. 193). As such, both explicit and subtle forms of discrimination regularly occur in hiring decisions.

In Chapter Four, I shared a story about Jordan's talking about a candidate he felt comfortable with saying, "I'm the kind of person that tries to read people or, how can I say this: Do I want to have a beer with him?" According to psychologist Joseph LeDoux (2003), we have biases or a natural tendency to feel more comfortable with people who are like us; those who are similar in race, gender, religion, age, and many other characteristics. Like Liam and Robert, Jordan expressed interest in a leader who he felt he could relate to on a personal level. In the interview, Jordan went on to talk about a "young" female candidate he would also be open to having a beer with. His pejorative use of the word "young" would likely not be used for a fellow White male candidate at a

similar point in their career. It is important to know Jordan also ignored the leadership competency model when evaluating this candidate and instead relied on his personal biases and "gut" to evaluate the candidate. As previously stated, it is more common for women and minoritized individuals to be judged for personal characteristics (e.g. age and appearance) rather than their professional background and competency to do the job. Whiteness and bias are influenced by one's background and identity and can cause individuals to look at the same thing, person, or project, and depending on their perspective, they might interpret it completely differently. This was the case for Liam who expressed a strong desire to select a candidate with an international reputation as a scientist and with a history of externally-funded research. Similarly, Lisa talked about how a physician from her same specialty would be well-suited for this position and even went so far as to highlight candidates' backgrounds in the review of candidates' materials. As noted in Chapter Four, each search committee member brings a lifetime of experience and cultural history that shapes the evaluation process for individuals evaluating candidates in a search (University of Cincinnati, 2014). "If the use and impact of bias is not acknowledged and addressed, the process for recruitment, selection, and advancement can be flawed, resulting in some candidates being underestimated and/or disadvantaged unfairly, while others are inadvertently advantage" (p. 14).

Unconscious biases can often be in conflict with individual's conscious attitudes, behaviors, and intentions. In fact, implicit bias can sometimes cause an incongruence between values and belief systems and actions and when there is a disconnect between one's values and beliefs (e.g., treat everyone fairly regardless of race or sex) and one's unconscious bias (e.g., affinity bias, gender bias), this can cause cognitive dissonance

(Van Ryn & Saha, 2011). This explains, in part, the fact that despite espoused commitments to diversity, both on the organizational and individual level biased comments continue to hinder the consideration of women and people of color in this search.

Workshops or other trainings can help search committee members and other leaders learn about and become aware of their own biases and can teach them skills that reduce bias when they interact with minoritized candidates. However, as stated in Chapter Two, according to Ross (2013), the most important thing in learning about one's biases is accepting that bias is natural and ever-present, so people can learn to watch for it in themselves and help others to do the same.

There are things that can be done to mitigate the negative impact of biases on organizational decision making. By becoming aware of and accepting that we all have bias, we can learn to watch for it in ourselves and help others who work with us to do the same (Ross, 2015). This process of building awareness is particularly important during the search process, given the lack of information and quick pace at which decisions are made about candidates. Institutional policies and practices and individual beliefs may contribute to the discrimination of women and people of color. Despite organizations' and individuals' commitments to diversifying the candidate pool, seemingly small decisions or omissions can have drastic consequences during the search and screen process particularly for candidates who are people of color and women. Further, at the level of university leader, several real and perceived barriers continue to exist due to how positions are written and announced and how applications are screened. Researchers found simply having a name that sounds Black can reduce the chance of getting an

interview (Bertrand & Mullainathan, 2004) and women described with feminine job titles (e.g., "chairwoman") were perceived (by men) to be significantly less warm and marginally less competent than women with masculine job titles (Budziszewska et al., 2014). Similar trends have been identified in virtually every aspect of the talent management and recruiting system. This phenomenon is true *even at organizations actively recruiting for candidates from diverse backgrounds*. As noted in Chapter Two, some universities provide education and development to search committee members about how biases and perceptions can affect search decisions (Harvard University, 2016; Indiana University, 2015). This is an important measure, but focusing on the individual search committee instead of examining organizational and systemic barriers is myopic.

Adding structures and systems into the search process can assist in reducing the effect of implicit bias from search committee members and leaders. "When search committees structure the interview process, they are more effective at predicting success, forming consistent evaluations, and reducing discrimination" (Brecher et al., 2006, p.155). One way this can be done is by creating a uniform structure to the screening process as this creates consistency. Researchers (Bragger et al., 2002) have found the use of a structured interviewing process, in which questions are consistent across candidates, has been found to reduce bias relative to unstructured interviews. In this search, structured interview questions and tools were used; however, as stated in Chapter Four, although participants used them, many did not seem adequately trained or familiar with the purpose of these tools. In fact, during deliberations, I observed committee members questioning the purpose of the structured interview because they believed it created a chilling effect for participants and that it felt robotic.

However, safeguards can be put in place around many aspects of talent management including recruiting, interviewing, hiring, promoting, and performance reviews. In addition to attending workshops and trainings, it is important for individuals engaged in the search and screening of candidates to engage in self-reflection about their own biases. As reported in Chapter Two, Ross (2015) suggested a series of reflective questions search committee members and leaders can ask themselves:

- "Does this person's resume remind you in any way about yourself?"

- "Does it remind you of somebody you know? Is that positive or negative?"

- "Are there things about the resume that particularly influence your impression? Are they really relevant to the job?"

Questions like these can help individuals to consider if their biases are affecting how they are rating or evaluating a particular candidate. If a member finds he or she has a bias (either positive or negative) toward a candidate, he or she can pause, consider what informs this bias, and restart reviewing that candidate from the beginning. For example, if a candidate comes from an academic program that the reviewer knows someone else came from and that person was not knowledgeable or competent, in their opinion, the reviewer is likely going to have a negative bias. Search committees can also commit to engaging in regular and ongoing conversations about individuals' biases throughout the search process—from drafting the posting to the final search committee meeting where a decision is made regarding who to suggest to the hiring authority. This is important because researchers such as Ehrlinger et al. (2005) and Pronin et al. (2004) have found individuals believe they have few biases and that their biases will not affect their ability to make an objective judgement. Bias may be as natural as breathing—and it may be

impossible to completely eliminate—but by shifting one's mindset and inviting constant inquiry into how decisions are made, organizations can recruit and retain people of color and women into leadership positions.

Implications

My research study has several implications for policy, practice, and research. These implications are especially important considering ongoing disproportion of White men in leadership positions despite declared efforts to hire and retain more women and people of color into executive leadership roles. In my dissertation, I described how search committee members conceptualize, measure, and evaluate candidates for an executive leadership search. Once more, little was understood about this phenomenon prior to the completion of my study. Consequently, not much was previously known about how to address the search process to make it more equitable. Subsequently, I present several practical strategies for how organizations, hiring authorities, and search committee members can meet this immediate need. Although all members of an organization play an important role, leaders have a unique role in setting its vision and direction and the selection of new leaders is an important ritual that must be studied and understood. Comprehensively, my study furthers what is known about leadership and provides practical findings that support those who entrusted with hiring the next generation of leaders.
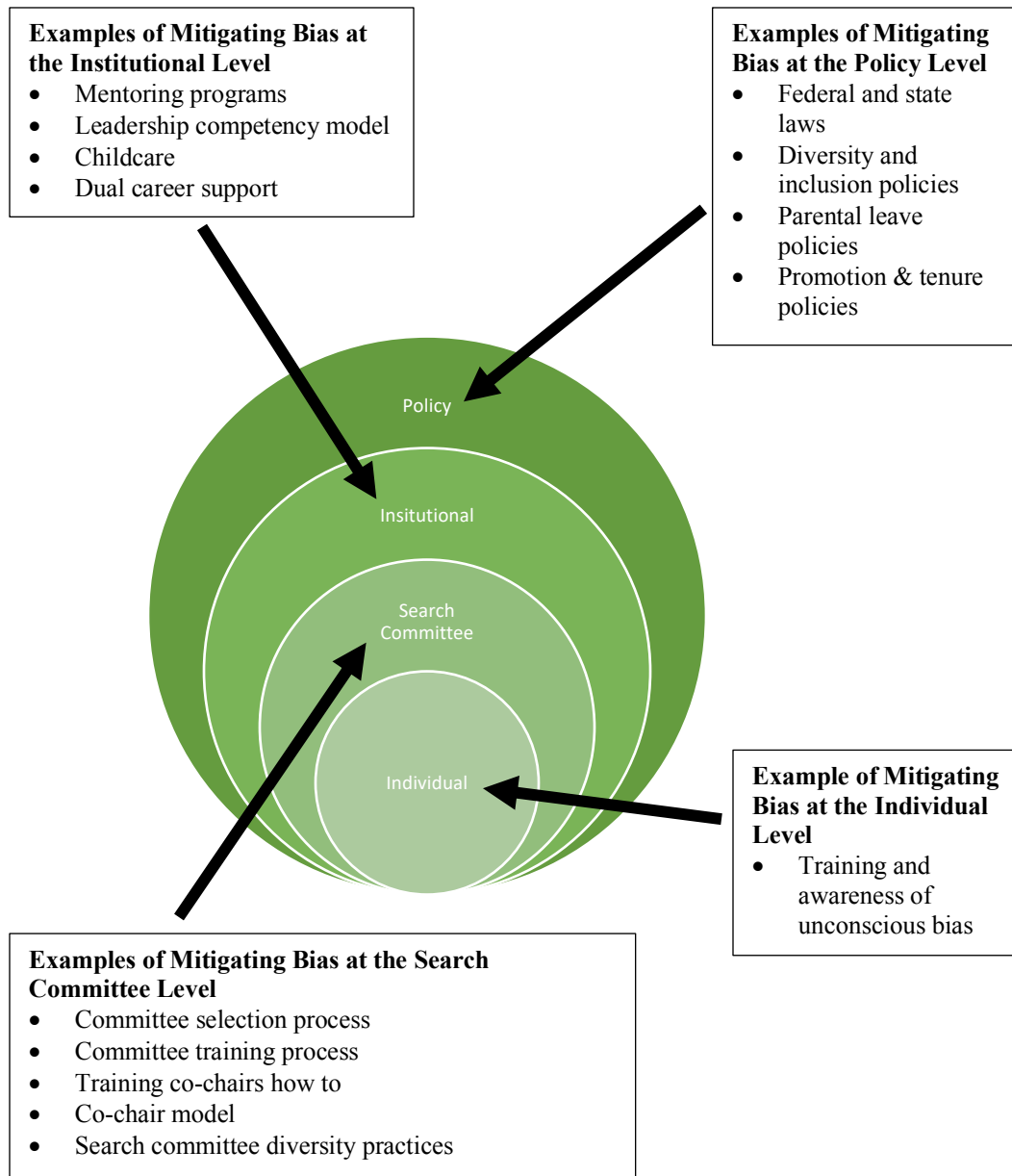
Implications for Policy

In order to truly address the systemic barriers to women and minoritized individuals from being hired into executive leadership positions, applicable laws and policies must be scrutinized. I intentionally lead with this section, because until

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organizations put policies in place the gender and racial disparities will likely continue. Within the United States—at a federal and state level—laws can help to ensure more fair and equal treatment as well as hold organizations accountable. Additionally, organizations have a responsibility to enact policies and procedures that attend to more equitable hiring practices. Within the United States, various federal and state laws exist that mandate organizations adhere to certain standards about gender, race, dis/ability, and other identity groups. These laws have helped to drive change in hiring practices; however, more can and should be done to influence those hired into C-suite and executive positions.

At the organizational level, policies must be implemented to create an organizational culture where diversity is not only welcomed, but fully embraced. Many organizations attempt to advertise a commitment to diversity and equity, but lack the deeper culture (i.e., values, beliefs, and traditions) to sustain it. Within higher education and academic medicine, many model policies and procedures already exist. The AAMC Analysis in Brief (Corrine, 2009) is a perfect example. The institution in this study used this as the foundation of its training for search committee members. However, creating a culture that embraces diversity and a myriad of people must also create policies that extend beyond the search and screen process. For example, creating promotion and tenure policies that allow faculty members who are parents to stop or extend their tenure clock due to family obligations would ensure a more equitable review process for all faculty. Although these policies may not directly affect the search process for executives, they establish an institutional culture that allows all individuals to thrive.

The ultimate goal is to mitigate bias in the search and screen process. Prevention requires understanding the factors that influence how search committee members conceptualize, measure, and evaluate leadership. This model (Figure 1) considers the complex interplay between individual, search committee, institution, and policy factors. The overlapping rings in the model illustrate how factors at one level influence factors at another level. As indicated in Figure 1, the focus of individual search committee members is on self-awareness about personal views about leadership and biases. At the search committee level, more diverse efforts were stated, including how search committee members were prepared to serve on the committee and the guiding principles of the search. At the institutional level, family considerations (e.g., child care, dual career) and formal professional support structures (e.g., mentoring programs) would help support faculty members. Approaches at the policy level included laws and policies that guide not only the search but also the entire organization.

Figure 1:
Equity Programs by Social Ecological Level

Examples of Mitigating Bias at the Institutional Level
- Mentoring programs
- Leadership competency model
- Childcare
- Dual career support

Examples of Mitigating Bias at the Policy Level
- Federal and state laws
- Diversity and inclusion policies
- Parental leave policies
- Promotion & tenure policies

Policy

Insitutional

Search Committee

Individual

Example of Mitigating Bias at the Individual Level
- Training and awareness of unconscious bias

Examples of Mitigating Bias at the Search Committee Level
- Committee selection process
- Committee training process
- Training co-chairs how to
- Co-chair model
- Search committee diversity practices

This conceptual framework was developed in conjunction with examining the literature and the findings from this study. This does not mean all institutions must adopt the conceptual framework in full. Rather, every organization has a distinctive history, context, and vision that preclude such uniformity. Figure 2 provides one additional tool

among many for localized consideration and adaptation. It may be that the framework

excites debate, disagreement, and ultimately a departure from some or all of its tenets.

Implications for Future Practice

The findings of this study also provide useful implications for practice. I have

divided these implications into two broad categories: organizational contexts that

influence the search process (See Figure 2) and search conditions that influence

committee members (see Figure 3). I begin by outlining the organizational contexts that

are necessary to ensuring an effective and equitable search process. Although the factors

that influence a committee member can vary, I will address the role of using a leadership

competency model, providing training on unconscious bias, and creating structure in the

search process (e.g., using a co-chair model), all of which were present in the search I

examined. Additionally, I will discuss the importance of looking across searches to look

for common themes. Although all conditions are important, developing a strong culture

for diversity, equity, and inclusion is the most important, because this serves as the

bedrock to other conditions. It is also necessary to actively address unconscious bias both

in the context of searches, but also across the organization. If organizations and leaders

can develop a culture where diversity, equity, and inclusion and unconscious bias are

openly discussed and challenged—especially by leaders and individuals with majority

identities—then the other conditions (e.g. a leadership competency model and resources

dedicated to the search process) will be more widely accepted. As shown in this case,

even tools in place, search committee members and other members of the community will

not always simply adopt or use other tools in the search process.
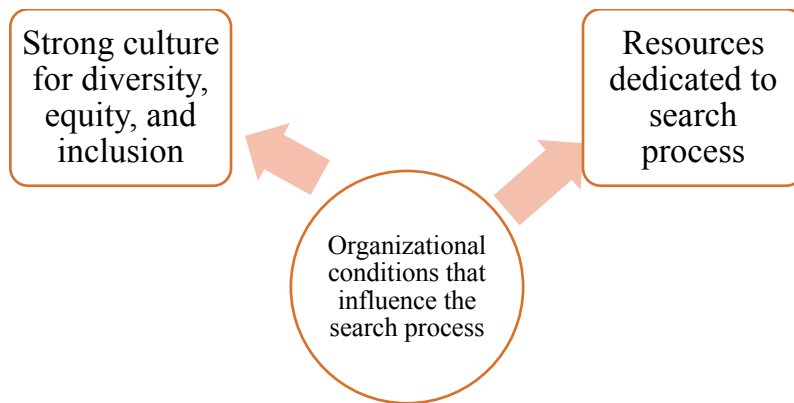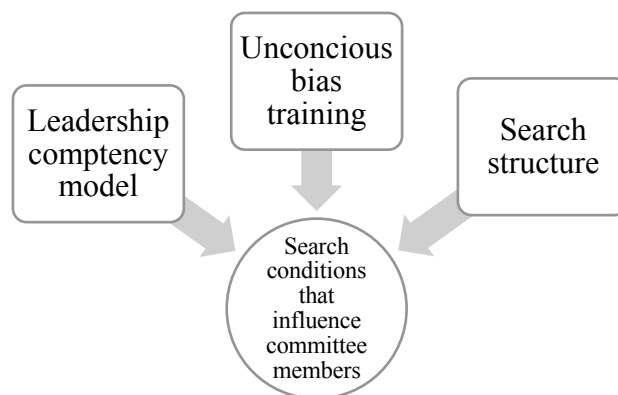
Figure 2:
Organizational Conditions

Figure 3:
Search Conditions

Through this study, I demonstrate unconscious bias continues to affect how search committee members discuss and evaluate candidates for leadership positions. What accounts for these inequities in the executive search process despite a continuous call by institutions and hiring authorities for more diverse leaders? A growing body of researchers, including myself, suggest that part of the problem is unconscious implicit bias. All of us absorb social stereotypes and assumptions, often without ever realizing it, but left unexamined they risk leaving us to behave in discriminatory ways. These biases are not just about race, but also about gender, age, dis/ability, and a variety of other identities. Research has found no matter race or gender, there is an unconscious

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preference for White people/male leaders. How do we close the divide? It starts by speaking the uncomfortable truth that it exists, and then we can break the problem into parts that we can tackle. First and foremost, all organizations need to integrate implicit bias training. Search committees can also commit to engaging in regular and ongoing conversations about individual's biases throughout the search process—from drafting the posting to the final search committee meeting where a decision is made regarding who to suggest to the hiring authority. This is important because researchers such as Ehrlinger et al. (2005) and Pronin et al. (2004) have found individuals believe they have few biases and that their biases will not affect their ability to make an objective judgement. Ideally, these conversations do not just happen in the context of the search process, but also within all major policy decisions at an organization. When people are given the knowledge implicit bias exists they can become more aware of how it affects how they conceptualize, measure, and evaluate leadership and leaders.

My research also demonstrated how a structured search process could help attend to equity issues. For practitioners, this finding provides support for the creation or use of a leadership competency model inclusive of structured interview questions and evaluation tools. In this search, committee members used and accepted many of the byproducts (e.g. the candidate evaluation rubrics) of the competency model, but did not widely adopt the model as a cultural norm of the committee. It is important for practitioners to provide training and background on a leadership competency model, so it is fully embraced and utilized by search committees. Equal Opportunity and faculty affairs offices, that often oversee faculty and leader searches, can also create uniform feedback forms regarding candidates' written materials and interviews. These forms can specifically ask search

committee members and other candidates to provide feedback in specific areas, rather than "trusting their gut." "When search committees structure the interview process, they are more effective at predicting success, forming consistent evaluations, and reducing discrimination" (Brecher et al., 2006, p. 155). As noted in this study, training and orienting committee members to this model and the reasons for using it are important. It is necessary to be explicit with the search committee about the institution's objectives around diversity in the position and to encourage the search committee to think broadly about diversity beyond gender, race, and ethnicity, to include sexual orientation and religion, for example.

Additionally, the use a of a co-chair model with one co-chair from the faculty affairs office helped to moderate conversations about candidates during committee deliberations. It is important to select search committee co-chairs who will take an active leadership role in driving the process and holding the search committee accountable to its agreed-upon search process. In order to implement this model, practitioners need buy-in from the very top of the organization (e.g. President, Chancellor, or Dean). The benefit of this model may extend beyond the search committee, such as providing consistency across searches however that was not the focus of this study.

Administrators and hiring authorities need to consider how committees are supported in the form of human and financial resources to support the search process is necessary. In this particular search, the search was managed in-house, instead of hiring an external search firm, which is often the case with executive-level searches. This meant that the institution hired several full-time staff to support the search process and committee. Regardless if a search firm is used or not, administrators must ensure search

committee members are allocated the time and resources they need to be successful. For faculty, that may mean a release from teaching or clinical responsibilities. Additionally, institutions need to consider what type of training they will provide search committee members. In this search, committee members were provided with resources on unconscious bias (Corrice, 2009), which is an important first step; however, training and discussions about unconscious bias and how leaders are evaluated needs to be incorporated throughout the search. As stated in Chapter Four, none of the White male committee members recalled receiving any training on unconscious bias and only one committee member, one of the co-chairs, cited the leadership competency model.

Another way to use systems as a check and balance is for an organization to look across multiple searches to pinpoint places in the system where breakdowns are occurring rather than looking at the outcomes of one search. For example, if people of color and women are not applying for leadership positions, there may be an issue about the sourcing. On the other hand, if the majority of people of color and women do not make it past the review of curriculum vitae and other written material, there may be unintended bias on behalf of the search committee members during the screening (Steinpreis et al., 1999). Again, this can and does happen despite a commitment to hiring more diverse candidates. Similar metrics can be used post-hire to examine the percentage of faculty leaders who are still at the institution one or five years later, and the percentage who have been promoted.

Finally, I propose steps that can be taken at each step of the search to increase equity throughout the search process (see Table 4). As previously mentioned, these steps

are not enough and must occur within the broader context of an organization that supports

diversity, equity, and inclusions.

Table 4:
Equity-Minded Search Process

Stages of Search	Traditional Search Model	Proposed Search Process to increase Equity

Pre-Search (Planning)	• Select search committee members
	• Advertise job posting; passively accept applications
		• Develop common leadership competencies
		  o Develop standardized interview questions
		  o Develop standardized evaluation rubric for evaluating candidate materials and interviews
		• Sourcing strategies that attract diverse candidates; proactively source candidates

Orientation & Training	• Convene search committee and receive a charge from hiring authority	• Provide robust training on unconscious bias • Encourage ongoing dialogue among committee members about bias and the leadership competency model throughout the search
Screening	• Review candidate's materials	• Blind review of candidate's application materials, using standardized evaluation rubric
During Search	• Interview candidates • Engage stakeholder input	• Use Co-Chair model • Use standardized interview questions and structured interview style
Post-Search	• None	• Conduct an after-action review

Finally, I draw attention back to Ross' (2015) series of reflective questions search committee members and leaders can ask themselves:

- "Does this person's resume remind you in any way about yourself?"

- "Does it remind you of somebody you know? Is that positive or negative?"

- "Are there things about the resume that particularly influence your impression? Are they really relevant to the job?"

Taken together, these implications can help improve the practice of executive searches. It is necessary to consider a search within the organizational context. What are the organization's commitments to the advancement of women and minoritized individuals? How do institutions support diversity and inclusion (e.g., human and financial resources)? Examining an organization's distinctive history, context, and vision will allow practitioners to make decisions about the specific search conditions that make sense locally.

Implications for Future Research

This study offers useful new information about how search committees conceptualize, measure, and evaluate leaders. However, based on the research questions, the focus of this study was on the individual search committee members. To maximize the utility of these findings, additional research should be conducted. I offer the following suggestions for future research.

Because this study examined only one search, I was limited by the diversity of the search committee. Additional research should be conducted to examine searches that are not led by female chairs to see what differences emerge. Examining searches with various compositions of committee members (e.g., more minoritized committee members or less

of a gender divide) would provide valuable information about how this affects the discussion and evaluation of candidates. Further, it would allow an exploration into the experiences of people of color serving on a search committee.

Future research should examine these research questions with different methods. Specifically, I propose future research use more robust observation methods to examine the differences that occur during the interviews, deliberations, and among conversations between committee members. This would allow for researchers to better understand the construction of leadership within the context of a search committee. Additionally, a quantitative approach could be applied to examine what differences exist in how search committees evaluate candidates when using a leadership competency model.

Limitations

There are several limitations associated with my study. It should not be understated, my positionality as a White male affected my research. I am neither a woman nor a person of color and therefore I cannot fully understand what it is like to be a search committee member or a candidate with one or both of these social identities. Participants, particularly women and people of color, likely responded to me differently given both my role as an insider and as a White male. Although it is impossible to fully account for this limitation, I remained cognizant of this constraint as I carried out my research study. One way I tried to mitigate this limitation is by centering the voices and experiences of the women and person of color who participated in my study. I did this by using numerous interview quotes to describe their perspectives and experiences. In this way, my description of the phenomenon was more about conveying the participants' thoughts, perceptions, and emotions, about these topics than it was about my own

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personal interpretations. As mentioned in Chapter Three, another way I tried to mitigate this limitation was to have two colleagues, including a White woman, participate in part of the coding and analysis of the data. Taken together, my commitment to an asset-based approach to inquiry allowed me to carry out an ethical research study conscious of the lived experiences of the participants, particularly the female ones.

There were some limitations in terms of the methods employed. I aimed to examine the social constructions of leadership in this study; however, interviews were the main source of data collection and the observations were used to provide contextual information. Therefore, I gathered limited data about the social interactions between committee members. This could be done by recording the committee meetings, which would allow for a richer analysis of the interactions. Additionally, the search ended up not being completed and the committee had to "relaunch" and go to a second round of candidates. Originally, I was going to continue my observations, but due to time constraints was not able to do so. If I could had observed the search committee in this second round I may have had more richness in committee observation data.

This particular search committee was not particularly diverse in terms of race. There was only one person of color on the search committee and no people of color were advanced to the interview stage of the search. As mentioned earlier, Brandon had unique perspectives about the search and it would be helpful for future researchers to examine a search with multiple committee members of color. Future research is needed to gain a better understanding for other searches and committee members and their unique experiences. My study is useful insofar that it describes a new and previously

unexamined phenomenon. Additional research is needed to further understand this phenomenon and its effects on executive searches and the field of leadership overall.

Chapter Summary

In Chapter Five, I provided an overview of my dissertation, further discussed the findings that resulted from my research, and put forth the implications and limitations that are associated with my study. In order to accomplish this goal, I first provided a synopsis of my research study. The summary included an overview of the scholarship I previously reviewed as well as the method procedures I implemented to carry out my study and answer my research questions. Subsequently, I further discussed and interpreted the research findings that resulted from my study. I related the findings I presented in Chapter Four to the extant scholarship about social and cultural constructions of leadership, unconscious bias in recruiting and hiring, and leadership competencies I reviewed in Chapter Two. I also revisited several of the examples participants shared in order to further describe their experiences. I then presented implications for implications for future research and practice regarding search committees and the selection of organizational leaders. I concluded Chapter Five by discussing my study's limitations which include my positionality and the lack of generalizability of my research.

Concluding Thoughts

The strength of my dissertation is contained within the nine participants who participated in my research. Their willingness to allow me to "pull back the curtain" and observe all stages of the search process allowed me to gain valuable insight to this process. Their feedback was honest and insightful. It also required a high degree of

vulnerability, especially given my insider status with the organization. I am deeply grateful the participants allowed me to learn from them and in turn share their experiences with the hopes of improving future searches. It is my hope my dissertation will lead to positive changes in how universities and other organizations inside and out of higher education conduct searches for executives in the future.

APPENDICES

Appendix A
E-mail Recruitment Letter

Dear Dr. LAST NAME:

I am conducting research for my dissertation, "What Makes a Leader: Examining How Search Committees Conceptualize, Measure, and Evaluate Leadership." In addition to my role as Director of Faculty Development in Faculty Affairs | Professional Development | Diversity, I am a doctoral candidate in the Urban Education Studies program through the IUPUI School of Education.

The aim of this study is to investigate how search committee members evaluate candidates for leadership positions. Moreover, how they conceptualize, measure, and evaluate leadership potential of candidates. With your help, I hope to develop research that will provide helpful information for future executive searches at IU School of Medicine and beyond.

As a member of the [redacted] search committee, you have first-hand knowledge of the leadership skills and competencies needed for this leadership position. I would sincerely appreciate your participation in my study by participating in an interview with me. These interviews will be in addition to me observing the CV review and interview debrief search committee meetings.

Your identity and the specific search will not appear in the study or during the presentation of any results. If you have any questions or concerns, please do not hesitate to contact me at [e-mail redacted], my dissertation director, Dr. Stephen Hundley at [e-mail redacted], or my dissertation chair, Dr. Megan Palmer at [e-mail redacted].

Sincerely,

Shawn Wilson

INDIANA UNIVERSITY INFORMED CONSENT STATEMENT FOR

IRB Study 1901942281

What Makes a Leader: Examining How Search Committees Conceptualize, Measure, and Evaluate Leadership
Study Information Sheet

Please read this form and ask any questions you may have before agreeing to participate in the study.

This research study is being conducted as a part of Shawn Wilson's research project for his dissertation through the Indiana University School of Education-Indianapolis, under the direction of Dr. Stephen Hundley.

STUDY PURPOSE
The aim of this study is to investigate the social and cultural constructions of leadership and how search committee members evaluate candidates for leadership positions. Moreover, how they conceptualize, measure, and evaluate leadership potential of candidates. The purpose of this work is to share the narratives and themes of individuals entrusted to evaluate candidates' leadership. This evaluation may help improve the quality of future searches.

INCLUSION CRITERIA
To be eligible to participate in this study, participants must be employed by [redacted] University. Participants will be identified by their membership on a search committee.

PARTICIPATION
If you agree to be in the study, you agree to participate in a one-hour audio recorded interview.

RISKS OF TAKING PART IN THE STUDY
This study involves minimal risk, that is, no risk to your physical or mental health beyond those encountered in the normal course of everyday life. There is a risk of loss of confidentiality.

BENEFITS OF TAKING PART IN THE STUDY
You may not gain any direct benefits from this study. However, by sharing your experiences, you will be helping future search committees and administrators better understand how to conceptualize, measure, and evaluate leadership, particularly during the search process.

VOLUNTARY NATURE OF STUDY
Taking part in this study is voluntary. You may choose not to take part or may leave the study at any time. Leaving the study will not result in any penalty or loss of benefits to which you are entitled. You will not receive payment for taking part in this study.

CONFIDENTIALITY
All data will be maintained as confidential and no identifying information, such as names, will appear in any publication or presentation of the data. Interviews will take place in a mutually agreed upon private location. Outside of the research team, data will not be shared, unless required by university policy (the IU Institutional Review Board or its designees) and (as allowed

by law) state or federal agencies (specifically the Office for Human Research Protections (OHRP).

FUTURE USE
Information collected from you for this study may be used for future research studies or shared with other researchers for future research. If this happens, information which could identify you will be removed before any information or specimens are shared. Since identifying information will be removed, we will not ask for your additional consent.

CONTACTS FOR QUESTIONS OR PROBLEMS
For questions about the study, contact Shawn Patrick at [phone number redacted] or [e-mail redacted]. Alternatively, you can contact Shawn's faculty supervisor and the research project's PI, Dr. Stephen Hundley at [e-mail redacted] or [phone number redacted]. If you cannot reach the researcher, please call the Human Subject office at [phone number redacted], or by e-mail at [e-mail redacted].

For questions about your rights as a research participant or complaints about a research study, contact the IU Human Subjects Office at [phone number redacted].

Participant's Name: _____   **Signature: _____**

Date: _____

Appendix C
Interview Protocol

A. Introduction

Thank you for making the time to speak with me and help me with my dissertation research. As you may be aware from our prior communications, my dissertation is focused on how search committees evaluate candidates for leadership positions— how they conceptualize, measure, and evaluate leadership potential of candidates. The hope is that this study will help improve the quality of future searches.

Before beginning, I want to confirm you have had a chance to ask any question about the informed consent document and are okay with me recording our conversation. Do I have your permission to audio record?

B. Background Information

I would like to begin by reflecting on your experiences as a search committee member.

1. Will you please describe your current position with the University and the nature of your professional background?

2. How were you selected to be a member of the Search Committee?

3. Did you have any informal or formal training or orientation, or was any offered during the committee process, that prepared you for participation as a member of the committee?

    Probe: Have you served on similar committees in the past?

4. To what extent had you known or worked with other committee members prior to the search activity? Did this affect the search process?

5. Did see yourself comparing candidates to other leaders or individuals?

> Probe- How do you think this affected your evaluation of the candidates in this search?

C. Social and Cultural Constructions of Leadership

Next, I would like to learn more about your views of leadership.

6. What characteristics do you think of when you think of an effective leader?

   Probe- How did you come to develop your opinion of these characteristics or traits for leaders? For example, what experiences have informed this?

7. In what ways do successful leaders develop these qualities?

D. Evaluating Candidates

Finally, let's talk about how you evaluated the candidates in this search.

8. Did you agree with the hiring authority's view for this position shared during the charge meeting?

9. Did any members of the search committee (yourself included) have differing opinions about what the slate of finalists for this position looked like?

10. What were some of the most important aspects of the search process that had an impact on your decision about candidates? Is there anything you give more emphasis to? If so, why?

11. Was your point of view heard or perspective was considered by other members of the search committee?

12. Do you think your views of leadership influence the outcomes of the search committee as a whole?

E. Conclusion

13. Is there anything else you would like to share with me about your experience on

this search committee that I have not asked?

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CURRICULUM VITAE

Shawn M. Wilson

EDUCATION

GRADUATE

Indiana University degree earned at IUPUI Indianapolis, IN	Ph.D. Urban Education	2020
Ball State University Muncie, IN	M.A. Student Affairs/Higher Education	2011
Ball State University Muncie, IN	Graduate Certificate College & University Teaching	2011

UNDERGRADUATE

University of Wisconsin Oshkosh Oshkosh, WI	B.S. Communications	2009
Fox Valley Technical College Appleton, WI	Technical Diploma Emergency Medical Technician	2006

APPOINTMENTS

ACADEMIC

Faculty Affairs, Professional Development, Diversity Indiana University School of Medicine Indianapolis, IN	*Director of Faculty* Development	2016-Present
Technology Leadership & Communication Indiana University-Purdue University Indianapolis Indianapolis, IN	*Adjunct Faculty*	2016-Present

NON-ACADEMIC

Off. of International Affairs Indiana University-Purdue University Indianapolis Indianapolis, IN	*Inter. Student Advisor*	2015-2016
Off. of Student Advocacy & Ed. Partnerships Indiana University-Purdue University Indianapolis Indianapolis, IN	*Student Advocate*	2013-2015

Student Housing Services   *Residence Hall Dir.*   2011-2013
University of Hawai'i Mānoa
Honolulu, HI

PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONAL MEMBERSHIPS

Association of American Medical Colleges (AAMC),   2017-Present
Group on Diversity & Inclusion

Professional and Organizational Development (POD) Network   2017-Present

American Society of Engineering Education (ASEE)   2017-Present

Association for the Study of Higher Education (ASHE)   2016-Present

American Educational Research Association (AERA)   2016-Present

Association of American Medical Colleges (AAMC),   2016-Present
Group on Faculty Affairs

PROFESSIONAL HONORS AND AWARDS

William M. Plater Civic Engagement Medallion   IUPUI
                                                      2020
This award is given to graduates at IUPUI who have excelled in their commitment to community service.

Outstanding Teacher Award   IUPUI
2017
Each year the school of Engineering and Technology solicits nominations for notable teachers, as judged by students.

Spotlight on Research   Ball State University
2010
Each year the graduate school solicits nominations from faculty members for students who have engaged in exceptional research. I was nominated and recognized along with several other graduate students on my research program and we were recognized by the dean of the graduate school.

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Indiana Healthcare Leadership Institute   2019

Intergroup Dialogue Course   2019

AAMC Group on Diversity and Inclusion Annual Meeting		2018-Present
Cook Ross / AAMC, Everyday Bias Train-the Trainer		2017
Inside-Out Prison Exchange Program Instructor Training		2017
POD Annual Meeting		2017
POD Institute for New Faculty Developers		2017
AAMC Group on Faculty Affairs Annual Meeting		2016-Present
ASHE Annual Meeting		2016-2018
AERA Annual Meeting		2016

TEACHING

GRADUATE

School of Medicine, Indiana University

Course	Title	Format	Role	Term	Enrollment
FCP 1	Foundations of Clinical Practice	F2F	Co-Instructor	Fa 19	12

UNDERGRADUATE

Technology Leadership and Communication, School of Engineering and Technology, IUPUI

Course	Title	Format	Role	Term	Enrollment
OLS 26300	Ethical Decisions in Leadership	Online	Instructor	Fa 19	10
				Fa 19	18
				Fa 18	17
				Fa 18	16
				Su 18	16
				Fa 17	19
				Fa 17	19
				Su 17	18
				Sp 17	20
				Fa 16	20
				Sp 16	13

Course	Title	Format	Role	Term	Enrollment
OLS 27400	Applied Leadership	Online	Instructor	Sp 19	19
				Sp 18	20
				Sp 17	20
OLS 42300/ 56300	GO GREEN	Study Abroad	Graduate Co-Instructor	Su 17	16
TCM 18000	Exploring Intercultural Technical Communication	F2F	Co-Instructor	Sp 20	12
TCM 37000	Oral Practicum for Technical Managers	F2F	Co-Instructor	Sp 18	6
TCM 32000	Written Communication in Sci. & Industry	Online	Instructor	Fa 20	16

Department of Philosophy, School of Liberal Arts, IUPUI

Course	Title	Format	Role	Term	Enrollment
PHIL-P 383/525	Topics in Philosophy: Imaging a Just Society	F2F*	Graduate Teaching Assistant	Fa 17	9

Department of Anthropology, School of Liberal Arts, IUPUI

Course	Title	Format	Role	Term	Enrollment
ANTH-A 380/681	Urban Anthropology	F2F*	Graduate Teaching Assistant	Fa 16	16

* Courses taught in a correctional facility as a part of the Inside-Out Prison Exchange Program.

University College, IUPUI

Course	Title	Format	Role	Term	Enrollment
UCOL 110	First Year Seminar	F2F	Instructor	Fa 14	24
UCOL 110	First Year Seminar	F2F	Instructor	Fa 15	25

Department of Communication, College of Communication, Information, and Media, Ball State University

Course	Title	Format	Role	Term	Enrollment
COMM 111	Fund of Public Communication	F2F	Graduate Instructor	Sp 11	20

Educational Leadership, Teachers College, Ball State University

Course	Title	Format	Role	Term	Enrollment
EDHI 200	Intro to Personnel Services	F2F	Graduate Co-Instructor	Sp 10	20

SERVICE

SCHOOL

Faculty Learning Community on Research in Medical Education, Planning Committee Member, IU School of Medicine, 2019-Present

Policy Committee, Member, IUPUI School of Education, 2019-2020

Grievance Committee, Member, IUPUI School of Education, 2019-2020

Search and Screen Committee for Director of Continuing Medical Education, Committee Member, IU School of Medicine, 2019

Search and Screen Committee for Director of Diversity Initiatives, Chair, IU School of Medicine, 2018

Search and Screen Committee for Center for Interprofessional Education, Director of Evaluation, Member, IU School of Medicine, 2017

LGBTQ Healthcare Update Conference, Planning Member, IU School of Medicine, 2016-2018

Search and Screen Committee for Ombuds, Member, IU School of Medicine, 2016

CAMPUS

E.C. Moore Teaching Symposium, Planning Committee Member, 2017-Present

Search and Screen Committee for Associate Registrar, Member, IUPUI, 2015

Student Conduct Appellate Board, Member, University of Hawai'i Mānoa, 2011-2013

Athletics Appeal Committee, Member, IUPUI, 2013-2015

JagsCARE, Member, IUPUI, 2013-2015

Office of Equal Opportunity Council, Member, IUPUI, 2014-2015

Sexual Assault Prevention, Intervention, & Response Task Force, Member, IUPUI, 2014-2015

Behavioral Consultation Team, Member, IUPUI, 2013-2015

PROFESSIONAL SERVICE

LOCAL

Adult Learn-to-Swim, Volunteer Instructor, 2018-Present

Big Brothers Big Sisters of Central Indiana, Volunteer, 2014-2018

Second Harvest Food Bank, Volunteer, 2009-2011

Christine Ann Domestic Abuse Shelter, Volunteer, 2007-2009

REGIONAL

OutCare Health, Board Member, 2016-2019

INTERNATIONAL

International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education, Doctoral Student Reviewer, 2017-2018

INVITED SERVICE PRESENTATIONS

Wilson, S.   2020
5 Ways to Rethink How Learners Receive Feedback
Indiana University School of Medicine, Child Neurology

Hoffmann-Longtin & Wilson, S.   2020
Peer Review of Teaching Training
Indiana University School of Medicine

Patrick, S.   2020
Unconscious Bias in the Learning Environment
Indiana University School of Medicine, Southern Indiana Clinical Preceptors Conference

Patrick, S. 2020
Safe Space Training
Indiana University Health Physicians- Fort Wayne

Tori, A. & **Patrick, S.** 2019
Unconscious Bias in the Learning Environment
Indiana University School of Medicine, Central Indiana Preceptor's Conference

Meagher, A. D. & **Patrick, S.** 2019
Unconscious Bias in Healthcare
Indiana University School of Medicine, Orthopedic Surgery Grand Rounds

Tori, A. & **Patrick, S.** 2019
Unconscious Bias in the Learning Environment
Indiana University School of Medicine, Genetic Counseling Clinical Supervisor Symposium

Tori, A. & **Patrick, S.** 2018
Safe Space Training
Indiana University School of Medicine, Adolescent Medicine

Tori, A. & **Patrick, S.** 2018
Unconscious Bias in Healthcare
Indiana University School of Medicine, Rheumatology Grand Rounds

Tori, A. & **Patrick, S.** 2018
Unconscious Bias in Healthcare
Indiana University School of Medicine, LGBTQ Healthcare Update Conference

Tori, A. & **Patrick, S.** 2018-2020
Unconscious Bias in Healthcare
(quarterly)
Indiana University School of Medicine, New Provider and Faculty Orientation

Cico, S. & **Patrick, S.** 2017
Promising Educational Practices in Undergraduate Medical Education
Indiana University, Medical Student Education, Curriculum Council Steering Committee Retreat

Hoffmann-Longtin & Wilson, S. 2017
Peer Review of Teaching Training
Indiana University School of Medicine

Hoffmann-Longtin, K. & **Patrick, S.** 2016
Strengths Quest
Indiana University, Medical Student Education, Lead Advisor Retreat

Allaei, S., Carroll, C., **Patrick, S.**, Lemons, S., Schrader, R.   2015
Working with International Students in Sexual Violence Prevention Efforts
Indiana University

SCHOLARSHIP

RESEARCH

Articles

1. Hernandez, R., Hoffmann-Longtin, K., **Patrick, S.**, Tucker-Edmonds, B., Rucker, S., & Livingston, N. (2020). The Conscientious Use of Images Illustrating Diversity in Medical Education Marketing. *Academic Medicine: Journal of the Association of American Medical Colleges*.

2. Stuckey, S. M., Collins, B. T., **Patrick, S.,** Grove, K, & Ward, E. (2019). Thriving versus surviving: Benefits of formal mentoring program on faculty well-being. *International Journal of Mentoring and Coaching in Education, 88*(4), 378-396. doi: 10.1108/IJMCE-02-2019-0024

3. **Patrick, S.**, & Wessel, R. (2013). Faculty Mentorship and Transition Experiences of Students with Disabilities. *Journal of Postsecondary Education & Disability*, *26*(2), 105-118.

Conference Proceedings

1. Hoffmann-Longtin, K., Morgan, Z., **Patrick, S.**, Cico, S. (2018). Engaged and Satisfied: The Similarities and Differences between Paid and Volunteer Faculty in Academic Medicine. Paper presented at the 2018 Annual Meeting of the American Education Research Association Conference, New York, New York, 2018.

2. Ferguson, W., Copridge, K., Clark, J., & **Patrick, S.** (2017). I am still standing: Acts of resistance within Black women in the pre-tenure process. Critical Race Studies in Education Association Conference. Indianapolis, Indiana. May 2017.

3. Saelua, N., Chang, T. H., **Patrick, S.**, & Museus, S. D. (2016). Examining the Relationship of Culturally Engaging Campus Environments on Sense of Belonging for First Generation and Non-First Generation College Students. Paper presented at the 2016 Annual Meeting of the Association for the Study of Higher Education Conference, Columbus, Ohio.

4. Wessel, R. & **Patrick, S.** (2012). Faculty Mentorship for Students with Disabilities. National Association of Student Personnel Administrators. Phoenix, AZ. March, 2012.

5. Wessel, R. & **Patrick, S.** (2012). Experiences of Students with Disabilities Mentored by a Faculty Member. American College Personnel Association Annual Convention. *Acknowledgement: Sponsored Program*. Louisville, KY. March, 2012.

SERVICE

Conference Proceedings

1. Hoffmann-Longtin, K., Palmer, M. M., Walvoord, E., **Patrick, S.**, & Dankoski, M. (2019). Are we ready yet? How faculty developers can help institutions and faculty prepare for accreditation. Assessment Institute. Indianapolis, IN. October, 2019.

2. **Patrick, S.**, Brod, H., Mulder, D., & Hackworth, J. (2019). Do you have an appointment?: Faculty Appointments and the Underrepresentation of Women and URMs in Leadership Roles. AAMC Group on Faculty Affairs Conference. Chicago, IL. July, 2019.

3. Camp, R., **Patrick, S.**, Fox, P., & McIntyre, C. (2018). A study abroad course leads to a service learning project. American Society for Engineering Education Conference. Salt Lake City, UT. June, 2018.

4. Austrom, M., Tori, A., Sotto, S. & **Patrick, S.** (2018). IUSM and LCME: Lessons learned from element 3.3. AAMC GDI Conference. St. Louis, MO. May, 2018.

5. Tori, A. J., **Patrick, S.**, Jacobs, M. R., & Fogel, J. M. (2017). Improving LGBTQ+ competency training in a large Midwestern healthcare system. Transforming Care Conference. Columbus, OH. October, 2017.

6. Hoffmann-Longtin, K., Palmer, M. M., **Patrick, S.**, & Walvoord, E. (2017). Are we Ready Yet? The Role of Faculty Affairs in Training for LCME Accreditation. AAMC Group on Faculty Affairs Conference. Austin, TX. July 2017.

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1. **Patrick, S.**, Palmer, M.M., Dankoski, M. Gawor, S. & Sotto, S. (2019). Developing the Business Acumen of Current and Future Leaders in Academic Medicine. AAMC Group on Faculty Affairs. July 2019.

2. **Patrick, S.**, & Pistilli, M. D. (2015). From Concept to Reality: Assessment in Student Advocacy. Assessment Institute. Indianapolis, IN. October, 2015.