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A Few Good Women: Gender and the Glass Ceiling in the California City Manager
Offices

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Requirements for the degree
Doctor of Public Administration

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Department of Public Administration

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A Few Good Women: Gender and the Glass Ceiling in the California City Manager

Offices

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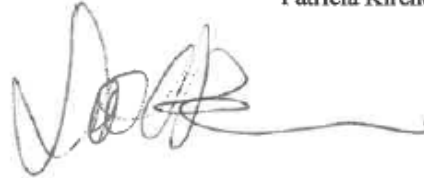
Division of Online and Professional Studies at California Baptist University

in partial fulfillment of the requirements

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ABSTRACT

Purpose. Glass Ceiling barriers have long been thought substantial reasons why women do not achieve senior-management-level positions. The purpose of this qualitative research study was to investigate the perceptions of women leaders on the potential impact of the glass ceiling on their careers. Furthermore, this study investigates the impact of mentoring and networking on women breaking the glass ceiling.

Theoretical Framework. The theoretical framework of this research was rooted in representative bureaucracy theory. This theory proposes that the public sector should be a reflection of the community to ensure that policy and programs are enacted with social equity.

Methodology. The methodology used for this research study was qualitative descriptive research with the purpose of describing the impact of the glass ceiling, mentoring, and networking of female city managers in the state of California. The researcher used surveys collected from current female California city managers to determine how the women perceived the impact of the glass ceiling, mentoring, and networking had on their careers. The data were put through statistical analysis to determine internal consistency through Cronbach's alpha.

Findings. Examination of the qualitative data yielded some surprising results. Even though the women reported the glass ceiling as a barrier to their careers, there have also been positive changes in the last 30 years. Furthermore, the respondents also feel that mentoring and networking have had a positive impact on the glass ceiling.

Conclusions and Recommendations. This study adds to the body of knowledge by using qualitative data to establish perceptions of the glass ceiling from the point of view

of female city managers. Furthermore, it observes the changes in the glass ceiling over the past 30 years. It also confirms the impact of mentoring programs and networking on the careers of women seeking senior-level positions.

Keywords: gender, municipal government, glass ceiling, leadership, mentoring, networking

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DEDICATION

This research is dedicated to my amazing husband, John A. Donaghy. Thank you for all the support and for believing in me even when I could not believe in myself. Your sacrifices during this journey were noticed and appreciated. Together we dare mighty things!

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

The glass ceiling is not only an egregious denial of social justice that affects two-thirds of the population but a serious economic problem that takes a huge financial toll on American business. Equity demands that we destroy the glass ceiling.

—Robert B. Reich

Chapter 1 commences with an introduction to the study followed by an overview of women as leaders. The problem statement is presented after the women as leaders section. This is followed by the background of the problem, purpose statement, and subjects of this study. Perceptions are the cornerstone in the completion of this dissertation. After a discussion of perceptions are the research questions, limitations, and definitions of terms. The chapter concludes with a summary and the plan for the remainder of the study.

A tremendous amount of literature has been written on the glass ceiling throughout the decades. The federal government understands that this issue is important, thus time and resources have been dedicated to exploring the topic; however, since the 1990s, very little has been written. In particular, very little focus has been placed on the subject of women in local government administration.

The lack of literature on the glass ceiling in local government is the gap in the literature that this research study fills. This gap is especially important because local government is the domain of government closest to the people. Local municipal governments are generally made up of people who live in the community and desire the betterment of the community as a whole. Furthermore, the impact of local government

policies is felt by women most of all (Van Donk, 2000). The rationale of this statement is rooted in traditional gender roles; women are the primary consumers of municipal service (Van Donk, 2000) and hold the socially constructed role of primary caregiver to the family. Thus if basic infrastructure—like utilities, access to healthcare, or affordable childcare—are absent or inadequate, the roles of women in the community are negatively impacted. Instead of participating in the economy where essential services are absent, women are required to expend energy on securing the basic needs of the family (Van Donk, 2000). Consequently, women may have to spend more time caring for sick family members or caring for children in the home. Finally, if basic infrastructure is insufficient, women may have to spend the day securing safe food and water sources. Access to essential services is necessary in the lives of women in order to lighten workloads in their homes and to allow them to be active, productive members of the economy. With the traditional gender roles of women so closely tied to the policies and programs of local government, it would stand to reason that women would best represent women. Given this unique connection that women have with local government, it is remarkable that gender has mostly been ignored in local government as a site of struggle for social and gender equality (Van Donk, 2000).

The 1960s in the United States was a time of social and political unrest. Dwight Waldo determined that public administration in its current state was not in a place to respond to the escalating turmoil across the country caused in part by an inherent distrust that had been associated with public administration (Getha-Taylor, 2009). Waldo identified a need to overhaul the ethical responsibilities of the public sector and to rebuild trust (Getha-Taylor, 2009). Thus, in 1968, at the encouragement of Waldo, H. George

Frederickson and other prominent public administrators embarked upon a journey to have a significant influence on local government policies and programs by moving toward a more ethical public service through changing underlying values that support public service and public servants in any sector (Getha-Taylor, 2009). The 1960s era of public administration was when social equity joined efficiency and effectiveness as pillars of public administration. In 2000, the National Academy of Public Administration (NAPA, n.d.) established the standing panel on social equity; it put forth the following definition for social equity in public administration:

The fair, just and equitable management of all institutions serving the public directly or by contract; and the fair and equitable distribution of public services, and implementation of public policy; and the commitment to promote fairness, justice, and equity in the formation of public policy. (NAPA, n.d., para. 3)

Norman-Major (2011) added to this definition of social equity in public administration with three additional noteworthy aspects including “fairness and equal treatment of all. Distribution of resources in such a way as to reduce inequalities in universal programs and services. Redistribution of resources to level the playing [field] held through targeted programs” (p. 238). Although “new public administration” has increased focus on advancing social equity since 1968, virtually all research has been from the inside looking outward (Norman-Major, 2011, p. 238). Public administrators have paid little to no attention to social equity on the inside of its halls.

This research study focuses on social equity inside of public administration with particular emphasis on a single specific part of social equity-gender equality. There is evidence in the literature that supports the idea that women are the primary consumers of

social programs; however, these programs are typically designed and regulated by men (Bolzendahl & Brooks, 2007). Accordingly, more women need to be in the position of city manager to ensure that policy implementation fairly represents the needs of women. For this to happen, the glass ceiling in the city manager's office must be shattered.

Barriers that make up the glass ceiling have roots back to America's early labor history. Furthermore, the amount of literature on the glass ceiling is far-reaching, all-encompassing, and extensive. As previously stated, this research study sought to fill the gap in the glass ceiling literature by exploring female city managers' perceptions of the glass ceiling's impact on their career progress.

Women as Leaders

Over the last few decades, numerous studies examining and contrasting the managerial styles of women and men have been conducted and published. Most of the early studies perpetuate the stereotype that the role of women in the workplace was to be in a subordinate position. Women do not have the leadership or decision-making skills nor are women willing to take risks to rise to the senior management levels (Moldovan, 2016) .

Later research, such as the study done by Guy (1993), observed that integrating the strengths that various forces and interests bring to governing is critical to women's integration into managerial positions. Guy argued that the differences attributed to men and women are exploited to justify the exclusion of women from top positions (Guy, 1993). However, in the new public administration where social equity is the measure of the efficiency and effectiveness of public policy and programs, those differences attributed to women, such as mediating, commitment to social justice, consensus

building, and facilitating, are strengths too compelling to ignore. A woman's capacity to consider the human element is an advantageous skill in decision-making and leadership roles in today's public administration. More simply put, women possess the indispensable skills to facilitate building bridges, which in today's increasingly collaborative workforce are essential.

Studies have promoted the idea that female managers tend to favor transformational leadership styles and this type of leadership style is advantageous for organizational change. Bass and Avolio (1994) proposed that women in general see the world as a network. This stands in stark contrast to Bass and Avolio's descriptions of men seeing the world as a hierarchical and competitive. Fading are the days of the hierarchical work environment; today's workplaces tend toward relationship building and are highly collaborative, two characteristics that can be seen as highly feminine (Meier, O'Toole, & Goerdel, 2006). Additionally, employees are empowered to look beyond their self-interests (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Despite this knowledge, organizations have been quick to benefit from the transformational assets women offer because organizations have been slow to engage in strategic planning that prioritizes the hiring, mentoring, and promotion of women.

According to Rosener (1990), in "Ways Women Lead," successful female leaders have a natural leadership style or approach that is fundamentally different from the style of most male leaders. Rosener characterized female leadership as "interactive" (p. 119). She further suggested that an interactive leadership style is more valuable as the pace of organizational change continues to accelerate. Furthermore, Rosener maintained that interactive leaders encourage organizational participation. Interactive leaders work

incessantly try to make every member of the organization feel like they are part of an organization in a variety of ways. This type of leader shares power and information enthusiastically without diminishing her or his power. Interactively leaders are transparent in their decision-making process (Rosener, 1990). Some studies express the opinion that women are more supportive of social policies and programs. With this in mind, it can be argued that women leaders will play a critical role in transforming public-sector leadership (Grogan, 2000; Helgesen, 1990) and turn it in the direction of social equity and justice.

Chapter 1 continues with the background of the problem including a brief overview of the barriers that make up the glass ceiling followed by the study's problem statement, purpose, and background. Three fundamental research questions that serve as the focus of the study are introduced and the study's significance, limitations, and key terms are presented. The chapter concludes with a summary followed by a preview of the organization of the rest of the study.

Problem Statement

As a descriptive research study, this dissertation takes a different approach to the metaphor of the glass ceiling. Most explore how the glass ceiling has affected the careers of women who have reached the position of city manager in the state of California. In addition, this study investigates how countermeasures like mentoring and networking have affected the careers of female city managers.

The research analyzes the survey questionnaire sent to all female city managers in the state of California with the intent to understand and describe the barriers encountered by these women as well as any countermeasures that they feel in some way mitigated the

process. This is a particularly significant study because most research done on this subject previously focused on the perceptions of the glass ceiling as a barrier to be overcome. Very little research has been done that focuses on women who have broken through the glass and possible countermeasures that aid more women in shattering this barrier, indicating that this area of the research is essentially unexplored.

Background of the Problem

The purpose of this section is to explore the context of the problem women in executive positions at the city manager level face. This study examines several types of barriers women face, which include gender discrimination, stereotypes, the glass ceiling, work-life balance, and lack of mentoring, conflicting roles, pay equity, and the effects of creating a representative bureaucracy.

For more than 150 years, women have been moving in the direction of equality of the sexes in economics, politics, society, and the law with most progress happening in the last 50 years. World War II is the historical turning point for the feminist movement (Stout, 2012). Progress has been made in attaining equality between the genders. However, the glass ceiling is still intact but fractured.

Notwithstanding the present challenges, women have slowly transitioned from homemaker, wife, and mother to entering the workforce. This social change has occurred both by altering society and by women having the desire to be more than what society tells them to be. Since women began entering the workforce en masse during World War II until now, women have been primarily delegated to clerical and support staff (Guy, 1993). Additionally, it is not unusual for women to work harder for less pay and little

recognition for their effort (Wirth, 2001). Mainly, they are still on the outside looking in at most of the policy-making-level jobs.

Notwithstanding the slow advance women have made into the upper ranks of the workforce, it is also important to note the demographic makeup of the United States. As of July 1, 2017, the total population of the United States was 325,719,178; women make up 50.8% of that population (U.S. Census Bureau, 2017). The population of California in July of 2017 was 39,536,653 of which women made up 50.3% (U.S. Census Bureau, 2017).

Women and men should be equal participants in their social, cultural, academic, and economic life (Michailidis, Morpitou, & Theophylatou, 2012). However, in the 100 years that have passed since women attained the right to have a voice in policy making by winning the right to vote, they still face many of the same challenges as did their counterparts in the women's suffrage movement. Despite diligent effort for social change, there are still gender stereotypes in the workplace, and the glass ceiling, despite everything, is intact though cracked.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this descriptive research study was to investigate and describe how the glass ceiling has or has not influenced the professional journey of women who have successfully reached the position of city manager in California. The author examined how the wage gap may or may not have influenced a female city manager's career path as part of the glass ceiling. Related to the wage gap as a glass-ceiling barrier, the researcher explored promotion bias to determine if that has had an impact on the careers of female city managers. Additionally, the researcher probed whether and how

gender stereotyping has affected the career path of female city managers. In addition, the study investigated gender stereotyping, which for this study included balancing work and home responsibilities, child and elder care, and perceptions of women as being less capable than men in the work environment. A second purpose of the study was to explore and describe the effectiveness of glass ceiling countermeasures of mentoring and networking at aiding women propelling their career advancement through the glass ceiling to the position of city managers.

Subject of Study

The subject of this research study included all women who held the position of city manager in the state of California for the qualitative survey phase of this study. At the time research began, the number of women holding the position of the city manager was 73.

Perceptions

Most scholarly literature focuses on the glass ceiling as a barrier that needs to be overcome. This study approaches the glass ceiling from a different perspective: the perspective of women who have succeeded in breaking through the glass ceiling. Therefore, it relies heavily on the analysis of the perceptions of the women whose career progressed to that of the city manager. This difference is important. Perceptions are constructed. Perceptions are not external to people as independent realities but are constructed by how individuals negotiate reality (Gergen, 2009). Schacter, Gilbert, and Wegner (2011) described perception as a technique people employ to organize, identify, and interpret sensory information in order to characterize and comprehend the presented information or the environment. Webster's dictionary defines perception as a "mental

image or an observation” (paras. 1a and 1b). Therefore, the idea is that a person’s actions, behaviors, and opinions are born out of how the individual perceives the reality, not reality itself (Robbins, 1993). Individuals attempt to simplify the complex world by assigning order, structure, and meaning to the world. Thus a person’s perception of the world relies heavily upon the construction of a set of categories in which external stimuli can be organized and categorized (Berger & Luckmann, 1966; Bruner, 1957). This organization and categorization enhances the ways individuals are connected to the world. This categorization can be compared to the factors in factor analysis, more specifically, the constructs that underlie the relationship among the variables.

For the purposes of this study, female city managers were asked to provide their opinions on how the glass ceiling has affected their career. Additionally, female city managers were asked to provide their opinion on how the glass ceiling has changed in the last 30 years. Finally, these women were asked to provide an opinion on what impact mentoring and networking has had on breaking the glass ceiling.

Research Questions

Central Research Question

What are the perceptions of female city managers concerning the glass ceiling and its impact on women seeking higher level administrative careers in public service?

Subquestions

1. What aspects/elements of the glass ceiling have had an impact on the professional journey of current female city managers?
2. What aspects/elements of the glass ceiling have changed in the past 30 years?

3. What countermeasures are effective in ameliorating some of the aspects/elements of the glass ceiling?

These research questions were designed to glean a deeper understanding of how women who have broken the glass ceiling perceive the aforementioned glass ceiling. Moreover, the research questions were designed to gain a better understanding of these women's feelings about the changes in the glass ceiling over the last 30 years and to understand if the countermeasures of mentoring and networking have an impact on the glass ceiling.

Limitations

Numerous limitations of this study include the limited participant pool. A search of the League of California Cities website garnered 73 current female city managers, all of whom were invited to participate in this research study. At the conclusion of the data collection period, a total of 26 women had completed the questionnaire. This study focused only on the perceptions of female city managers, with no input from male city managers, which is another limiting factor. A third limiting factor was geographic. The data collected may be significantly different if the data collection was done in a different state.

Definitions of Terms

Glass ceiling. The invisible barrier created by social and organizational prejudices, which block women for senior-level positions (Wirth, 2001).

Representative bureaucracy. Bureaucracies should be a reflection of the demographic makeup of the community they represent.

Patriarchy. Refers to a deep-rooted practice of placing males at the center of domestic, social, and political life. In a patriarchal social structure, women are second-class citizens (Licea, 2013).

Gender. Gender describes the social and cultural interpretation of sex or, more precisely, the cultural magnification of sexual difference and commensurate suppression of similarities between women and men (Rubin & Reiter, 1975).

Social equity. Social equity is defined as government responsiveness in decisions, and implementation of policy and programs is based on the needs of the community as a whole, not the needs of a specific demographic or the needs of the organization itself (Frederickson, 1990).

Summary

This study did not set out to show that gender inequity exists in municipal government. Nor did it set out to prove the glass ceiling exists, because it is widely known that both not only survive but are happening currently. What this study did was to use the theoretical frameworks for representative bureaucracy and feminist political theory to support the qualitative collection and analysis of data from women in municipal government to find out what the individual experiences of women in executive management-level positions have experienced in seeking to advance their careers to senior-level positions.

Organization of the Study

Chapter 1 introduced the study presenting the statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, the questions to be answered, the significance of the study, and the definitions of terms.

Chapter 2 is a review of the relevant literature. It addresses the following topics: theoretical framework, representative bureaucracy theory, perceptions of the glass ceiling, and countermeasures to the glass ceiling, and concludes with a summary and conclusion.

Chapter 3 presents the methodology used in the study, including the research design, population and sampling procedure, and the instruments and their selection or development, together with information on validity and reliability. Each of these sections concludes with a rationale, including the strengths and limitations of the design elements. The chapter describes the procedures for data collection and the plan for data analysis.

Chapter 4 presents the results of the study. Chapter 5 discusses and analyzes the results, culminating in conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Bureaucracy is not an obstacle to democracy but an inevitable complement to it.

—Joseph Schumpeter

Historical Background

Most studies done by researchers studying representative bureaucracy have focused on career bureaucrats, street-level bureaucrats, or mid-level managers in public agencies (Saidel & Loscocco, 2005). Little to no attention has been paid to the focal point of this study, which is the local public agency of the city manager's office.

The purpose of this study was a little different from that of previous studies on the glass ceiling. This study sought to fill the gap in the glass ceiling literature that has been left by both public administration scholars and the federal government by studying how the glass ceiling affected the career path of female city managers in the state of California.

Chapter 2 is structured in a way to explain the glass ceiling as a social construct that can be overcome. This chapter begins with the historical background of public administration since its founding in 1887 and continues through the conferences that have had a major impact on its evolution and development. The chapter then contains a discussion of two pillars of modern public administration: social equity and representative bureaucracy. Both of these pillars grew out of the conferences noted above and have a direct relationship to gender bias and the glass ceiling.

Theoretical Foundations: Social Equity and Representative Bureaucracy

Pre-Minnowbrook Public Administration

Although the practice of public administration can be traced historically for thousands of years, the discipline of public administration as a profession or career in the United States is a recent phenomenon. It was not until 1887 when Woodrow Wilson's seminal essay, "The Study of Administration," defining the role and responsibilities of public administrators was published that the discipline became a topic of academic discussion and practice. Wilson stated in his essay that the "science of administration is the newest branch of the science of politics" (p. 16). Wilson focused his thoughts on what public administration should be by critiquing the governments of Europe. He felt that European governments were where the science of public administration grew up, not the United States. Wilson (1887) stated that the science of administration should "seek to straighten the paths of government to make its business less unbusinesslike to strengthen and purify its organization and to crown its dutifulness" (p. 18). Wilson theorized that European governments were well suited for growing the science of public administration due to the majority of them being monarchies. He felt that monarchies needed public administration because there was governing to do and the desire to keep the government's monopolies motivated the governing body to find the least irritating way of governing possible.

Woodrow Wilson (1887) believed that there were two examples of near-perfect public administration throughout history. Prussia, under the rule of Frederick the Great, became one of the most studied cases of public administration. Wilson thought that public administration in Prussia had nearly reached the summit of the mountain called

perfection. Frederick the Great considered his position as a “servant of the state” and built on the framework of his father’s rules for organizing an administration dedicated to public service (Wilson, 1887, p. 204). Wilson believed that Napoleon’s French Administration was another example of “the perfecting of civil machinery by a single will of an absolute ruler before the dawn of a constitutional era” (p.19).

Conversely, Wilson (1887) thought the United States had it wrong and could learn the art of governance through a study of successful governments in Europe. Wilson stated that the discipline of administration is composed of the field of business, which should be separate from politics. The dichotomous nature of administration was not studied separately from politics before the 19th century even though it had been entwined in the science of politics from the beginning. Wilson added, “Administration lies outside the proper sphere of politics. Administrative questions are not political questions. Although politics sets the tasks for administration, it should not be suffered to manipulate its offices” (p. 22). The notion of a politics/administration dichotomy set forth by Wilson became one of the major pillars of public administration.

Political theorist Frank J. Goodnow agreed with Wilson’s concept of a politics /administration dichotomy and expanded on the idea. In his essay, “Politics and Administration” written in 1900, Goodnow adamantly stated that “politics has to do with the guiding or influencing of governmental policy while the administration has to do with the execution of that policy” (p. 28). He believed that it should be firmly enforced that politics and administration be separate spheres of the same universe to ensure the integrity of the policy implementation process.

Early voices like those of Wilson (1887) and Goodnow (2007) called for a separation of politics and administration, while equally strong voices, like that of Frederick W. Taylor (1911), called for public administration to be efficient at policy implementation while maintaining a high level of efficiency. Taylor believed that the best way to achieve maximum efficiency was to apply the principles of the scientific method to public administration. It was from this idea that another pillar of public administration arose: the pillar of efficiency and effectiveness.

Taylor (1911) laid down the foundations of scientific management theory. He evaluated the process of management of organizations in a very scientific way. He called this the “one-best-way” of doing work (Taylor, 1911, p. 16). Taylor thought that efficiency could be achieved by implementing the one best way, which involves the development of rules, laws, and formulas that take the place of decisions once made by the individual worker. Taylor developed this theory to analyze the workflow process scientifically to improve labor productivity. Hence, he was considered the proprietor of scientific management.

Prior to 1968, public administration was a field of study supported by two pillars or concepts: the politics/administration dichotomy and efficiency. In 1968, a watershed event took place at the Minnowbrook Conference Center in Syracuse, New York.

1968 in the United States

To use the familiar adage of Charles Dickens, 1968 was the best of times; it was the worst of times. Movements that had been building along the cultural fault lines of the 1960s including the Vietnam War, the Cold War, civil rights, human rights, and youth culture, which exploded with force in 1968 (Twombly, 2018). In March 1968, President

Lyndon Johnson addressed the nation on television to announce his withdrawal from the presidential campaign, given the success of anti-war candidates. He proclaimed that “there is a division in the American house” (Freedman, 2008, p. 211). In the subsequent months, an agonizing series of blows expanded that divide: the assassinations of Martin Luther King, Jr., in April and Robert Kennedy in June; the violence after King’s death and again at the Democratic National Convention. Richard Nixon ascended to the presidency. Each of these moments weakened the country’s faith in American politics, and the aftershocks are still felt across the nation today.

Social unrest was rampant throughout the nation; student movements and the anti-war movements were occurring across the country on college campuses (Freedman, 2008). In addition, an undercurrent of the social unrest was the resurgence of feminism taking root in American society.

In 1968, women were challenging cultural definitions of gender and gender roles. The same youth who were involved in the anti-war protests were also challenging institutional patriarchy (Evans, 2009). Women, for the first time, tasted taking control of their own lives. Dependable contraception, especially the pill, meant that women were able to choose when and if they had children; thus, women had new opportunities for self-definition and direction (Evans, 2009). Evans (2009) stated, “Women’s challenge to patriarchy broke the rules not just of female decorum and generational deference but also of gender hierarchy itself” (p. 338). Women leaders in the spotlight were uncommon; however, awareness of that fact dawned only gradually as women hesitantly, and then forcibly, began to push back against the resistance they met within the movement (Evans, 2009). All of these events in the volatile 1960s were part of the political culture

and environment that helped make the first Minnowbrook conference the watershed event that it was.

Minnowbrook Conferences

Minnowbrook I and the New Public Administration

The first Minnowbrook conference was held in the Adirondack Mountains of Upstate New York in September of 1968 with the hopes of responding to the events and turmoil happening across the country (Kim, O’Leary, Van Slyke, Fredrickson, & Lambright, 2010). Minnowbrook quickly became a metaphor for thinking about the trajectory in which the field of public administration was headed. Since the initial Minnowbrook in 1968, a total of three Minnowbrook conferences have been held, and a fourth is in the works. Each is spaced 20 years apart, but all have the same goal of ensuring that public administration continues to lead in managing public policies through social equity.

Dwight Waldo (1948) convened the first Minnowbrook conference. Public administration had focused the majority of its efforts on the core pillars of efficiency/effectiveness and public administration dichotomy (Waldo, 1948)

Thirty-four public administration scholars (they called themselves Minnows) came to Syracuse University in the fall of 1968 where all scholars boarded buses and headed to the Minnowbrook Conference Center on Blue Mountain Lake, in New York’s Adirondack Mountains. William (Harry) Lambright recalled,

We all felt we were living at a pivotal point in time. The bus trip was helpful in our getting to know one another. All of us were young men—mostly in our late

twenties and early thirties. Most of us came from universities all over the country. (Kim et al., 2010, p. 2)

Most of the academic participants at Minnowbrook were political scientists who tended to frame their perspectives of public administration on the side of efficiency and effectiveness; however, some of the attendees saw this as an opportunity to embark on a new path framed in social equity, which became known as the *new public administration* (Frederickson, 2010; Kim et al., 2010). In addition to social equity, many of the themes that were developed through the course of the Minnowbrook I conference are themes that are now significant elements included in the new public administration. Frederickson (1989) succinctly summarized the nine central themes of Minnowbrook I in his *Public Administration Review* article “Minnowbrook II: Changing Epochs of Public Administration.” These themes include the following:

- A shifting focus from the management of agencies to policy issues. This shift had a remarkable effect on the quality of government.
 - Social equity was added to the pillars of public administration.
 - Words like ethics, honesty, and responsibility returned to the vocabulary used by public administrators. As public needs change, so must government agencies and with this understanding, public administrators knew that some agencies might become obsolete. It is a necessary response by public administrators to terminate inefficient or ineffective government.
 - Shifting the focus from growth to change to increase effectiveness.
 - Effective public administration looks like an active and engaged community.
- Implementation of the policy was taking center stage.

- Focus shifted from implementation of decisions to the process of making the decision
- Challenges were being made to the concepts of hierarchies.
- Pluralism was no longer the standard by which public administration explained its political power.

Finally, Frederickson (1989) stated that traditional themes of efficiency and effectiveness were still measures of functional public administration; however, after Minnowbrook I, social equity was added as a necessary benchmark of public policy.

Following Minnowbrook I in 1968 was Minnowbrook II in 1988 and Minnowbrook III in 2008. Minnowbrook IV is set to happen in 2028 following the 20-year traditions of bringing the brightest scholars of public administration together to shape the field.

Minnowbrook II and Women in Public Administration

Minnowbrook II occurred in 1988, 20 years after the first Minnowbrook, and many of the same themes from 1968 were still prevalent in the conversation. Both Minnowbrook I and Minnowbrook II exhibited recurring themes. Themes that include ethics, commitment to social equity and human relations, public administration / politics dichotomy, commitment to the future of public administration, emphasis on authenticity for practitioners and scholars, and poverty (Bailey & Mayer, 1992; Frederickson, 1989).

The 1980s cohort held a session separate from the Minnows who had attended in 1968 to address what they felt were fundamentally different issues than those facing public administration in the 1960s. There were, however, several new themes at Minnowbrook II. These new themes included leadership, technology, and economic perspectives (Frederickson, 1989).

There were also issues identified by the 1988 cohort that centered on interdependence and interconnectedness. These issues include policy issues, private-public organization, nation states, cultural diversity, and the public workforce (Bailey & Mayer, 1992). The 1988 cohort of Minnowbrook participants believed that public administration had substantial challenges, yet it also had great opportunities to effect change in an interconnected world (Bailey & Mayer, 1992).

Both Minnowbrook I and Minnowbrook II had few ethnic and gender participants. Frank Marini stated in the introduction to *Public Management in an Interconnected World*, “To the best of my memory: Minnowbrook I had one African-American participant and no other participants of U.S. minority groups; Minnowbrook II had three African-American and two Asian-American participants” (as cited in Bailey & Mayer, 1992, p. 9). Moreover, the number of female participants in 1988 shows further evidence of the lack of diversity as compared to 1968. In 1968, no women were invited to the conference, but in 1988, 15 of the 68 participants were female (Bailey & Mayer, 1992).

A second demographic change in Minnowbrook II was the age of the participants. In 1968, almost all the Minnows were in their 30s as compared to 1988 when most of the Minnows were in their 40s and early 50s. This aging of participants was largely due to the original Minnows attending Minnowbrook II. Guy (1989) called it “a slice of time in public administration” (p. 219). Minnowbrook II was again driven by an awareness of a changed world with a public administration that was not fit for that purpose.

Public administration must draw from the various disciplines that intersect the field and construct a new, more relevant discipline in which the disciplines are integrated

rather than merely coexisting. Second, public administration must question the underlying premises of the dominant disciplines. It is necessary to step away from the standard definitions of the prevailing theories and develop public administration's definitions and a distinctive theory. Further, a better job must be done by translating that theory for and with practitioners at all levels and within all organizations.

Public administration must be practitioner oriented, despite criticisms from other disciplines, because it is the practitioner who makes public administration different from others. Gawthrop (1989) stated after the Minnowbrook II conference that a new reality constructed was created based not only on ethics but also on utilitarian ethics. Gawthrop meant that public administrators should not just act ethically, but they should act in an ethical manner that will ensure the policies and programs provide the most number of people the best outcome.

There was a new awareness of the prominence of interdependence and interconnectedness of policy issues, private-public organizations, and nation states, combined with cultural diversity in a variety of forms (workforce, public, world; Guy, 1989). The new awareness pushed the participants to conclude that problems ultimately cannot be solved, they can only be ameliorated. One of the new topics was the focus on feminist views on and in public administration. Even if Minnowbrook II built upon its previous version and for some could be considered as a further development of new public administration, there were significant differences and concerns (Bailey, 1989). Postmodern thoughts influenced the 1988 version of Minnowbrook.

Minnowbrook III

In May 2008, a group of renowned scholars (seasoned, new, and in-between) attended Minnowbrook III (Kim et al., 2010). This conference was faced with social challenges like the first Minnowbrook. These social challenges included facing the 2008 Minnowbrook cohort included the controversial presidency of George W. Bush, terrorism including the 9/11 attacks, war in both Iraq and Afghanistan, damage from hurricane Katrina, the impact of the Internet, as well as severe economic recession (Kim et al., 2010).

The turbulent political landscape provided momentum required for public administrators to work for bureaucratic change that was increasingly technocratic, performance oriented, and defined by results (Kim et al., 2010). It was with this in mind that the new cohort of Minnows went to upper state New York.

Minnowbrook III was organized differently than the previous two conferences around the theme of the future of public administration. At Minnowbrook III, a preconference workshop was explicitly held for public administrators who had completed their PhDs within the previous 8 years. The actual conference immediately followed this preconference and in attendance were 30 veteran Minnows who had previously attended either Minnowbrook I or II (Kim et al., 2010).

The 2008 Minnows were the most demographically diverse group of young public administrators who assembled to discuss that path of public administration (Gazley & Van Slyke, 2011). As with Minnowbrook I and II, Minnowbrook III also had a focus on social equity. The Minnows identified three factors that in their opinion impeded the advancement of social equity in public administration. These factors included the need to

have conceptual clarity of the term social equity, increased attention to social equity in public administration curriculum, and further methodological development in social equity research (Gooden & Portillo, 2011).

Attendees of the Minnowbrook III conference not only identified areas of improvement that would enhance the outcomes of social equity, but they also added new language to the discussion: words like diversity, diversity management, cultural competency, and representative bureaucracy (Gooden & Portillo, 2011). The Minnows were quick to point out that this new language was not meant to replace social equity but was a subunit of social equity (Gooden & Portillo, 2011). Minnowbrook III was the first time that social equity was tied to representative bureaucracy. This conference built upon Kingsley's (1944) concept of representative bureaucracy, which stated that all social groups had a right to take part in their governing institutions, was expanded to include the meaning that the desires of all members of the diverse population would be represented in the decision-making process. In addition, the whole population had a right to political participation and influence (Gooden & Portillo, 2011).

Public administration encompasses policy and program development and implementation, and attendees of Minnowbrook III understood that diversity had a role to play in program and policy implementation through representative bureaucracy. Consequently, public administrators are urged to embrace *otherness* and understand the effects of diversity on policy and programs (Guy & Schumacher, 2009). The ideas expressed by Rice (2004) lead to a broader conceptual understanding of how diversity and representative bureaucracy are related. Rice quantified this relationship when he expressed the idea of

an operating assumption behind diversity in public organizations is that having different types of employees increases productivity and effective organizational effectiveness because individuals with different characteristics have different work styles and cultural knowledge that makes them valuable assets to public organizations in a multicultural society. (p. 144)

Minnowbrook III concluded with the recognition that much of the practitioners' time was spent gaining a deeper understanding of social equity in public administration, which would be better spent on making a determined effort to improve policies and practices connected with to social equity (Gooden & Portillo, 2011). The stage is set for Minnowbrook where diversity and representative bureaucracy will join social equity as a goal of future public administrators.

Moving Forward

Due to the increasingly complex nature of the problems facing public administrators, it is clear that the future of public administration lies in a more global approach. With the continued advances in technology and the ability to work collaboratively and engage a broader audience, public administrators have an opportunity for broader engagement and learning among an increasingly diverse community. Public administration practitioners and scholars have reason to be optimistic that public administration will not only be relevant in the future but will also have a strengthened position in the broader global community (Kim et al., 2010). This optimistic future will propel public administrators into Minnowbrook IV.

Minnowbrook IV will be held in September 2028. There is not much literature that speculates what will occur at this conference. However, the research that is out there

has speculated on the direction and scope Minnowbrook IV will take. One speculation is that the 2028 Minnowbrook will move from an “American-centric to a global-centric prospective” (Bowornwathana, 2010, p. S64). According to Bowornwathana (2010), there has been a growing trend from Minnowbrook I to Minnowbrook III to move towards a more global Minnowbrook. Bowornwathana laid out three reasons that this shift to being more global was happening. The reasons include (a) a growing desire among public administration scholars to be more global; (b) growing from an era of paradigm crisis in 1968 to a multiparadigm emergence in 2008; and (c) since Minnowbrook I, the world has become more global (Bowornwathana, 2010). As apparent by the first three Minnowbrook conferences, each advances the work from the last, causing the continued evolution of social equity from its theoretical beginning to its current state of diversity and representative bureaucracy. However, despite the increasing concern for social equity, much of the work is focused on the symbolic importance of demographic representation rather than organizational policy outcomes (Lee & Won, 2016).

Women in Public Administration

The advances in social equity made through the Minnowbrook conferences were predominantly Minnows looking from the inside out. Little to no attention has been paid to the state of social equity inside public administration. Furthermore, gender has been given little attention in public administration literature. However, the first Women in Public Administration symposium was held in 1976. The publication that came from this conference placed particular emphasis on three fundamental topics: discrimination against, underrepresentation of, and underutilization of women in public service

(D'Agostino & Elias, 2017). The reasons behind this inequity vary. However, researchers most commonly cite political, organizational, and societal barriers (Alkadry & Tower, 2014). Furthermore, the way society and organizations are structured is not separate from perceived gender roles and the implicit bias that society has about gender (Alkadry & Tower, 2014; Guy, 1992; Hale & Kelly, 1989; Stivers, 2000). Women have made progress in gaining a voice in public management. However, women's voices are still essentially heard indirectly through husbands, fathers, brothers, or sons (Guy, 1993).

Moreover, a disproportionate amount of family responsibility is placed upon women due to societal expectations. These societal expectations also affect organizational expectations placed upon women. This gender dichotomy spills over into municipal government where women tend to focus on social equity and justice policies, and men focus on budgets, procedures, and political reforms (Stivers, 2000). However, "at its heart, public administration is about life in the community—just as Mary Parker Follett knew, just as Mrs. T. J. Bowlker knew, just as Jane Addams knew" (Guy & Schumacher, 2009).

Currently, there is a marked omission of gender in public administration. This exclusion of gender in public administration is most disturbing when taking into account that women make up an essential portion of the civil service workforce (Carey & Dickinson, 2015). If women do not participate equally in public administration, and to a significant degree, it is unlikely that the interests of women can be wholly taken into account. Public administration is a reflection of the jurisdiction it is born from and indicates much about the relative relationships within that context.

Social Equity

The new public administration model rejected the idea that administrators were value-neutral and recognized normative core values that are seen as both legitimate and conflicting (Gooden & Portillo, 2011). According to Frederickson (1980), these core values included responsiveness, equal worker and citizen participation in decision making, social equity, citizen choice, and administrative responsibility. Frederickson noted that in order for public administrators to achieve social equity, there must be a commitment to the dogma majority rule, which does not supersede the minority right to equal access to public goods and services.

Foremost, in public administration, the phrase social equity has developed into a shorthand way of referring to the concerns of those who are challenging contemporary theory or practice in the field (Frederickson, 1990). Over the years, this definition has evolved to include public administrators helping to create a more equitable, fairer, and more just America. Nonetheless, public administrators have more to contribute. Social equity is no longer unusual or new; it has evolved to a core value of public administration. During the time since Minnowbrook I, social equity has grown in importance in public administration (Frederickson, 2005).

Social equity is crucial in public administration because laws do not carry out themselves; public administrators perform the implementation of laws that have been created by the elected body. In fact, public administration is the law in action (Frederickson, 2005). At the end of the day, if public administrators implement the law, why do they not merely enforce the law as it is written? The short answer is the law is rarely so simple that it can be homogeneously applied precisely the same for everyone

(Frederickson, 2005). Nonetheless, in the early years of the field, it was written that public administration was expected to be unbiased when implementing laws and policy (Frederickson, 2005). This idea of impartial implementation of the law is not strictly conceivable; nonetheless, since public administration is the law in action, it goes without saying that public administrators are required to interpret the law and have discretion over its application (Frederickson, 2005). However, because public administrators are responsible for the implementation of the laws and policies, it is conceivable that struggles with fairness, justice, and equality occur (Frederickson, 2005).

Furthermore, Shafritz, Russell, and Borick (2005), in *Introduction to Public Administration* stated, “The phrase social equality has come to encompass the many complex issues associated with fairness, justice, and equality in public administration” (p. 436). Shafritz et al. listed three unique qualities of social equity in public administration. These qualities include the responsibility to oversee that laws work in a fair manner. Public administrators are obligated to enhance social equity by proactively hiring a diverse workforce. Finally, public administrators can go only so far in forcing social equity. However, public administrators are uniquely positioned to inspire people to do the right, decent, and honorable thing through moral leadership.

Given the close connection between public administration and social equity, Shafritz et al. (2005) stated,

The ethical and equitable treatment of citizens by administrators is at the forefront of concerns in public agencies. [Reinforced by changing public attitudes], the reinventing government movement and civil rights laws, the new public administration have triumphed after a quarter century. Now it is unthinkable [as

well as illegal], for example, to deny someone welfare benefits because of their race or a job opportunity because of their sex. Social equity today does not have to be so much fought for by young radicals as administered by managers of all ages. (p. 436)

Despite the progress made through the multiple Minnowbrook conferences, the idea of representative bureaucracy is an opportunity for public administrators to question not only whether an existing or proposed public program or policy is effective or moral, but also for whom this program is effective or ethical.

Representative Bureaucracy

Historical Background

All contemporary governments have large-scale administrative components that are tasked with policy implementation; these components are commonly referred to as bureaucracies. Bureaucracies are part of government most responsible for executing laws, rules, judicial and other governmental decisions, and foreign and domestic policies (Dolan & Rosenbloom, 2003). Max Weber defined ideal bureaucracies as each bureaucrat was a cog in a wheel traveling a fixed trajectory day after day with no flexibility in how to interpret policy due to the tight control exerted from the top down taking all human factor out of it (1958). Weber (1958) called attention to the fact that bureaucracies tend to represent their self-interests by gaining and retaining power. In fact, this model is often raised to support the argument that bureaucracies cannot be politically representative institutions. Weber and scholars that subscribe to his way of thinking contended that if unelected, specialized, hierarchical, politically powerful bureaucracies are to operate compatibly with democracy, it will be by other means, such

as external controls (Dolan & Rosenbloom, 2003). Representative bureaucracy scholars like J. Donald Kingsley (1944) and Frederick Mosher (1968), challenged Weber's (1958) model of bureaucracy. Samuel Krislov (1974) emphasized that individual bureaucrats can have a significant impact on administrative choices. Additionally, Krislov supported their acceptance by the general population or specific segments of it (Dolan & Rosenbloom, 2003). The idea of a bureaucracy that is representative of society is an old concept dating to the Jeffersonian and Jacksonian period of the United States (Saltzstein, 1979), but it was Kingsley (1944), Mosher (1968), and Krislov (1974) who advanced the notion of what a representative bureaucracy should be.

Kingsley (1944) postulated that bureaucracies have their own culture, values, and position, and his research demonstrated that most administrators in the British national administration came from either the middle or upper classes and had a ruling class education (Dolan & Rosenbloom, 2003; Kingsley, 1944). This observation led Kingsley (1944) to wonder how this affected the mindset of the bureaucracy. He advanced the idea that bureaucracies should be a reflection of the society they represent; thus the possibility for every person to be a British nation administrator was a concern for Kingsley. He stated, "The democratic state cannot afford to exclude any considerable body of its citizens from full participation in its affairs. . . . The public service must also be representative if the State wants to liberate instead of enslave" (Kingsley, 1944, p. 185).

Mosher (1968) concurred with Kingsley (1944) that making public service compatible with democracy is a fundamental administrative and political challenge. Moreover, where Kingsley believed that representative bureaucracy was the direction public administration should take to make public service compatible with democracy,

Mosher sided more with Weber (Dolan & Rosenbloom, 2003). Mosher (1968) expressed doubts that representative bureaucracy was the answer to this political challenge. He required practical evidence of the linkage between the social backgrounds of public administrators, which he called “passive [or sociological]” representation, and their “active [or responsible] representation” wherein an administrator is expected to pursue the interests and desires of the social class of which the public administrator is a member (Mosher, 1968, p. 11-12). Mosher’s distinction between passive and active representation has led to further analysis and theoretical development of representative bureaucracy (Dolan & Rosenbloom, 2003). Due to additional theoretical analysis, there is a growing consensus among researchers that there are links between passive and active bureaucracy (Dolan & Rosenbloom, 2003).

Public administrators influence public policy through the use of their administrative inclination (Dolan, 2000). Public administrator influence is an essential trait for a properly functioning representative bureaucracy. Representative bureaucracy theory states that a bureaucracy that mirrors the demographics of the people it serves will be more democratically accountable and representative of the whole community (Dolan, 2000; Krislov & Rosenbloom, 1981; Meier & Bohte, 2001; Riccucci & Van Ryzin, 2017; Wagenheim & Reurink, 2016). Furthermore, society is vastly diverse in its race, ethnicity, religion, gender, social class, and beliefs; therefore, a diverse bureaucracy is essential in creating a bureaucracy that is genuinely representative of the public (Dolan, 2000). The most commonly observed positive attributes of a representative bureaucracy include commitments to equal access to power, bureaucratic expertise, an accurate

reflection of group preferences, group cooperation, and efficient use of resources (Seldon, 1997).

However, not all administrators have the same potential to influence policy in ways that bestow rewards upon the social group of which they are a member. Consequently, if women in administrative positions exert less influence and have less discretion in their jobs than men in the same situation, they will not be able to effect policy outcomes to the same degree (Dolan, 2004). Thus, the bureaucracy may have the same diverse makeup as the community it serves, but subtle biases constrain the women's influence, leaving them in a position of less responsibility (Naff, 1998). As a result, comparable positions in a bureaucracy do not necessarily lead to men and women having equal power, influence, and responsibility (Dolan, 2004).

Passive and Active Representation

In recent years, there has been significant progress in the study of the theory of representative bureaucracy (Andrews, Ashworth, & Meier, 2014, Riccucci, Van Ryzin, & Li, 2016). Representative bureaucracy theory has advanced by breaking down how representation separates into passive representation and active representation. Passive representation stems from the social origin of individuals and the degree to which they mirror the entire society. Passive representation can be statistically measured in terms of where an individual is from and of what social class the individual is a member, for example: rural, urban, suburban, previous occupation, parent's occupation, education, family income, family social class, race, religion, and so forth (Mosher, 2003). Since society is diverse in race, religion, gender, and social class, it makes sense that a bureaucracy just as diverse will produce policy that is all inclusive and representative of

the whole public. Passive representation stems from the belief that social origins shape behavior, attitudes, and decisions made by public administrators. Thus, by women merely being in the position to influence policy, women's issues are naturally brought to the forefront.

Passive representation is a characteristic while active representation is a process. Public administration scholars have long studied and refined the theory of representative bureaucracy (Kingsley, 1944; Krislov, 1974; Mosher, 1968). Each scholar explored the effects of representation on bureaucracy and added a new perspective to the theory, but despite this, relatively few studies have examined the issue of active representation (Ricucci & Meyers, n.d.). Kingsley (1944) observed that the middle-class was able to perpetuate the ideals it found desirable by recruiting administrators who were educated and socialized in the middle-class traditions. Mosher (1968) furthered this observation by adding to the theory that active representation occurs when administrators use their discretion to eliminate discrimination and pursue the interests of the group of citizens they represent. However, there is more to active representation than being a member of a social group. Active representation is also a product of the administrator's life experiences, attitudes, and values (Dolan, 2000). Thus, administrators whose social groups are represented in more significant quantities increase active representation due to the improved opportunities for administrators to come into contact with likeminded supportive peers (Dolan, 2000). More simply, active representations occur when administrators press for the interests and desires of those in the same social class. Ricucci and Meyers (2004) stated that the theory of active representation in action

would show that women in leadership positions are more likely to push for programs and issues that benefit women in the population served by the organization.

Active representation occurs when bureaucrats use their discretion to eliminate discrimination and pursue the interests of the group of citizens they represent (Mosher, 1968). Numerous scholars have studied the link that turns passive representation into active representation (Dolan, 2000). The links that anchor passive representation to active representation may start out as humbly as bureaucrats unconsciously making decisions that meet the policy needs of the demographic of which they are a member (Dolan, 2000). Nevertheless, this is not enough to move from passive representation to active representation. Active representation begins to happen more readily as the concentration of the demographic group increases the pressure to conform to the dominant social group (Meier, 1993). The final pieces of the active representation puzzle are a politically supportive environment where personal values and organizational missions align (Meier, 1993).

The simplicity of passive and active representation does not deter the critical role they play in creating a representative bureaucracy. Both are necessary to a true representative bureaucracy because more women in public sector leadership lead to better policy outcomes and reduced corruption (Moldovan, 2016). However, besides increasing the policy outcomes for protected classes, they play another role for positions of leadership.

Administrators in positions to make policy have typically addressed bias and discrimination in the workplace by enacting policies and procedures to alleviate the effects. Thus representative bureaucracy has the potential for having a significant

influence on diminishing the impact of the glass ceiling in organizations because women would be in a position to enact policies that open doors to other women seeking to break the glass ceiling (Caceres-Rodriguez, 2013). The mere presence of women at all levels of an organization has the potential to discourage men from acting on the intrinsic bias of their presence (Caceres-Rodriguez, 2013.). Moreover, women in the top positions of the organization have the potential to inspire other women to seek promotions to senior management, encourage men to grow beyond the gender biases, and embolden organizational culture change. (Caceres-Rodriguez, 2013). Merely creating representative bureaucracies puts government agencies in the unique position of having a positive and lasting impact on the shattering of the glass ceiling.

Perceptions of the Glass Ceiling

The metaphor commonly used to represent invisible barriers that keep minorities efficiently quarantined to the lower level of the hierarchy is the glass ceiling. It is the unseen, yet unbreakable barrier that prevents women from rising to the upper tiers of the bureaucratic hierarchy, regardless of their experiences or accomplishments. Glass ceilings are a social construct comprised of both structural and behavioral obstacles that combine to create disadvantages to the career advancement of women (Sonnert & Holton, 1996). Structural constraints consist of barriers generated by organizational practices and policies, while behavioral obstacles are reflected in the organizational culture and social traditions (Sonnert & Holton, 1996)

The structural impediments are typically the easiest to be recognized when identifying glass ceilings. This ease of recognition is primarily due to their visible attributes that can be collected as raw data. The following are examples of structural

obstacles: lower number of women being trained for promotions, lower wages, smaller number of years of job experience, exclusion from assignments that promote greater visibility and career advancement (Sonnert & Holton, 1996). While less visible than structural obstacles, behavioral obstacles of the glass ceiling manifest themselves in the culture of the organization and include the following: women perceive that they must work harder for the same recognition, promotion bias, gender stereotypes and expectations (Sonnert & Holton, 1996).

The glass ceiling keeps a significant proportion of women and minorities locked into low wage, low prestige, and dead-end jobs, which also keeps them from climbing any career ladder into senior-level positions (Federal Glass Ceiling Commission, 1995). President George W. Bush appointed a 21-member bipartisan committee to identify the glass ceiling barriers that prevented the advancement of women and minorities from advancement to senior-level decision-making positions (Federal Glass Ceiling Commission, 1995). The committee was tasked with the methodical gathering of information on barriers, opportunities, policies, perceptions, and practices as they affect five target groups that historically have been underrepresented in private sector top-level management (Federal Glass Ceiling Commission, 1995). Research has shown that despite the increasing diversity of the American workforce, once women reach a specific and changing promotional level in their career, they find that upward mobility is stunted despite experience, education, and previous achievements (Federal Glass Ceiling Commission, 1995; Wirth, 2001).

Non-National Research on the Glass Ceiling

One of the most intriguing articles found during this literature review was Rick Caceres-Rodriguez's (2013) "The Glass Ceiling Revisited: Moving Beyond Discrimination in the Study of Gender in Public Organizations." He did an excellent job of summarizing the literature on the glass ceiling in public administration that has documented women's journey into upper levels of administration in federal, state, and local government (Caceres-Rodriguez, 2013). Most studies Caceres-Rodriguez summarized in his table, Summary of Studies on Glass Ceiling and Glass Walls in the Public Sector, focused on a specific level of government, that is, federal, state, and local, or on a single-state case study.

Two characteristics stand out about this summary. One, there is only one study that included municipal level government: Guy's (1993) article "Three Steps Forward, Two Steps Backward: The Status of Women's Integration Into Public Management." Guy's study focused on the slow, but steady march women are making into leadership positions at all levels of government. Her study also described the glass ceiling barriers that stand in the way of this progress but offered little in the way of giving women a framework for overcoming glass ceiling barriers. Furthermore, this article is 25 years old.

Second, all but two of the studies were done before 2000. The studies identified by Caceres-Rodriguez (2013) that were published after 2000 were both published in *Public Administration Review*. These articles are "Sex-Based Occupational Segregation in U.S. State Bureaucracies, 1987-97" (Kerr, Miller, & Reid, 2002) and "Glass Walls in State Bureaucracies: Examining the Difference Departmental Function Can Make"

(Sneed, 2007). Both of the previously named articles explicitly focused on the state level of government. However, it is important to note that the article “Sex-Based Occupational Segregation in U.S. State Bureaucracies, 1987-97” was published after 2000, but the data used in the article were from the 10-year period from 1987-1997. Therefore, in truth, from 2000 until the publication of Caceres-Rodriguez’s article in 2013, only one study of the glass ceiling was published, and it focused on state-level employees.

“Glass Walls in State Bureaucracies: Examining the Difference Departmental Function Can Make” (Sneed, 2007) focused on employment patterns in the Michigan State Government. This case study stands out from the rest of Caceres- Rodriguez’s research in two ways. Instead of focusing on the glass ceiling, Sneed (2007) focused on glass walls. Glass walls are barriers that prevent women from entering departments that are considered male (Sneed, 2007). Second, this is the only study conducted using research after 2000; however, most of the references are still from prior to 2000.

Most notable about this study is Sneed (2007) who divided the theories of occupational segregation into three distinct groups: (a) theories based on sex and gender that are based more specifically on the biological differences between men and women, (b) theories that center on labor markets and organizational discrimination, (c) theories focus on systemic barriers in organizations; these barriers are out of individual’s control. Sneed also touched on how glass walls are barriers to representative bureaucracy.

Caceres-Rodriguez’s literature summary table is the most current compilation of literature that focuses on glass ceiling barriers in government. This is intriguing since all the studies are decades old. Additionally, there is a glaring lack of current glass ceiling literature focusing on the sphere of public administration at the local government level.

Glass Ceiling at the Municipal Level

Public sector peer groups like International City/County Management Association (ICMA) and the Leadership California institute both issued reports in 2014 that have found that symptoms of the glass ceiling continue to persist in California municipal governments. In California, women make up 50.3% of the population and 46% of the labor force but continue to be underrepresented in the state, county, and city government (Leadership California Institute, 2014). There are 473 cities in California that operate under the leadership of a city manager, an appointed official who is hired by the city's legislative body. Managers are responsible for a wide array of government responsibilities and duties such as preparing the city budget, hiring and supervising city staff, and managing a city's day-to-day operations and public relations (Grassroots Lab, 2015).

As the Figure 1 graphically represents, as of 2014, only 76 of the 473 California cities had women in the position of city manager (Grassroots Lab, 2015). This statistic is a visual representation of the structural obstacles faced by women seeking to lead California's cities. While female city managers in California make up only 16% of the statewide total, this is higher than the national average of 12.6% (Grassroots Lab, 2015). This percentage of women making up only about 13% of the total population of city managers has remained stubbornly unchanged since 1981 (ICMA, 2014). However, when this statistic is looked at through the lens of the percentage of women who make up the support staff in city management offices nationwide, it is around 40% (Grassroots Lab, 2015). Statistically, only a small fraction of these women climb the ladder to

become a city manager. Thus, this is further evidence that the glass ceiling is alive and well in California municipal government.



Figure 1. Gender of California city managers. From California City Managers 2015, by Grassroots Lab, 2015 (<http://www.grassrootslab.com/sites/all/files/StatusCACityManagers2015.pdf>).

Grassroots Lab (2015) also identified other structural obstacles of the glass ceiling present across the city managers' offices in the state of California. One statistic reported by Grassroots Lab stated that women city managers earn approximately \$0.90 for every male dollar. This statistic shows that salaries between men and women managers are relatively close to the same. However, women earn roughly 15% less in benefits and other expenses (Grassroots Lab, 2015). Male managers in 2014 made on average \$51,000 in benefits and other expenses while women earned approximately \$43,000 during the same period (Grassroots Lab, 2015). The findings by Grassroots Lab suggest that during their tenure, city women are earning in excess of \$77,000 less their male counterparts (Grassroots Lab, 2015).

Behavior obstacles were also identified by ICMA (2014). Personal experience was shared as part of the research, though the identity of the city and the persons

involved were changed to protect confidentiality. It is also worth noting that this anecdote occurred within a 2-year period before the publication of the ICMA study. A highly qualified woman was interviewed for the position of city manager; however, the position was offered to a different applicant. After the interview, the mayor issued the following quote: “She is an excellent candidate, but I am just not comfortable with her. I need someone I can joke around with, and I would be afraid I would say the wrong thing” (ICMA, 2014, para. 1). This quote is but one example of gender stereotypes contributing to the glass ceiling specifically related to the city manager’s office.

The Federal Glass Ceiling Commission (1995) identified the following elements that may be classified as barriers to women's career progression:

- initial placement and clustering in relatively dead-end staff jobs or highly technical professional jobs;
- lack of mentoring;
- lack of management training;
- lack of opportunities for career development;
- lack of opportunities for training tailored to the individual;
- lack of rotation to line positions or job assignments that are revenue producing;
- little or no access to critical developmental assignments, including service on highly visible task forces and committees;
- different standards for performance evaluation;
- biased rating and testing systems;
- little or no access to informal networks of communication;

- counterproductive behavior and harassment by colleagues. (Federal Glass Ceiling Commission, 1995, p. 155)

This study focuses on three barriers that create the glass ceiling most commonly identified across the literature. These barriers include wage gap, promotion bias, and gender stereotypes (see Figure 2).

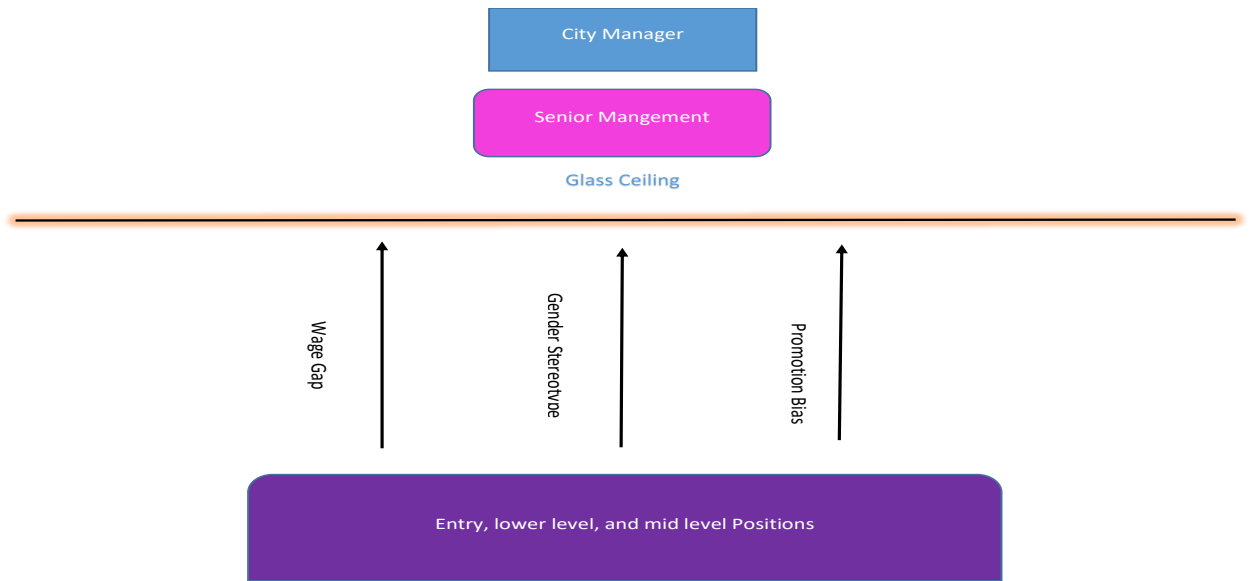


Figure 2. Glass ceiling model.

Wage Gap

The wage gap is a symptom that is deeply rooted in gender stereotypes. There is a cultural belief that women with children are constrained more than men regarding the number of hours they can work. Additionally, it is presumed that because of family responsibilities, women with children are more likely than men with children to sacrifice work hours for increased flexibility in work schedules. More flexibility in return for fewer hours may seem like a fair tradeoff. Even though both women and men wish for fewer or more flexible work hours, it is likely that they may not be able to afford such

choices because they may entail accepting part-time rather than full-time employment (Lips, 2013). That women are frequently pushed out of full-time work or marginalized to lower-status positions in which they have reduced access to work hours or to the promotions that would lead to more challenging career opportunities is confirmed by research (Laughlin, 2011; Lips, 2013). The pushing out of women appears to be linked to employer opposition to creating family-friendly workplace policies and assumptions about women's level of professional commitment (Laughlin, 2011). This assumption of women's lack of commitment is dichotomous. Women have both real and concocted expectation that women disproportionately handle more home and family responsibilities than men do. This family commitment also contributes to more constraints on women's working hours. In addition, the availability of work hours may sometimes also directly reflect gender discrimination (Lips, 2013).

Women are held back from senior management levels for a variety of reasons, which are rooted in organizational culture and structure plus both individual and organizational mindsets. The metaphor used most to represent the barriers that keep women from achieving positions at the top of organizations is the glass ceiling (Oakley, 2000). Prejudices and stereotypes contribute to the glass-ceiling barrier that keeps women in the low-pay, low-responsibility level of the organizational hierarchy (Rincón, González, & Barrero, 2017).

Gender Stereotypes

The word *gender* merely seems to be a straightforward way of describing a fundamental characteristic of human nature. People use words and social constructs of gender daily without giving it much thought or effort; mindlessly checking the box that

represents their socially assigned gender (Pryzgoda & Chrisler, 2000). Recently, however, gender has become a hot-button and complicated issue in society. Bem (1974) theorized that there were two dimensions of gender roles: the masculine, and the feminine. She postulated that characteristics of masculinity include being aggressive, independent, objective, logical, rational, analytical, and decisive (Bem, 1974). Being masculine is in direct contrast to being feminine. The characteristics of femininity include being emotional, sensitive, expressive, cooperative, intuitive, warm, and gentle (Bem, 1974). Moreover, researchers have assumed that gender role is a critical personality trait that influences leadership style (Moldovan, 2016). Thus, they have related masculinity with task-oriented leadership style and femininity with relationship-oriented leadership style (Moldovan, 2016). These relationships have been empirically supported (Park, 1996).

Gender stereotyping at its core is assigning traits to people based on what gender society places them in. Stereotyping is used daily to help people process the world in which they live. However, stereotyping becomes a problem when it is inaccurate or if people are behaviorally boxed in by the stereotype. Gender stereotyping exists in many forms, including that women are averse to risk taking and thus may avoid competitive environments (Adams & Funk, 2012). Women have also been subjected to promotion bias because of the appearance of being too feminine (Branson, 2006). There is a common belief that suggests that women are not considered for upper management positions due to their being opposed to risk-taking behavior. However, a study done by Adams and Funk (2012) showed this to be an incorrect assumption. The research done

by these two women found that females in director positions were not only willing to take risks but were more like to take chances than were their male counterparts.

Research conducted in the 1990s refutes the negative connotations of stereotypical gender roles. A research study by Adler and Izraeli (1994) found a significant increase in women holding leadership positions. Despite this, significant stereotypical perceptions still exist across many organizations. The most common stereotypical traits found by Adler and Izraeli in responses to their survey included women's aptitudes—including qualifications for leadership positions, women's place—traditional gender roles, and the continued existence of the “good ole boys” network (Adler & Izraeli, 1994). Helgesen (1990) stressed in her book, *The Female Advantage: Women's Way of Leadership*, that the postindustrial age economy benefits from the female leadership style. Helgesen held the opinion that women are more successful at the human and emotional side of management and have no use for the competitive side of bureaucratic hierarchy. She also said that women are suited to nonbureaucratic, employee-centered organizations of the 21st century where teamwork and information are the most valuable assets (Helgesen, 1990). Gender stereotyping intensifies the glass ceiling, leading to inequality of opportunity in areas such as promotions and a wage increase.

Promotion Bias

Researchers have shown a great deal of interest in studying how gender influences promotion opportunities. The bulk of the data suggests that women are disadvantaged in that they are less likely to be promoted than men with the same qualifications (F. D. Blau & Devaro, 2007). Women are also perceived to take the *off ramps* on the career highway

while trying to find a more balanced work-life with the hopes of *on ramps* further down the road that will let them pick up where they left off in their travels (Hewlett & Luce, 2005; Mulcahy & Linehan, 2014). Additionally, women are passed over for promotions because there is an organizational fear that women will not be willing to put in the long hours or travel needed for upper hierarchy positions (Mulcahy & Linehan, 2014). Moreover, promotions of women to the highest levels of an organization are often done in times of organizational crisis (Auster & Prasad, 2016). Only to be blamed for organizational failure; this is what is called the glass cliff.

Women are less likely to be promoted to senior management than men; however, arguments have been made that promotion bias is not a side effect of stereotyping, but instead it is a lack of human capital investment for members of the underrepresented groups (Bjerk, 2008). Organizations' failure to invest in the career paths of women unintentionally leads to promotion bias when women lack opportunities for further education or positions are not available to build the required skills for advancement (Auster & Prasad, 2016). The career ladder of women is impacted by the lack of promotion opportunities for women to the top levels of most professions. Women are frequently passed over for promotions because employers believe women will leave to start a family (mommy track) or women will not be willing to work the hours required or be willing to travel if needed (Auster & Prasad, 2016; Bjerk, 2008).

There is evidence that links promotion bias to the wage gap. Yap and Konrad (2009) cited several studies that stated that promotions are tied to wages increases and therefore determine overall wage outcomes. Furthermore, Yap and Konrad shared

evidence that promotions are also linked to increased authority, training opportunities, and increased job satisfaction.

Organizations that lack adequate promotional opportunities for historically underrepresented minorities are negatively affecting their overall employee productivity (Semykina & Linz, 2013). Moreover, a more diverse workforce at all levels of organizations not only benefits employees but also the organization as a whole.

Countermeasures to the Glass Ceiling

Despite the efforts of the state, local, and federal governments to enact policies that encourage equal opportunities in the workplace, the glass ceiling is still an unbroken barrier for women. More needs to be done at the organizational level to affect a cultural shift in how the glass ceiling is viewed. This study focused on mentoring and networking as organizational countermeasures to the glass ceiling.

Mentoring

Mentoring is often named as a crucial tactic for career advancement (Chao, 2007). Research has shown that individuals who have been mentored have better career outcomes than those without mentors (Giscombe, 2007). The glass ceiling is a barrier to mentoring; most specifically, according to Giscombe (2007), is gender stereotyping. Formal mentoring can help women navigate organizations that do not embrace the presence of women in upper management by allowing women to access the inner circles of the good ole boys network (Ragins & Sundstrom, 1989).

Mentoring is crucial as it allows more women to elevate themselves to decision-making positions in an organization. Mentoring grants women entrance to the boys' club, but it can also help reduce the work-life balance conflict (Giscombe, 2007).

According to the study “Women in the Boardroom and Their Impact on Governance and Performance,” conducted by Adams and Ferreira (2009), there is a definite correlation between an organization having a female director and the organization’s performance.

Mentors were credited with providing women with leadership development and counsel, career planning, building self-efficacy, and reputation management. Among those who reported self-efficacy, the most commonly cited statement focused on assistance with risk taking and building confidence (Steele Flippin, 2017). Mentoring has the potential to lead to informal organizational networks (Chao, 2007). Morrison (2002) stated that for new members of the organization, informal networks increase organizational knowledge.

Networking

Networking stems from mentoring. Successful networking provides women with opportunities for establishing and building lasting professional relationships. The benefits women can gain from networking have the potential to make work simpler through the mutual and voluntary exchange of advice, information, resources, and other actions that provide an advantage and/or benefit to those involved (Wolff & Moser, 2010). Wolff and Moser (2010) asserted that typically networking includes social gatherings outside of work, learning about a co-worker’s interests, and information sharing. Women struggle with after-hours networking because they often have family obligations during this time (Steele Flippin, 2017).

A recent study by Steele Flippin (2017) reported that 8% of women felt that networking was essential to their career advancement. In addition, she attested to the fact

that the lower rate of appreciation women hold for networking is a missed opportunity for career development as it correlates with promotion (Steele Flippin, 2017).

Networking provides opportunities for career advancement at all levels of an organization (Steele Flippin, 2017). Steele Flippin (2017) proposed that networking has a distinct tendency to build broader networks of personal relationships, establishing alliances, and increasing visibility in organizations. The findings of Steele Flippin's study show that employee relationships established by networking offer additional career development benefits for female employees. As stated previously, however, women may have family obligations that conflict with informal networking activities that occur after business hours. Furthermore, Steele Flippin recommended that organizations create and support both formal and informal networking activities during business hours and offer training on networking practices. Women should proactively foster deeper connections with peers and leaders at all levels within their organization as an investment in their career development and advancement (Steele Flippin, 2017).

Summary and Conclusion

Chapter 2 began with a comprehensive overview of the theoretical framework used to provide a foundation for the study including public administration, Minnowbrook, representative bureaucracy, and feminist political theory. Next was an in-depth look at the glass ceiling, followed by specific glass ceiling barriers and countermeasures to the glass ceiling. Additionally, models were used to provide a visual representation of the data to better inform the reader of the glass ceiling barriers.

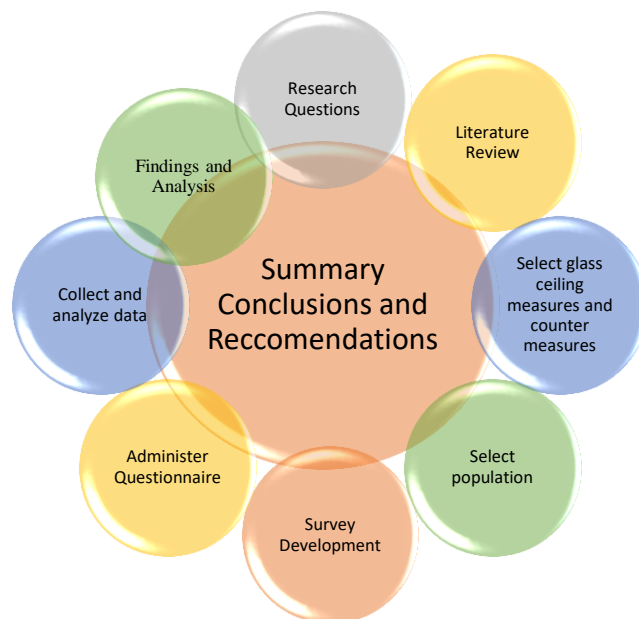
Remainder of the Study

The methodology used to conduct the analysis is discussed in Chapter 3. Chapter 4 presents the data analysis and findings, finally, Chapter 5 contains a summary of Chapters 1-4, conclusions, and recommendations for further study.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Design sits between the research questions and the data, showing how the research questions will be connected to the data, and what tools and procedures to use in answering them. Therefore design needs to follow from the questions, and fit in with the data. (Punch & Oancea, 2014, p. 144)

The purpose of Chapter 3 is to give the reader comprehensive knowledge of the methodology components that will be used to analyze the problem of the impact of the glass ceiling on the career progression of female city managers. The chapter begins with a methodology model that visually defines the flow of the methodology process (see Figure 3). Following the methodology model is a brief recap of the literature review, including studies that are relevant to methodology design, glass ceiling barriers, and glass ceiling countermeasures. A description of the population chosen for the study and a



*Figure 3.*Research methodology model.

discussion of confidentiality are included to highlight the importance of privacy for this study. A comprehensive description of the survey questionnaire is provided in the study's appendix, and the findings are presented in Chapter 4.

Research Design

Research design performs a fundamental role in looking at the research problem. It is necessary for the researcher to formulate a good foundation for the entire research process. This affirmation means that the research needs to select the appropriate approach and the type of research needed to answer the research questions (Mligo, 2016). The selection of the best research approach is an exciting step in the research process for the reason that choosing a better research approach will yield more reliable data (Mligo, 2016). This research study used a qualitative research approach to the problem of the glass ceiling to collect ordinal data that were used to describe the multifaceted nature of the problem.

Shuttleworth (2008) provided an excellent explanation of the descriptive research design that appropriately describes the research approach that was taken for this particular study. "Descriptive research design is a scientific method which involves observing and describing the behavior of a subject without influencing it in any way" (Shuttleworth, 2008, para. 1). This study examines and describes the experiences of women in the city manager position in the state of California. Specifically, this study sought to understand the experiences of women who have reached the pinnacle of their career by breaking the glass ceiling of the male-dominated occupation of the city manager. The intent of this study was to see how, through the collection of ordinal data, the components of the glass ceiling, including the wage gap, gender stereotyping, and

promotion bias, have affected the career path of female city managers. Furthermore, this study sought to see how mentoring and networking have acted as countermeasures to the glass ceiling.

Glass Ceiling

Our founding documents, our theories of leadership and governing, were all written by men, for men. (Palmieri, 2018, p. 5)

The problems of women's rights along with other barriers obstructing the achievement of gender equality have long been significant for countries like America. However, problems remain including barriers of the alleged *glass ceiling*, which impede the advancement of women. A woman is still considered to be a creature of secondary importance, who has no right to work and no equal conditions to be educated (Berishvili, 2016). To add to this is religious laws, some of which sharply separate the rights of men and women from one another and frequently consider the public activity of women unacceptable. Research of the glass ceiling barriers is essential for the global organizations.

The glass ceiling is a social construct to which society attaches different values, roles, and responsibilities for and women. The term *glass ceiling* is most often defined as a socially constructed barrier that prevents women from reaching the upper management levels of organizations (Wirth, 2001). Thus, the glass ceiling depends on concrete socioeconomic, political, and religious contexts and experiences that are influenced by various factors according to race, ethnic origin, class, and gender (Berger & Luckmann, 1966). This concept implies the assumptions, conditioned by culture, about the intellectual potential of women and their personal characteristics and behavior. Glass

ceiling, as a construct, is formed by the society, as a social model, which determines the role and position of women in all the areas of life (Berishvili, 2016). To measure the glass ceiling, like other hard-to-measure events, is of importance to compare countries, to identify problems, and to try to correct the barriers that impede women from advancing their careers to the senior management levels. It may be said that measuring the glass ceiling enables society to reveal its problems and, “in case of the existence of proper will,” to positively act on it (Berishvili, 2016, p. 108). The glass ceiling is made up of many components and is a hard-to-measure social idea (Berishvili, 2016).

The Federal Glass Ceiling Commission (1995) defined the glass ceiling as an invisible barrier that keeps women from upward mobility in organizations despite having the same education and qualifications that men in the organization have. In truth, this metaphor is a way of describing the socially constructed knowledge that prevents women from rising above what society has deemed a women’s place in the world. Furthermore, the Federal Glass Ceiling Commission stated that the glass ceiling is evident in both the public and private sectors. The glass ceiling is a common metaphor across all public and private organizations; however, it is not a barrier that suddenly appears when women reach a particular point of advancement in their career. Unfortunately, particular glass ceiling barriers are present from the start of women’s careers and accumulate over time. This study examined specific and interrelated variables that comprise the glass ceiling including the wage gap, gender stereotyping (including work-life balance), and promotion bias.

Women enter the workforce making a lower wage than men with equal education and qualifications; furthermore, this wage gap widens as women and men move up the

organizational ladder (McKeen & Richardson, 1992). Couple the lower wage with gender stereotyping, which suggests that women are less capable than men at making difficult decisions, have a more significant percentage of family responsibilities, and are less dedicated than men to their careers. Additionally, gender stereotyping contributes to promotion bias.

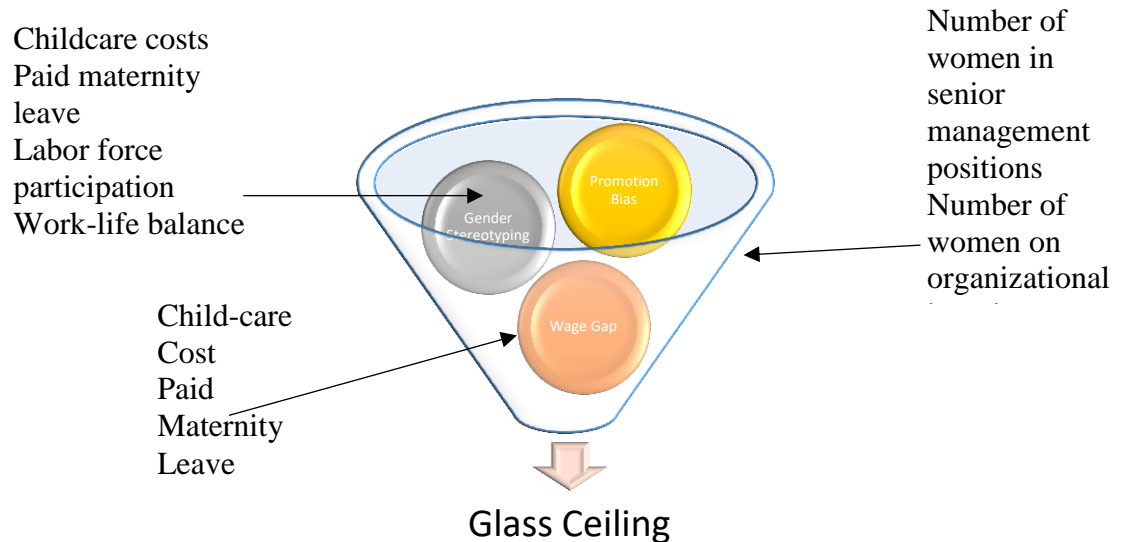


Figure 4. Glass ceiling variables.

Glass Ceiling Variables Selection

The glass ceiling is constructed from several variables including a higher education gap, labor-force participation, the wage gap, number of women in senior management positions, number of women on organizational boards, child-care cost, paid maternity leave, and number of women in government (W-T-W, 2015). The researcher chose to group the barriers into the following categories: wage gap, gender stereotypes, and promotion opportunities. The wage gap is a category by itself. Promotion opportunities include the combined barriers of the number of women in senior management, the number of women on organizational boards, and the number of women

in government. The variable of gender stereotyping includes the barriers of child-care costs, paid maternity leave, labor force participation, as well as other traditional gender roles including work-life balance.

Countermeasure Variables Selection

The literature reveals few countermeasures that will enable women to shatter the glass ceiling finally. Nonetheless, there is literature that states that both mentoring and networking can have a positive effect on overcoming the glass ceiling (see Figure 5). These variables are included in the data collection of this study to show how mentoring and network impacted the upward mobility of women city managers in the state of California.

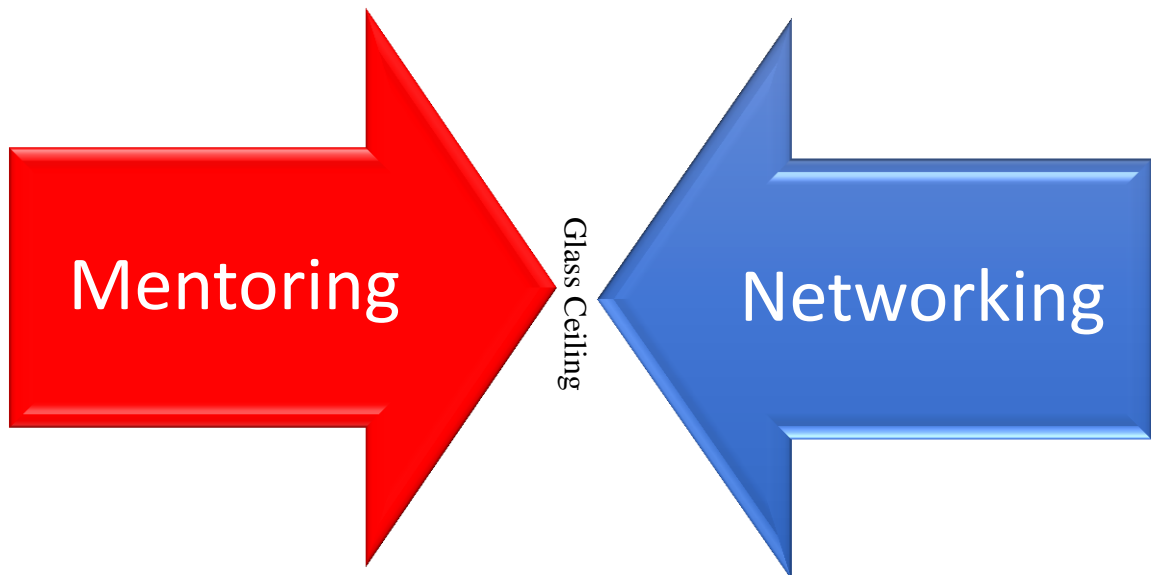


Figure 5. Countermeasures.

Research Questions

Central Research Question

What are the perceptions of female city managers concerning the glass ceiling and its impact on women seeking higher level administrative careers in public service?

Subquestions

1. What aspects/elements of the glass ceiling have had an impact on the professional journey of current female city managers?
2. What aspects/elements of the glass ceiling have changed in the past 30 years?
3. What countermeasures are effective in ameliorating some of the aspects/elements of the glass ceiling?

Research Purpose

This descriptive research describes, explains, and interprets the conditions of the glass ceiling. Furthermore, the purpose of this descriptive research was to examine a phenomenon that is occurring at a specific place and time. For this study, the place and time are current city manager offices held by women. Descriptive research is concerned with conditions, practices, structures, differences, or relationships that exist, opinions held, processes that are going on or trends that are experienced (Shuttleworth, 2008).

The glass ceiling was operationalized for this study as a barrier women perceive to inhibit the upward mobility of their career in municipal leadership. The operationalization of the glass ceiling includes but is not limited to the wage gap, gender stereotyping, and promotion opportunities. Networking and mentoring are discussed and measured as countermeasures to the glass ceiling.

Table 1

Glass Ceiling Variables, Definitions, and Ties to Survey Questions

Variable	Conceptual definition	Operational definition	Survey questions
Wage gap	The wage gap is the ratio of the annual pay of men and women for full-time, year-round workers (D. Blau & Kahn, 2007)	Women report that they make a lower wage doing the same job as a man.	SQ 17,
Work-life balance	Double presence—balancing professional responsibilities with domestic responsibilities (Cervia & Biancheri, 2017)	Women report taking time off to care for a family member and that this time off negatively affected their careers.	SQ 24
Gender stereotypes	Stereotyping involves assigning traits to people based on their membership in a social category (Embry, Padgett, & Caldwell, 2008).	Women report being shunted into traditional gender roles be other members of the organization.	SQ 12, SQ 13, SQ 14, SQ 15, SQ 16, SQ 18. SQ 25, SQ 26
Promotion opportunities	The advancement of an employee from one job position to another job position that has a higher salary range, a higher level job title, and, often, more and higher level job responsibilities in an organization (Pergamit & Veum, 2007)	Women report being passed over for promotions in favor of a male with the same skill set.	SQ 19, SQ 20, SQ 21, SQ 22, SQ 23, SQ 27, SQ 28, SQ 37
Mentoring	The U.S. Air National Guard defines mentoring as having a trusted counselor or guide typically a senior person who acts as a counselor, coach, motivator, and role model. Also, a mentor is a person who has a sincere desire to enhance the success of others as well as a person who volunteers time to help the associate gain the skills and knowledge needed to succeed.	Women report having a person or persons who either formally or informally had a positive influence on their career.	SQ29, SQ 30, SQ 31, SQ 35, SQ 36
Networking	Networking is a socioeconomic business activity by which businesspeople and entrepreneurs meet to form business relationships and to recognize, create, or act upon business opportunities, share information, and seek potential partners for ventures (Österle, Fleisch, & Alt, 2001)	Women reported that they participated in a formal or informal relationship building both inside and outside their current organization.	SQ 32, SQ 33, SQ 34

This study sought to clarify and describe the effect the glass ceiling has had on women who are city managers in the state of California. Gauging the effects of the glass ceiling on female city managers was accomplished by sending a survey to all women city managers in the state of California, which was 72 throughout the entire state at the time of this research. The anticipated rate of return was one third or about 22 surveys.

The review of the literature showed a consensus among researchers that women are still underrepresented in the senior levels of management. However, improvements have been made in the number of women holding the position of city managers. This study sought to understand the barriers that women have overcome to reach the level of the city manager and the obstacles that still need to be overcome through the experiences of the women who have reached that level.

Structure and Participants

For this research study, because the population was small, the entire population was asked to participate. Study participants were selected because they had a specific set of desired characteristics: acting as the city manager in that state of California and being female. Participants were identified by utilizing the League of California Cities website to generate a list of all city managers in the state. This list was meticulously scrutinized to identify all current female city managers. Contact information was gathered from each city website. Data were collected for this study through a survey sent to all current female city managers. The population for the study was contacted with an introductory e-mail introducing the researcher and explaining the purpose of the survey. The researcher sent a follow-up e-mail as well, explaining the rationale of the study with an attached letter of consent and the link to the survey on SurveyMonkey. Once the letter of

consent was returned, the password for the survey was sent via separate e-mail to the participant to ensure the integrity of the collected data.

The participants were advised that all precautions to protect privacy would be made, including the removal of names, titles, and cities information. Additionally, the researcher explained that participants would be answering Internal Review Board preapproved questions. The participants were also informed that the anticipated survey time was approximately 15 minutes. The benchmarks for participation in the study required that the participants would be or had been a city manager in the state of California and that they were female at the time this study was being conducted.

Confidentiality

The researcher was very cognitive of the sensitive nature of the survey questions. Every feasible effort was made to ensure that neither cities the participants represent nor the survey participants themselves were nor would be identified. Furthermore, the researcher ensured that complete confidentiality was guaranteed from the initial contact to the potential requests from a future researcher for access to data. Each participant was asked to provide the city she worked for as a means to track which participants had returned the surveys. This information was used exclusively for its intended purposes of tracking the returned survey; the information did not appear in the study. Contact information was and will continue to be known only to the researcher to ensure that participants cannot be identified by an outside party. At the conclusion of the study, the individual survey responses were moved to a thumb drive for storage in a locked safe. Moreover, all paper correspondence was digitized and stored on the same thumb drive and paper copies were shredded at the end of the study.

Survey Instrument

The instrument that was used to collect data for this research study was a 5-point Likert scale questionnaire designed specifically for this descriptive research project, which asked participants to evaluate statements on a scale of *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree* in five unique sections. The survey method was chosen because this researcher was interested in collecting data from a specific population for descriptive purposes only. The researcher did not manipulate the variables in any way. Thus, the questions posed and the response scales used in the survey were derived from the literature review.

Using surveys as the method to collect data has many benefits such as lower bias errors, low cost, increased confidentiality, and enhanced ease for respondents to participate when their time allows (Shultz, 1998). Despite the advantages, there are drawbacks to using a questionnaire for data collection. Drawbacks include little or no opportunity to probe or clarify participant answers. Questions used in the survey must be straightforward and uncomplicated. Although every effort was made to ensure that the intended participant filled out the questionnaire, it could not be guaranteed. Finally, because the survey was done through an Internet link, there was potential for a low return rate (Shultz, 1998).

The survey instrument designed specifically for this research study was made up of six sections, with an opportunity for the participants to add any additional information they believed pertinent. The initial question asked the participant to identify the city she worked for. This question was not included in the findings or final conclusions. The first question served the purpose of tracking completed surveys. Following the first question,

the researcher generated 12 demographic questions in the first section; these questions covered all the basic information: age, education, marital status. The demographic questions also asked about number of children, size of the current city, and the number of years of public service. Following the demographic questions, were five statements covering opportunities afforded the participants early in their careers, including career development opportunities, providing input on organizational direction, and hiring. Following the statements involving early careers were seven statements that cover the participant's career as a city manager, including all of each participant's city manager experience, not just the city that employed the participant at the time of this study. Statements in this segment covered the effects of glass ceiling barriers on the participants including the effects of gender stereotyping, the wage gap, and career progression. Next, the participants were asked to share their opinions on how the glass ceiling has changed over the last 30 years. In the final section of statements, the participants were asked to provide opinions on the effectiveness of countermeasures on the glass ceiling. The survey concluded with an opportunity for the participants to provide any other information or personal experiences.

Survey Pilot Test

The researcher looked for an established questionnaire that would provide the required data for this study. A suitable survey was unavailable, thus a new survey instrument was developed. This particular survey went through a series of revisions before a final version was decided on. Given that this was an untested questionnaire, it was necessary to perform an informal pilot test prior to sending the survey out to the participants. Creswell (2014) stated that pilot testing is essential for establishing the

validity of the data collection method. Pilot tests are used to check for readability of the directions and survey statements, spelling or grammar errors, and finally, the length of time the survey will take to complete. Essentially, pilot testing is a process of finding out if a survey will work in the *real world* by trying it out first on a few people who are similar to its intended participants.

Data Collection

This study was a descriptive study; therefore, data were collected by survey. Surveys were closed-ended Likert-style questions asking about how the glass ceiling had impacted the population's career paths. The researcher created a survey designed exclusively for this study. Questions covered the following variables identified as contributing to the glass ceiling: mentoring, networking, wage gap, work-life balance, gender stereotypes, and promotion bias—asking the population to rank from 1 to 5 the impact each variable had on their careers. This research was purely descriptive not experimental, so there was no manipulation of the variables.

The timeline for this study was 4 weeks. The data collection period was created to allow ample time for the researcher to collect the required information from the participants while simultaneously respecting the time of the population. The data collection process, as stated before, was a total of 4 weeks; this timeframe allowed the researcher to gather adequate data relevant to the study and to compile and review the results to add to the final research project.

This timeline included a timetable for follow-up reminder e-mails sent to the participants at regular intervals if the survey had not been returned by the 1-week mark (see Appendix A). The same procedure was followed at the 3-week mark. The

researcher understood the busy lives the participants had and thus was flexible with the timeline.

Data Coding

Following data collection in this case through an online survey, the information was translated into a form that could be analyzed (Fowler, 2014). Additionally, Fowler (2014) referred to the process of translating answers into numerical form by using a predetermined set of rules as coding. Fowler described the process of coding as a 4-step process:

1. Design the code or rules that will be used to assign values to the respondent's answers.
2. Coding the answer into the predetermined categories
3. Entering the coded data into the program that will be used to analyze the data.
4. Double-checking the data for accuracy, completeness, and consistency prior to analysis.

Data Analysis

This research study used qualitative data to describe how the glass ceiling has influenced the career path of women who hold the position of city manager in the state of California. Data were gathered through a short survey sent to the entire population (Appendix B). Data collected by the questionnaire were then coded from alpha to numeric values. As a final step in data analysis for this study, the researcher compiled all the data to facilitate and interpret the results and present the conclusions drawn from those data. Data were also tied back to the research question and guide future research.

Validity

Validation of the findings from the collection of data occurs throughout the entire process of research (Creswell, 2000). This section of the dissertation focused on the procedure that was used by the researcher to ensure the study's validity through both the accuracy and credibility of the data. In qualitative research, validity is defined differently than it is in quantitative research. The researcher utilized the definition from Creswell's (2014) *Research Design*, which states, "The researcher checks for the accuracy of the findings by employing certain procedures" (p. 201). Additionally, Creswell stated that validity is a strength of qualitative research. This strength is born out of determining if the findings are accurate from the standpoint not only of the researcher but also of the participants or the person reading the study (Creswell, 2000).

The objective of the survey instrument used in this study was to measure how female city managers were affected by the glass ceiling barriers of wage gap, gender stereotyping, and promotion opportunity, and if the countermeasures of mentoring and networking were effective in aiding them in breaking the glass ceiling. The researcher acknowledged that this topic was subjective; however, it was acceptable to consider that measuring the perceptions of women who have become city managers will have value in aiding other women in breaking through the glass ceiling.

This study has some potential for issues with validity. The population for this survey was 73 participants. The possibility of response bias could have an impact on the validity of the findings. Furthermore, the participants knew that they were participating in a research study, so there was no procedure to determine if the respondents had slanted their answers in any way. The final hurdle to validity from the participants stemmed

from the choice of subjects. Only women who were holding the position of city manager at the time of this study were asked to participate.

Reliability

The validity of the research process is essential. However, reliability is vital to the process of research as well. Reliability is defined by Creswell (2000) as the researcher's approach is consistent with that of other researchers and other projects. Researchers can bolster the reliability of the research process by keeping careful documentation of the process and procedures. Researchers should also keep detailed protocol and database notes that will allow others to recreate the study (Creswell, 2000).

There was no previously established survey instrument for a study of this type; thus, the researcher was required to create a survey instrument. Due to the untested nature of this instrument, the researcher was careful to use existing literature as the foundation for each statement or question. The final questionnaire was adopted for use in this study only after numerous revisions and a pilot test. The pilot test was conducted by asking three female faculty members to assess the final draft of the survey instrument for readability, understandability, spelling, and grammar. The recommendations of the pilot test were incorporated into the final questionnaire, which was then sent to the participants.

Limitations of the Study

Descriptive studies are unable to test or verify the research problem statistically. The lack of statistical evaluation may lead to a certain level of researcher bias when reporting the research results (Dudovskiy, n.d.). Additional limitations are created when using a descriptive study because they are observational in their design; they may not be

repeatable (Dudovskiy, n.d.). The descriptive study does not aid in the identification of cause behind the studied phenomenon (Dudovskiy, n.d.).

Limitations of this research included a small population from which to choose the sample. All possible safeguards were put in place to protect the identities of the participants; this small population may have made identification of individual people possible. Return rates of the surveys are another possible limitation due to the time constraints the participants may have had. Researcher error may also have limited the study as well. Another, perhaps more critical, limitation exists in this study, that of nonresponse error (Diem, 2002). The sample for this study was, as previously stated, small in size, but more importantly, the hectic schedule of the city managers may have inhibited the rate of return.

Summary

Chapter 3 was a comprehensive overview of the detailed methodology that focused on the process of how the study was conducted. Moreover, this chapter laid out the goals of the research, which was to collect data from the female city managers on their perceptions of the glass ceiling and the countermeasures that could be used to overcome the barriers of the glass ceiling.

Furthermore, this chapter discussed the research design, glass ceiling barrier, and countermeasure selection and guidelines for participant selection. Detailed descriptions of how confidentiality would be ensured were discussed followed by the description of the instrument that was used for collecting data. Chapter 3 also contained information related to the pilot test, data coding, and analysis. Discussion on the operationalization of

variables and research questions was also included. Finally, the chapter concluded with an examination of validity and reliability.

Remainder of the Study

The remainder of the study is made up of Chapter 4 and Chapter 5. Chapter 4 presents the analysis of the data and the findings. The final chapter contains a summary of the first four chapters, conclusions drawn for the data analysis, and findings and conclusions with recommendations for further study.

CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS

Don't aim to break the glass ceiling; aim to shatter it.

—Matshona Dhliwayo

The purpose of this descriptive research study was to investigate and describe how the glass ceiling has or has not influenced the professional journey of women who have successfully reached the position of city manager in California. At the outset, the researcher identified 452 cities in the state of California that employ city managers. Breaking that number down further, it was discovered that of those 452 city managers at the time of this study, 73 female city managers were identified as potential respondents. All 73 women were invited to participate in the questionnaire. At the end of the 4-week data collection period, 26 of the 73 participants responded to the request to participate positively and surveys were completed, two city managers were no longer with the city with which they had been identified and were therefore excluded, and three refusal e-mails were collected. Thus, 26 valid responses were used for statistical analysis. The total response rate was 35.6%.

Pilot Test

For the purpose of this study, an informal pilot test was conducted because the survey instrument was created specifically for this study, and thus it was necessary to establish that the content was coherent, spelling and grammar were correct, and finally, directions were easy to understand (Creswell, 2014). A dress rehearsal for the untested questionnaire was conducted with the assistance of three female California Baptist University Online Professional Studies (OPS) professors with previous administration experience. These three women were asked to go through the survey, which was made

up of 13 demographic statements, 23 Likert-style statements, and a final question that was open ended allowing for sharing any additional information. These professional women provided feedback on readability, spelling and grammar errors, and clarity of the wording to the researcher through the dissertation chair.

The results returned to the researcher were comprised mostly of clarifying the wording of the questions. The participants of the pilot test did not provide feedback on the time required to take the survey, but they did provide recommendations for clarification of wording, sentence structure, and grammar. After discussing the feedback with the dissertation chair, the researcher made the changes suggested by the pilot group before the surveys were sent out to the participants.

Data Collection Experience

Prior to sending the surveys out, a letter of introduction from a former female city manager was sent to all prospective participants. This letter detailed the researcher's public sector background and the purpose of this study. On October 1st, the day following the letter of introduction, the researcher sent out the initial e-mail contacting the participants, introducing herself and providing a description of the survey and the consent to participate. The initial contact generated a return of seven completed surveys with an additional four signed consents that did not lead to a completed survey. The researcher sent a second e-mail on the 9th of October with a more personalized e-mail to all participants who did not respond. The second e-mail generated an additional five completed surveys. The following week, on October 15th, a third e-mail was sent to the group of participants who did not respond plus a separate e-mail to the participants who had returned the signed consent form asking them to complete the survey. These e-mails

generated seven additional completed surveys as well as three responses of those who declined to participate in the survey. The researcher made a final attempt at increasing the number of completed surveys on the 23rd of October. This final invitation to participate netted an additional six responses increasing the total number of completed surveys to 26.

Data Coding

Data coding is a crucial step in preparing raw data for analysis by statistical programs. Traditionally, social science allows the codes to emerge during analysis (Creswell, 2014). The Likert-style questionnaire developed specifically for this research study made coding uncomplicated. Each question or statement was given a corresponding letter value and each response was given a numeric value in order to export to Excel for analysis. Careful attention was paid during this step to ensure that all responses were coded correctly. The respondents were asked to state which response best matched the statement from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*.

Analysis

This descriptive qualitative survey explored the experiences of female city managers. The population size for this study was 73. By the end of the data collection period, 26 of the 73 women provided responses to their career experiences through the use of a Likert-style questionnaire and demographic questions. Survey Questions 1-13 requested demographic information while Questions 14-37 asked the women to state the degree to which the statements reflected personal experiences and beliefs. The degree of belief and the corresponding numerical value for responses are displayed in Table 2.

Table 2

Responses and Numerical Equivalent

<u>Degree of belief and numerical equivalent</u>	
Degree of belief	Interval scale
Strongly disagree	1
Disagree	2
Neutral	3
Agree	4
Strongly agree	5

Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

The required gender of this study was female. A fail-safe was built into the survey to funnel out any surveys being sent to male city managers. This fail-safe kicked in when the respondent was asked to self-identify his or her gender. If the male gender was chosen, the respondent was taken to a page that thanked him for his time; however, he did not qualify for the study.

All survey respondents self-reported their age, which is displayed in Figure 6. Of the population, 57.69% were between the ages of 41 and 50. Another 30.77% were between the ages of 51 and 60, while the other 11.54% was distributed between those 31 to 40 and 61 to 70 years of age.

All respondents were asked to state if they had served in the military prior to entering the public sector. One hundred percent of the respondents reported that they had not served in the military (see Figure 7).

Respondents were asked to report their marital status. Again, all survey participants responded to the question. An overwhelming number (76.92%) of the population reported being married (see Figure 8).

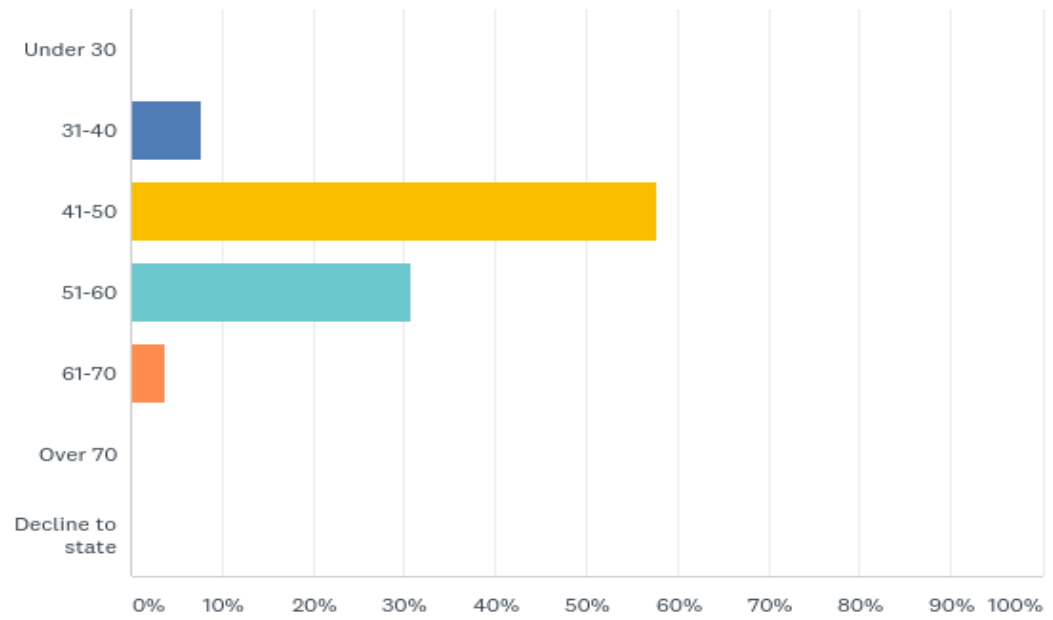


Figure 6. Age of respondents.

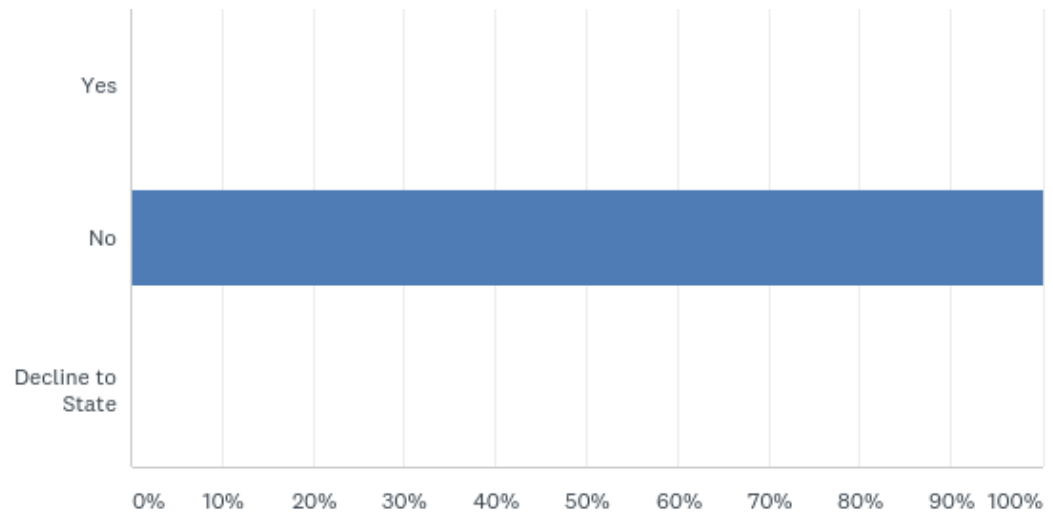


Figure 7. Military service.

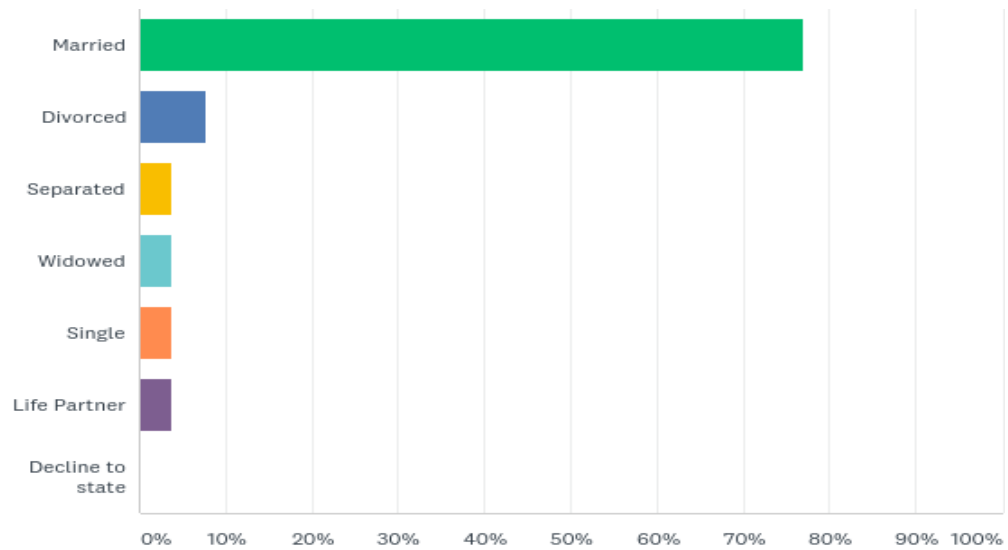


Figure 8. Marital status.

The women who responded to this survey were evenly split with 50% of women having children under the age of 18 who still lived at home. Interestingly, however, of the 50%, only 46.15% of the women stated they had substantial child-rearing responsibilities. Furthermore, respondents stated that 19.23% had some child-rearing responsibilities, while 34.62% self-reported no child-rearing responsibilities (see Figures 9 and 10).

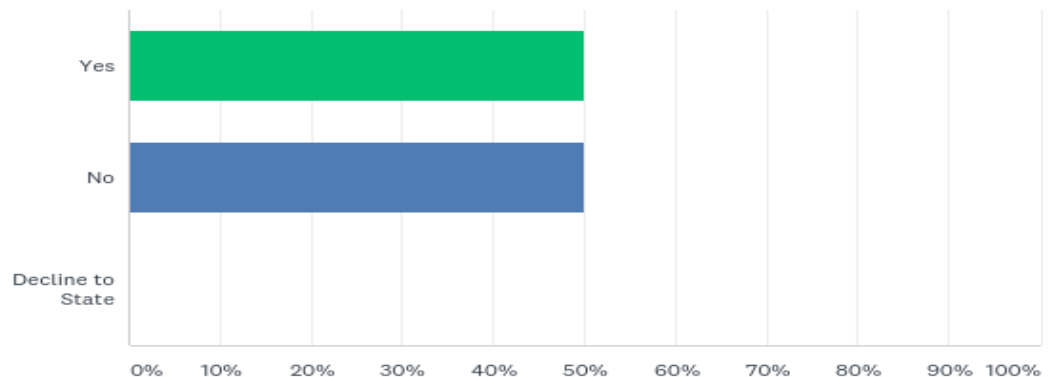


Figure 9. Children at home.

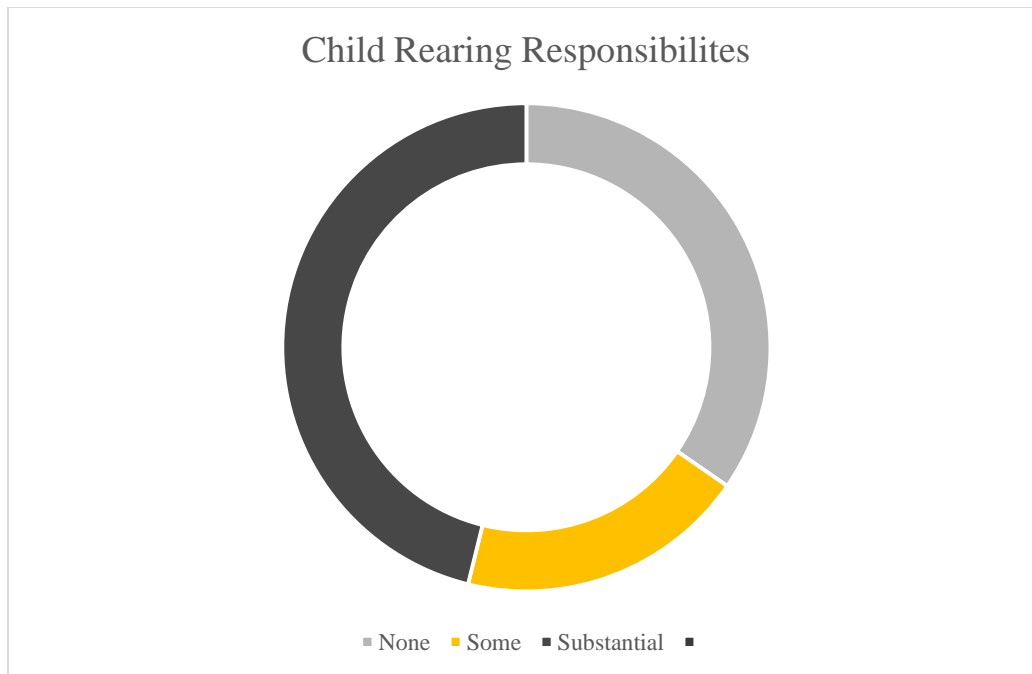


Figure 10. Child-rearing responsibilities.

Respondents were not only asked about child-rearing responsibilities, but they were also asked to provide information on caregiving for family members who were not under the age of 18. Figure 11 shows that 50% of these women had no caregiver responsibilities for a family member other than children. Conversely, 42.31% had some responsibility for caring for family members other than children, while 7.69% of the respondents expressed providing substantial care to family members other than children.

The education level of the respondents is listed in Figure 12. An overwhelming majority of the women, 76.92%, had a master's degree with a few baccalaureate and doctoral degrees sprinkled in the mix as well.

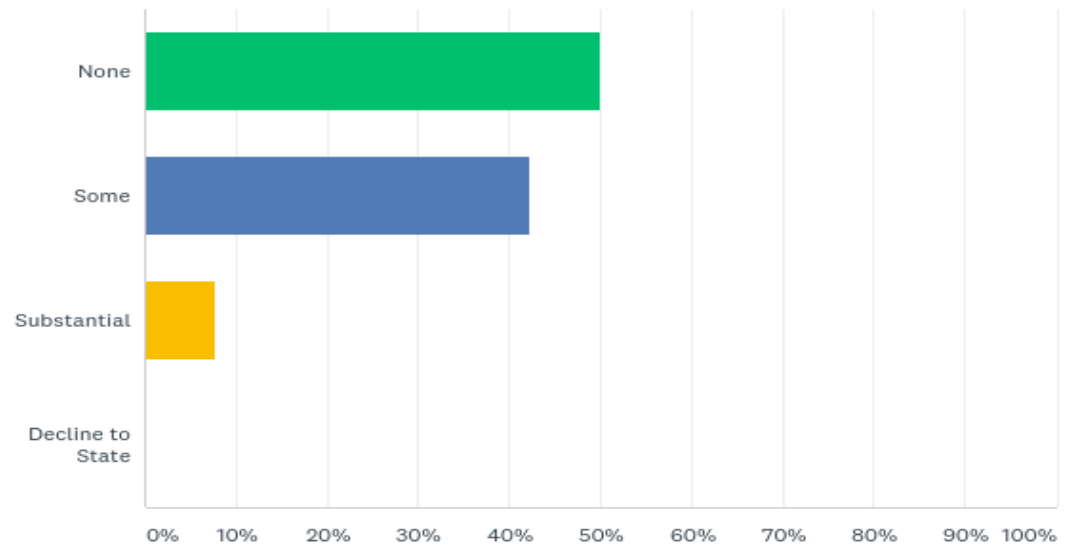


Figure 11. Non-child caregiver responsibility.

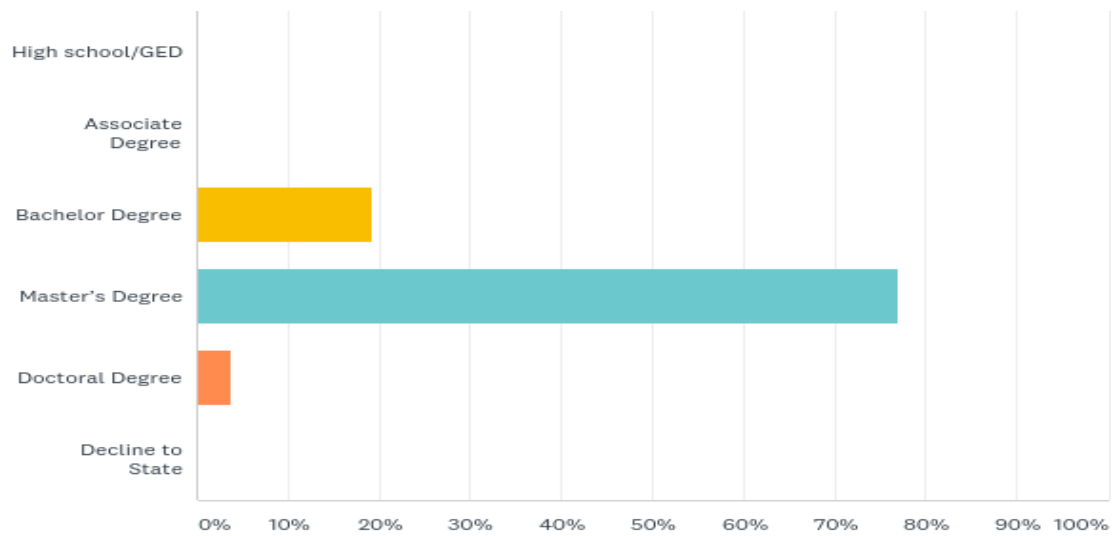


Figure 12. Highest level of education.

As with education, the overwhelming number of the sample population identified their gender as White/Caucasian. Twenty or the 26 or 76.92% respondents classified themselves as White. Perhaps most notable in this demographic is the lack of women of color.

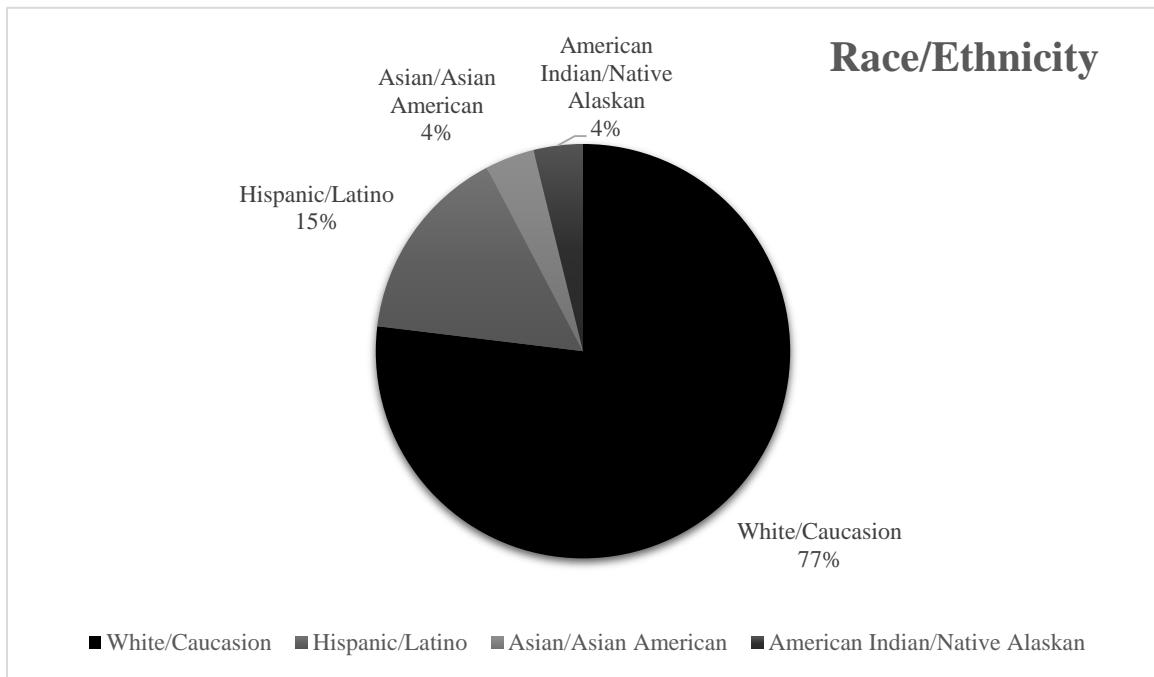


Figure 13. Ethnicity.

Figures 14 and 15 depict the number of years each woman has been in public service and the number of years as city manager. The term in years reported for a city manager is cumulative years, not just the current tenure as city manager. One of the most intriguing statistics that jumps out of the figures is that 46.18% of the women reported being in public service for 11 to 20 years. Yet the average years as city manager is 1 to 5 with 65.38% of the respondents falling into this demographic. An additional 38.46% of the respondents fell into the demographic of 20+ years.

The final demographic was the population of the respondent's current city. The statistics reported showed that 57.69% of the women are city managers in cities with populations of 10,001 to 50,000. Furthermore, 15.38% serve in cities of 50,001 to 100,000 in population. An additional 11.54% serve the city with populations of 100,000 to 250,000.

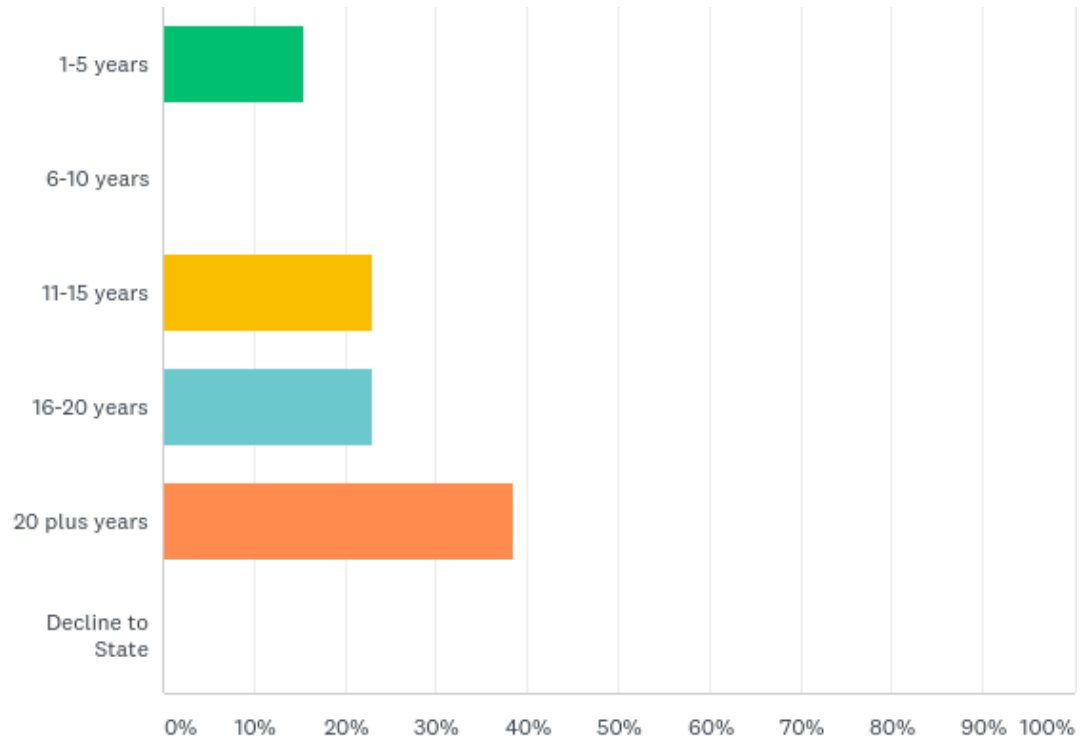


Figure 14. Total number years in public service.

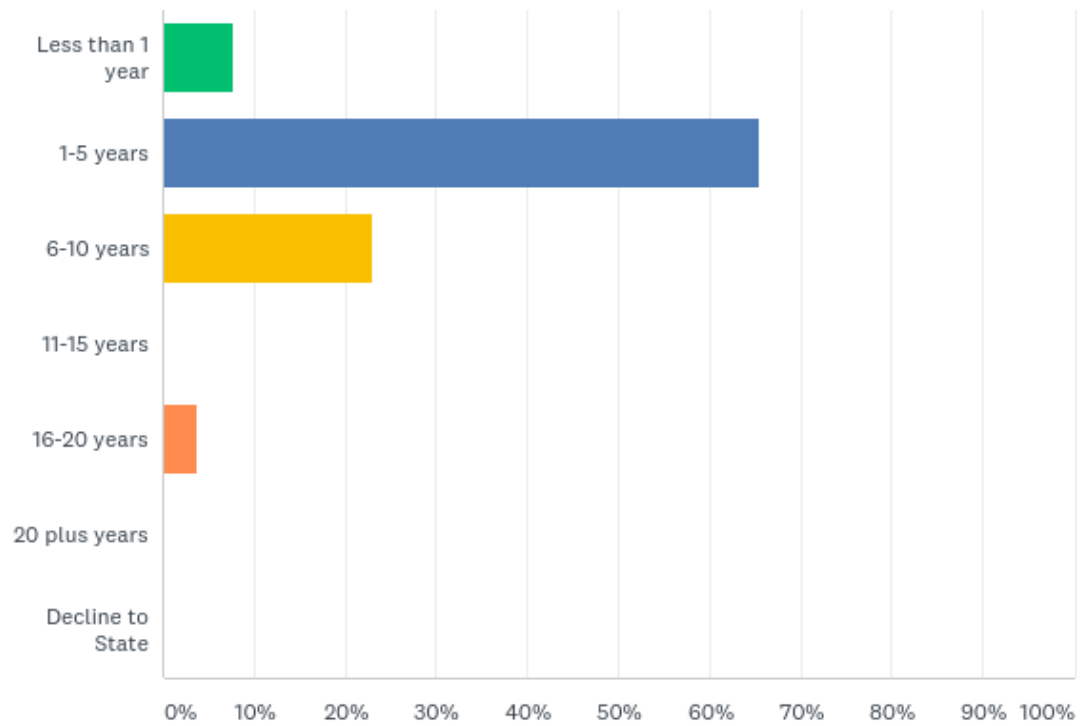


Figure 15. Years as a city manager.

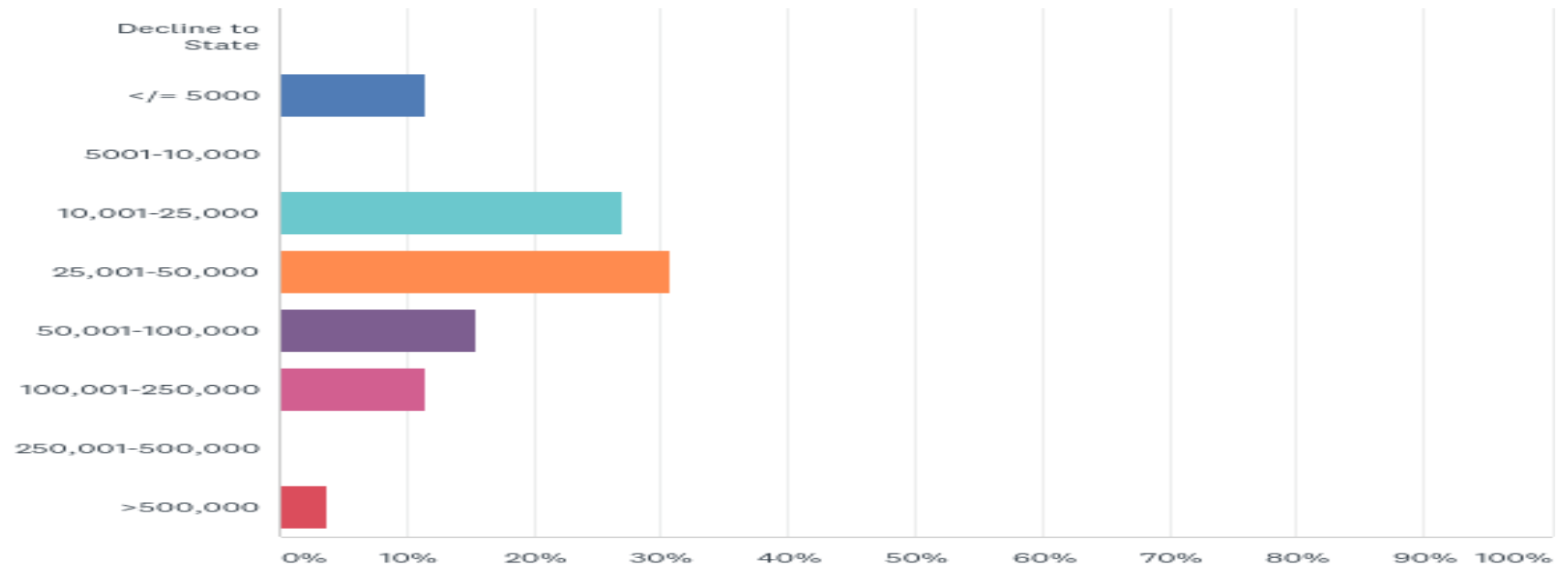


Figure 16. Population of respondents' cities.

Data Analysis and Research Questions

Data collected in this study fall into either interval or ordinal categories. The statistical tests selected for this analysis were based on the data obtained from the survey results. The raw data gathered from the completed questionnaire were coded in line with the codebook located in Appendix C. Coded data were loaded into SPSS checking for factor analysis. Factor analysis was used as a data reduction technique (Dissertation Canada, 2014). There are three foremost reasons for using factor analysis in research. The first factor analysis is used to reduce the amount of data from a large amount to lesser, more manageable amount. Next, this technique is used to set up underlying relationships and connections between the variables and their constructs, and finally, factor analysis is used to provide the construct validity evidence (Dissertation Canada, 2014).

At the onset of analysis, the factorability of the 24 factors was examined using correlation. Initially, it was observed that all 24 of the 24 items correlated at least .3 with at least one other item indicating there was a relationship between the items. The items were put through additional analysis for internal consistency. Internal consistency is expressed as Cronbach's alpha. Cronbach's alpha increases as the relationships among items increase and is expressed as an internal consistency. Methodologists propose that the Cronbach's alpha should at a minimum be between 0.65 and 0.8 or even higher in most cases and anything less than 0.5 is unacceptable (Cortina, 1993). The measure of Cronbach's alpha needs to be high as it is believed to circuitously point to the degree a set of items measures an underlying commonality (Cortina, 1993; Cronbach, 1951). As previously stated, all items showed a relationship to each other with a 0.3 correlation

coefficient; Cronbach's alpha showed that particular items were more closely correlated to each other. SPSS returned three groups with a Cronbach's alpha of .803 or higher (see Table 3).

Table 3

Measure of Cronbach's Alpha

Cronbach's alpha	Internal consistency
$\alpha \geq 0.9$	Excellent
$.09 \alpha \geq 0.8$	Good
$.08 \alpha \geq 0.7$	Acceptable
$0.7 \alpha \geq 0.6$	Questionable
$0.6 \alpha \geq 0.5$	Poor
$0.5 \alpha \geq$	Unacceptable

Note. From Cronbach's Alpha: Simple Definition, Use and Interpretation, by Statistics How To, 2014 (<https://www.statisticshowto.datasciencecentral.com/cronbachs-alpha-spss/>).

Internal Consistency 1

Internal consistency among the items in Tables 4, 5, and 6 is correlated strongly with a Cronbach's alpha of .923, which is above the 0.9 internal consistency scale for excellent reliability.

Table 4

Reliability Statistics 1

Cronbach's alpha	N of items
.923	7

Table 5

Reliability Group 1

Statement	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
S	2.7308	1.50850	26
AC	3.9231	0.97665	26
X	3.0000	1.29615	26
Y	2.3077	1.08699	26
AE	2.6923	1.19228	26
Z	2.6154	1.26734	26
R	2.4231	1.02657	26

Table 6

Internal Consistency 1: Item With the Corresponding Statement

Item	Statement
S	I do not feel that I have had to work harder than my male counterparts to earn the respect of my peers.
AC	I had a mentor who was important to my career progression and development.
X	The perception of the leadership abilities of female city managers has changed in a positive manner over the last 30 years.
Y	The perceived value of women in leadership positions in city government changed over the last 30 years.
AE	Formal mentoring programs will benefit women looking to advance to senior leadership positions.
Z	Opportunities for women seeking leadership positions have increased in the last 30 years.
R	I have not experienced gender stereotyping of my roles and abilities during my career progression.

Internal Consistency 2

Internal consistency among the items in the Tables 7, 8, and 9 is correlated strongly with a Cronbach's alpha of .806, which is above the 0.8 internal consistency scale for good reliability.

Table 7

Reliability Statistics 2

Cronbach's alpha	N of items
.806	3

Table 8

Reliability Group 2

Statement	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
O	4.0769	1.01679	26
N	3.9615	0.82369	26
P	3.8462	0.92487	26

Table 9

Internal Consistency 2: Item With the Corresponding Statement

Item	Statement
O	I had opportunities to participate in professional development (workshops, resume building, conferences) during my career.
N	I was frequently part of the hiring process.
P	I was encouraged by my supervisors to apply for positions with increasing decision-making and leadership responsibilities.

Internal Consistency 3

Internal consistency among the items in the Tables 10, 11, and 12 is correlated strongly with a Cronbach's alpha of .813, which is above the 0.8 internal consistency scale for good reliability.

Table 10

Reliability Statistics 3

Cronbach's alpha	N of items
.813	4

Table 11

Reliability Group 3

Statement	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
AA	3.5769	1.02657	26
T	3.7692	0.95111	26
AD	3.9231	0.97665	26
AB	3.8077	0.89529	26

Table 12

Internal Consistency 3: Item With the Corresponding Statement

Item	Statement
AA	The visibility of women in leadership roles has had a positive impact on the glass ceiling over the last 30 years.
T	I believe my career progressed in a way that was fitting with my education, experience, and training.
AD	Mentoring others (formal or informal) is an important role for women in leadership.
AB	The glass ceiling is no longer a significant barrier to the career progression of women in the public sector.

This research study sought to answer the following research questions by using factor analysis to gain a better understanding of the perceptions of female city managers on the effects of the social construct of the glass ceiling on the careers of women who work in the public sector.

Central Research Question Findings

What are the perceptions of female city managers concerning the glass ceiling and its impact on women seeking higher-level administrative careers in public service?

Despite the apparent dichotomous nature in statements Q22 (S), Q32 (AC), Q27 (X), Q28 (Y), Q34 (AE), Q29 (Z), and Q21 (R; see Table 13), Cronbach's alpha found

there to be strong internal consistency of .923 as shown in Table 4 titled Reliability Statistics 1.

Table 13

Statements Related to the Central Research Question

Item	Statement	Degree of belief	
Q22	I do not feel that I have had to work harder than my male counterparts to earn the respect of my peers.	Strongly disagree	11.54%
		Disagree	57.69%
		Neutral	11.54%
		Agree	15.38%
		Strongly agree	3.85%
Q32	I had a mentor who was important to my career progression and development.	Strongly disagree	7.69%
		Disagree	7.69%
		Neutral	15.38%
		Agree	46.15%
		Strongly agree	23.08%
Q27	The perception of the leadership abilities of female city managers has changed in a positive manner over the last 30 years.	Strongly disagree	3.85%
		Disagree	15.38%
		Neutral	11.54%
		Agree	57.69%
		Strongly agree	11.54%
Q28	The perceived value of women in leadership positions in city government changed over the last 30 years.	Strongly disagree	3.85%
		Disagree	7.69%
		Neutral	3.85%
		Agree	73.08%
		Strongly agree	11.54%
Q34	Formal mentoring programs will benefit women looking to advance to senior leadership positions.	Strongly disagree	0.00%
		Disagree	7.69%
		Neutral	11.54%
		Agree	53.85%
		Strongly agree	26.92%
Q29	Opportunities for women seeking leadership positions have increased in the last 30 years.	Strongly disagree	3.85%
		Disagree	3.85%
		Neutral	15.38%
		Agree	50.00%
		Strongly agree	26.92%
Q21	I have not experienced gender stereotyping of my roles and abilities during my career progression.	Strongly disagree	11.54%
		Disagree	57.69%
		Neutral	11.54%
		Agree	15.38%
		Strongly agree	3.85%

A basic assumption can be drawn based on the degree of belief self-reported by the respondents in the statements in Table 12. Based on the responses to Q21 and Q22, it can be presumed that the women who have reached the position of city manager have faced some form of the invisible barrier during the progression of their career. Despite the glass ceiling still being an impediment to the career progression of women in the public sector, based on the responses to Q27, Q28, and Q29, there is a strong argument to be made that in spite of the ever-present glass ceiling, women in the public sector are making advancements in to senior-level leadership positions has increased in the last 30 years (see Figures 17, 18, and 19).

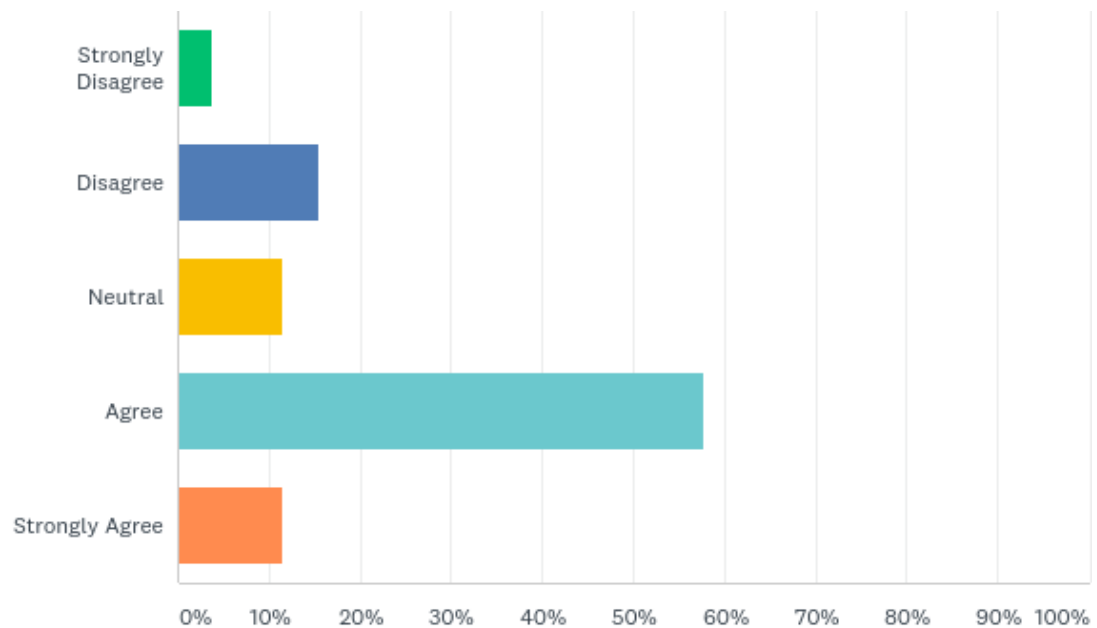


Figure 17. The perception of the leadership abilities of female city managers has changed in a positive manner over the last 30 years.

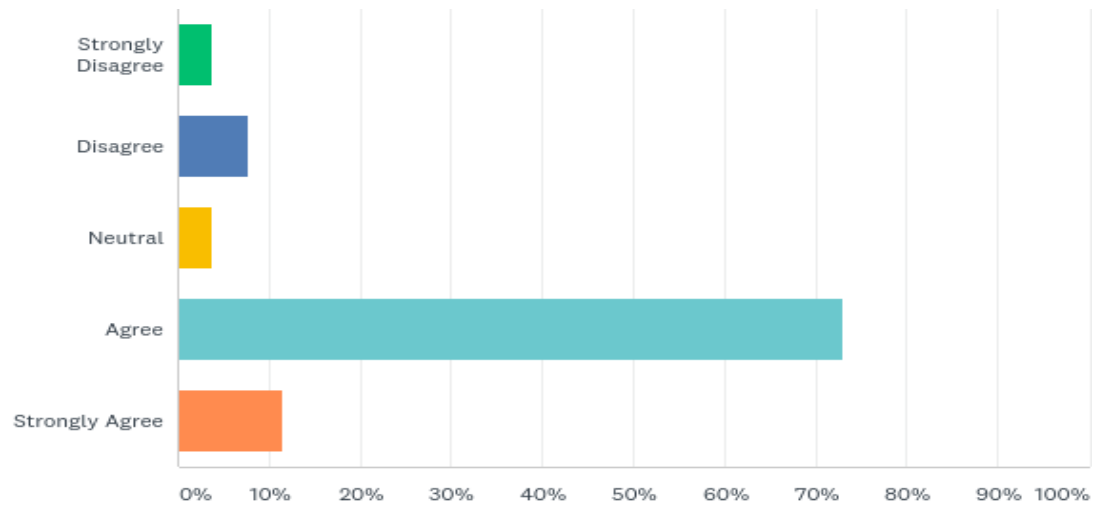


Figure 18. The perceived value of women in leadership positions in city government changed over the last 30 years.

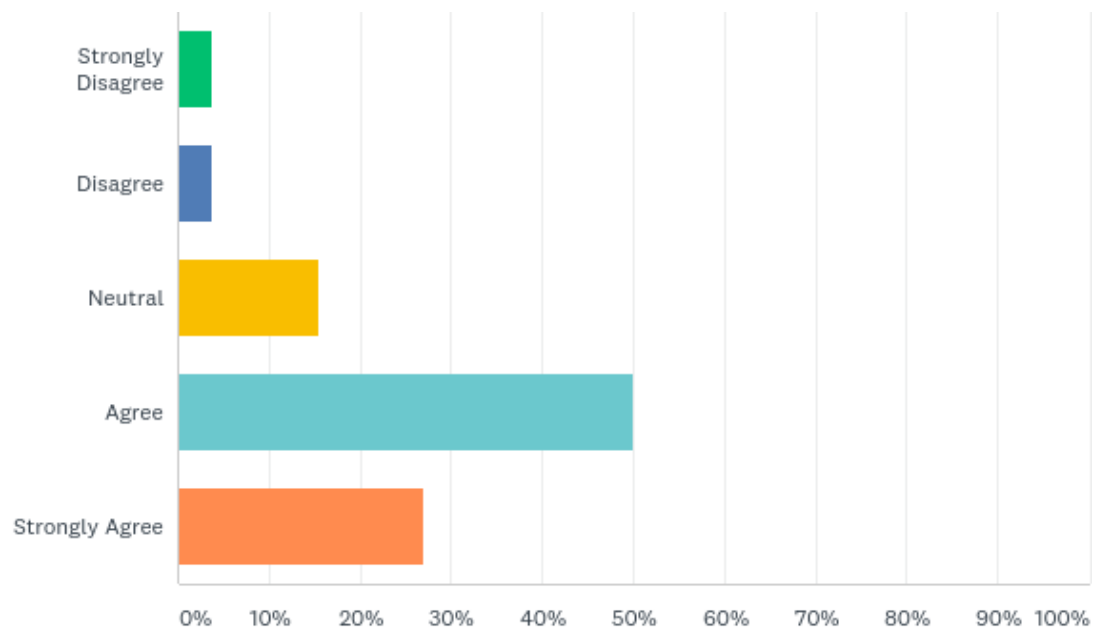


Figure 19. Opportunities for women seeking leadership positions have increased in the last 30 years.

The participants in this study overwhelmingly (nearly 80%) agree that women in the public sector have increased opportunities for leadership opportunities than their counterparts 30 years ago. Furthermore, over 80% of the survey respondents either *agree*

or *strongly agree* that the value of women in city government leadership positions has increased in a positive manner in the last 30 years. Coupled with the increased value of women in city government leadership, respondents also feel that there is an increased positive perception of women in public sector leadership.

Furthermore extrapolating from the responses, the value of women in leadership positions have also advanced in the last 30 years. Moreover, based on the responses to Q32 and Q34 from current female city managers, there is a potential relationship between rising above the glass ceiling and mentoring either formal or informal (see Figures 20 and 21).

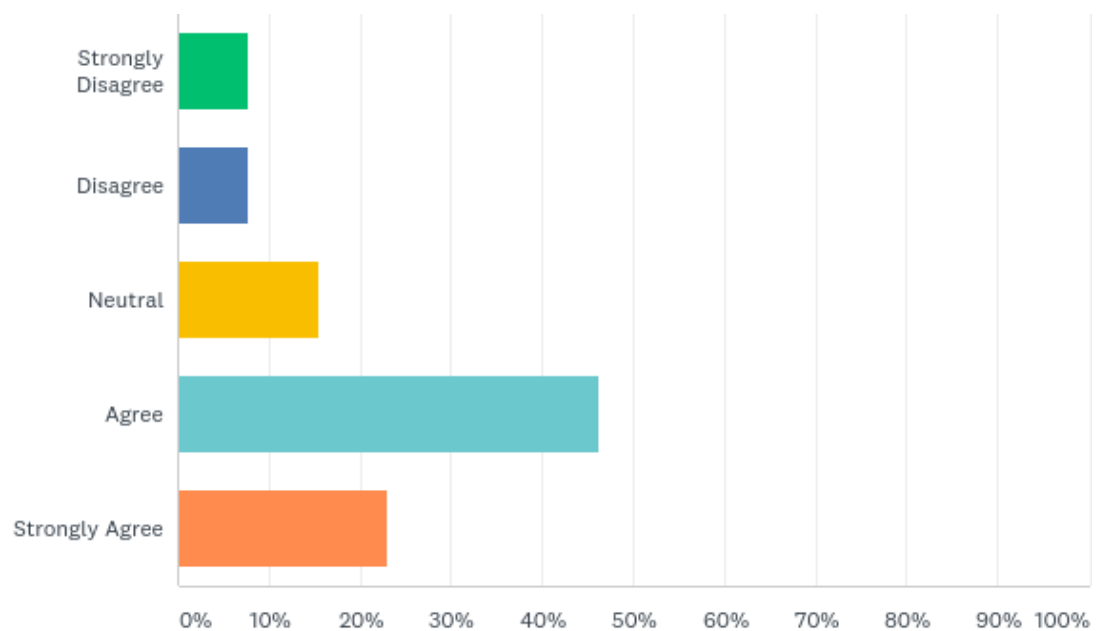


Figure 20. I had a mentor who was important to my career progression and development.

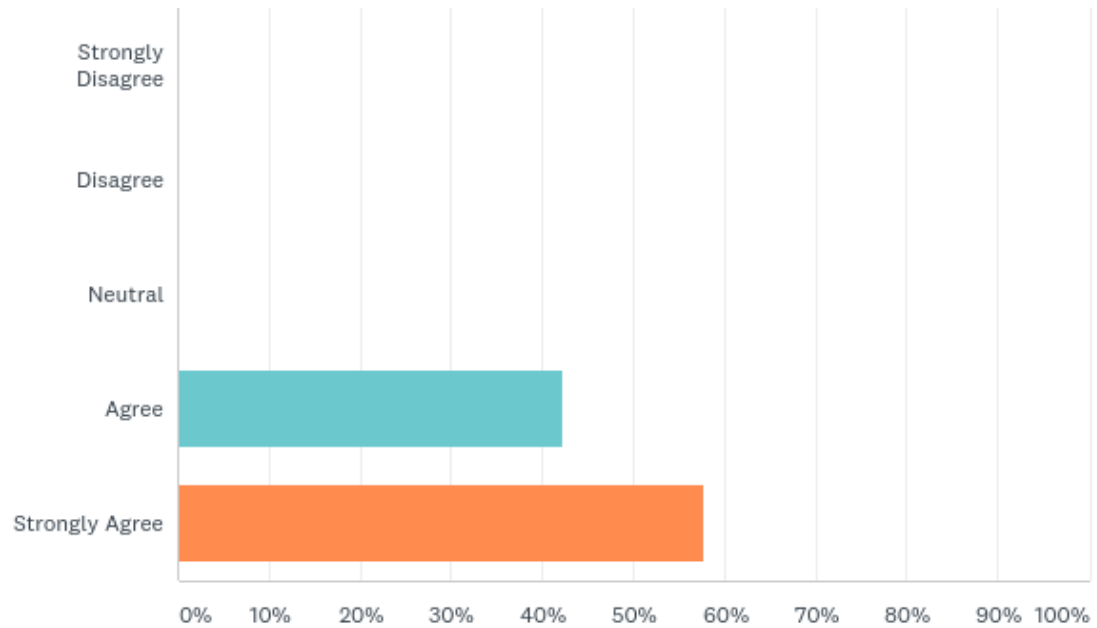


Figure 21. Mentoring others (formal or informal) is an important role for women in leadership.

Subquestion 1 Findings

What aspects/elements of the glass ceiling have had an impact on the professional journey of current female city managers?

Moreover, Internal Consistency 1 provides insight into Subquestion 1. The glass ceiling influenced current female city managers' careers both positively and negatively. Foremost, female city managers believed that at some point the glass ceiling had negatively influenced the forward progression of their career. Participants in this study stated that they have had to work harder to reach their career goals than men at the same place in their career as shown by responses to Q22 (see Figure 22). Additional evidence that women city managers experienced invisible barriers to their career progression was also evident in responses to Q21 (see Figure 23).

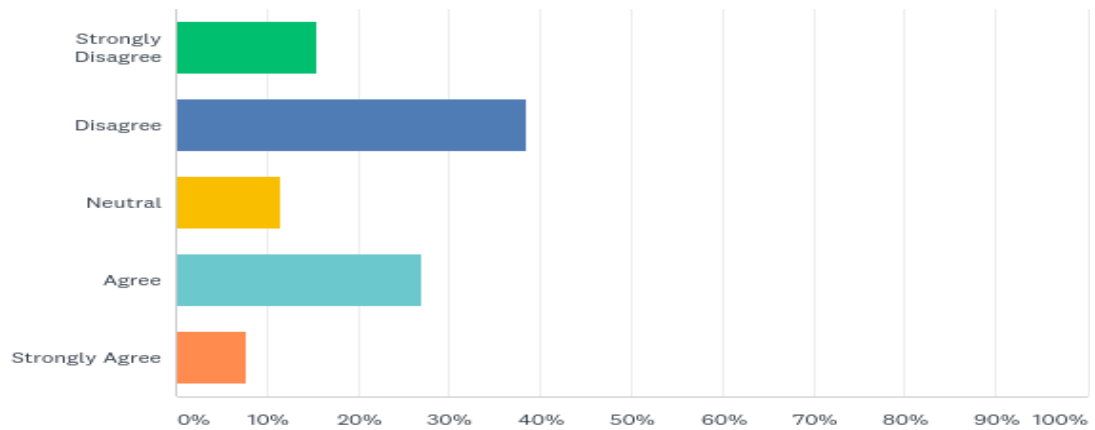


Figure 22. I do not feel that I have had to work harder than my male counterparts to earn the respect of my peers.

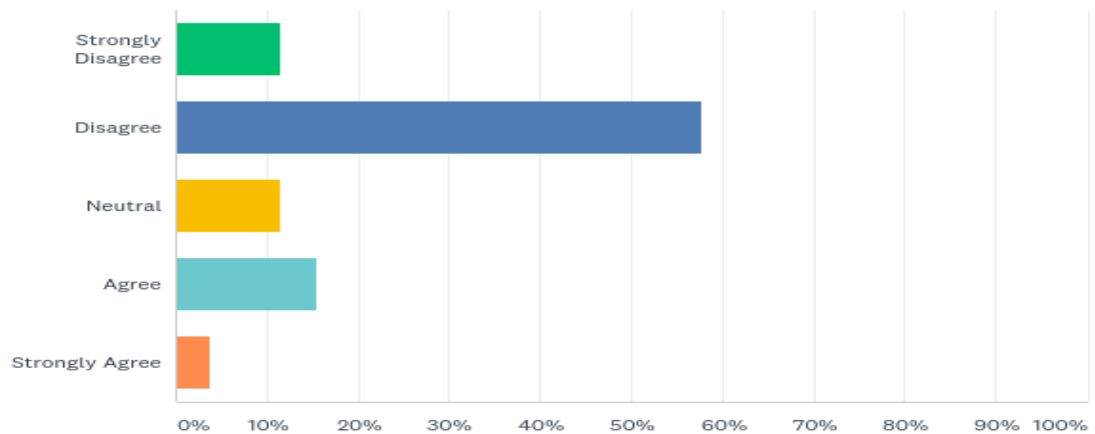


Figure 23. I have not experienced gender stereotyping of my roles and abilities during my career progression.

According to the women in this study, nearly 50% described being required to work harder than male counterparts to earn the respect of their peers. Moreover, nearly 70% of the respondents believed they were adversely affected by gender stereotyping.

Subquestion 2 Findings

What aspects/elements of the glass ceiling have changed in the past 30 years?

Figure 24 reports how the respondents felt about the state of the glass ceiling at the time of this study. The results show that there was a slight belief that the glass ceiling

is still a barrier to women in the public sector; however, this number is not much higher than those who believed the glass ceiling was no longer a barrier. The relative equal distribution of female city managers who believed the glass ceiling was no longer a barrier and female city managers who still saw the glass ceiling as a barrier, may be attributed to the fact that nearly 80% (as shown in Figure 25) of the respondents stated that women in leadership roles have had a positive impact on the glass ceiling over the last 30 years. Moreover, over 60% of the respondents believe their career has progressed appropriately in line with their education, experience, and training (see Figure 26).

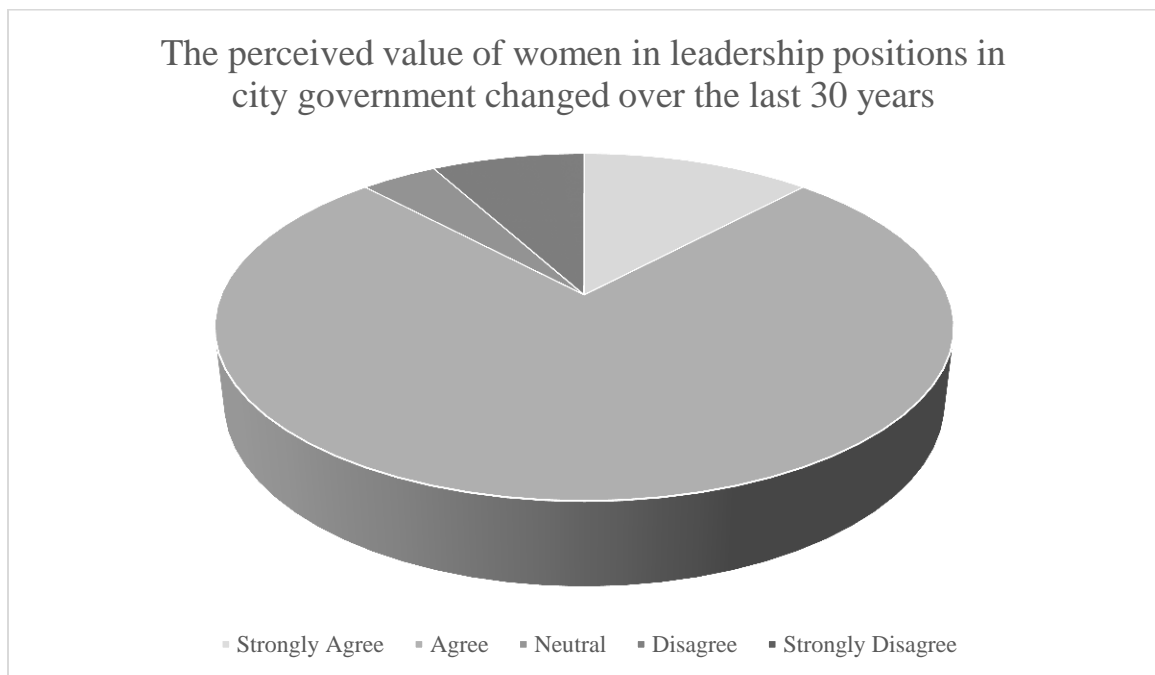


Figure 24. The glass ceiling is no longer a significant barrier to the career progression of women in the public sector.

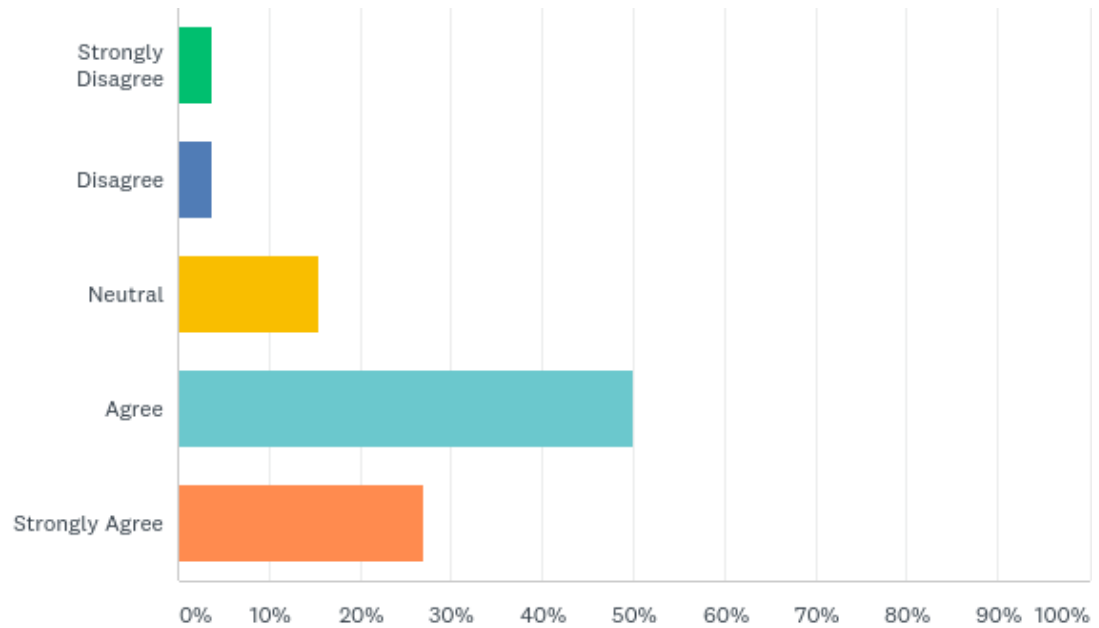


Figure 25. The visibility of women in leadership roles has had a positive impact on the glass ceiling over the last 30 years.

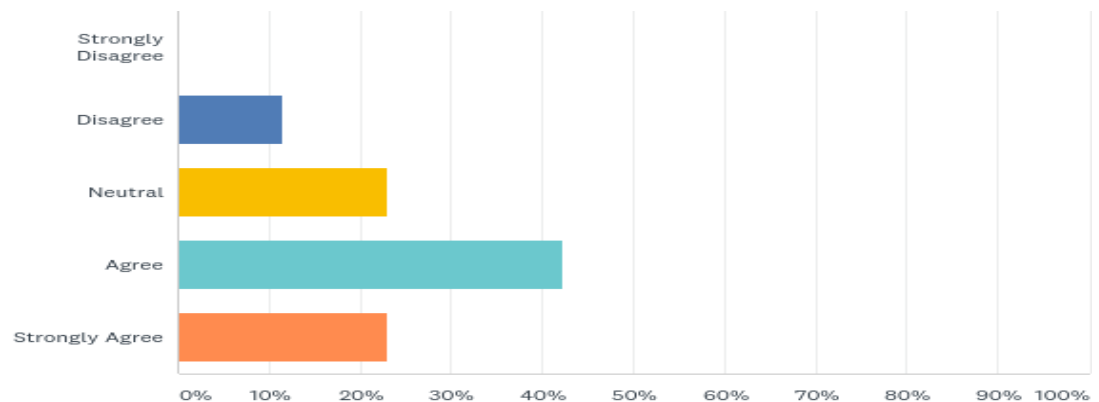


Figure 26. I believe my career progressed in a way that was fitting with my education, experience, and training.

Subquestion 3 Findings

What countermeasures are effective in ameliorating some of the aspects/elements of the glass ceiling?

Cronbach's alpha links Q18, Q17, and Q19 with an internal consistency of .806 as shown in Table 7. These statements paint a clear picture of what countermeasures are effective in ameliorating the glass ceiling. Early career support seems to be effective at improving career success for women in the public sector. There is evidence in the number of respondents, nearly 80%, who were encouraged to seek higher positions by their supervisors. Coupled with that, over 80% of the respondents had opportunities to participate in professional development (see Figure 27).

Respondents also reported frequently being part of the hiring process (see Figure 28). Women who were empowered to participate in the hiring process had an opportunity to help other women break through the glass ceiling (Figure 29).

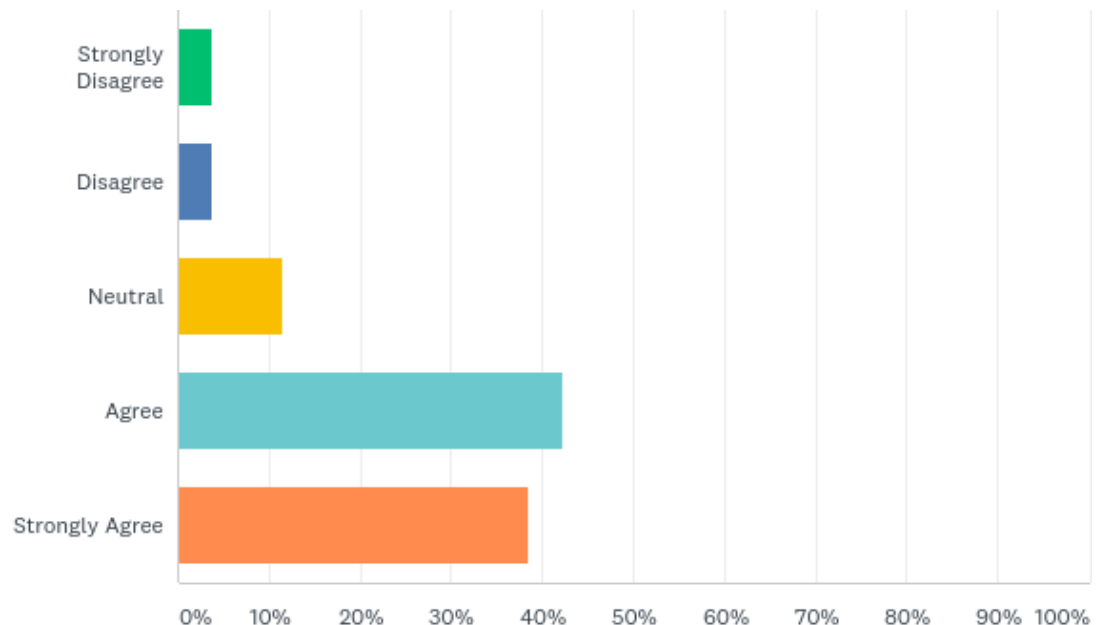


Figure 27. I had opportunities to participate in professional development (workshops, resume building, conferences) during my career.

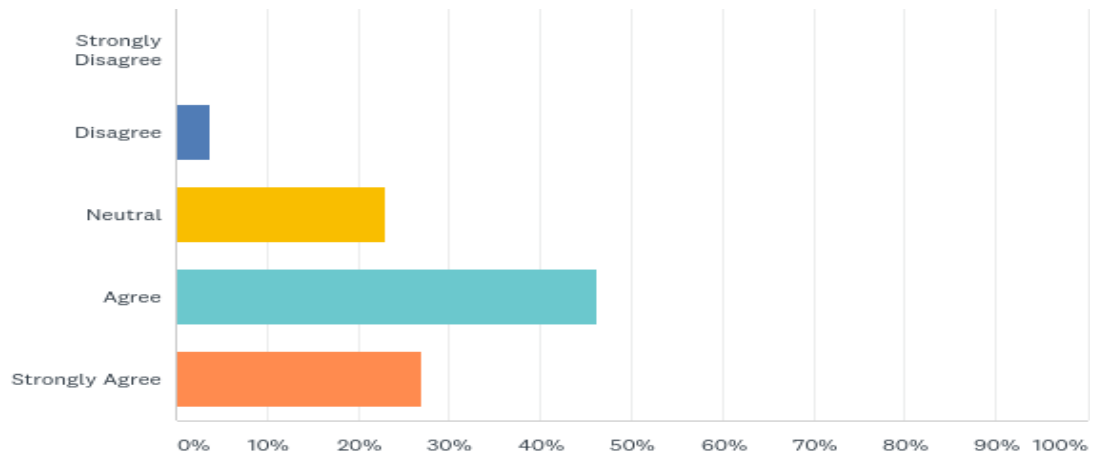


Figure 28. I was frequently part of the hiring process.

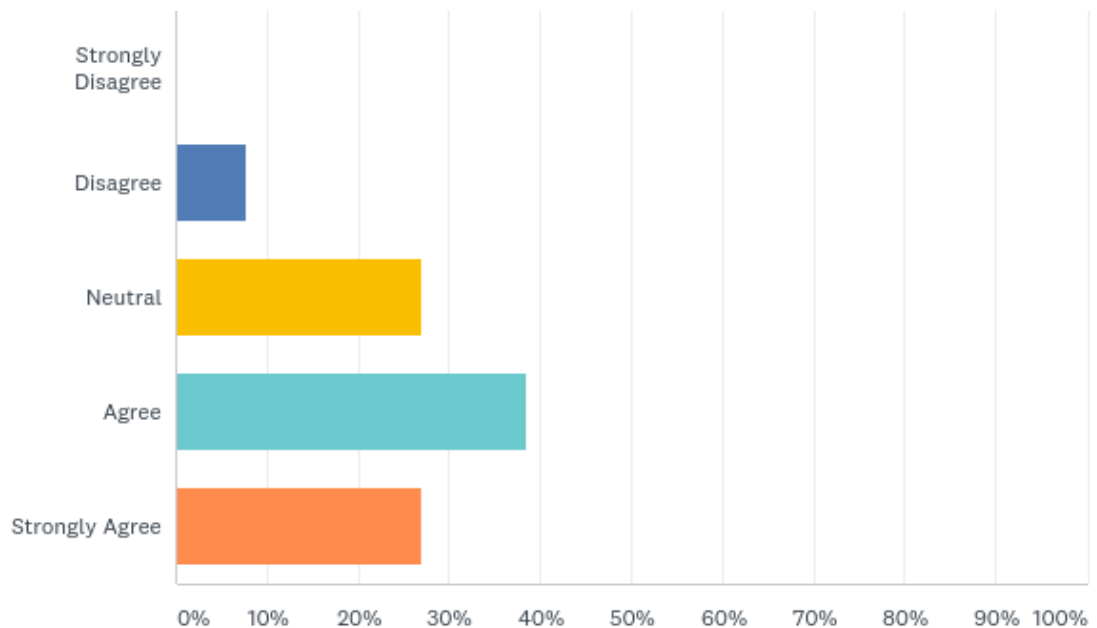


Figure 29. I was encouraged by my supervisors to apply for positions with increasing decision-making and leadership responsibilities.

Summary

Chapter 4 revealed the results of the survey through internal consistency.

Cronbach's alpha showed that some statements were more closely related than other statements. A demographic profile was also included to help the reader paint a mental picture of the lives of the women who had reached the position of city manager.

The results of the findings show that female city managers believe that there have been positive changes in women in public sector leadership, likewise the respondents believed that there have been positive changes in the glass ceiling over the last 30 years. Furthermore, the findings suggest that countermeasures—like early career support, mentoring, and visibility of women in public sector leadership—have had a positive impact on the glass ceiling.

CHAPTER 5: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

No country can ever truly flourish if it stifles the potential of its women and deprives itself of the contributions of half of its citizens.

—Michele Obama

This current study investigated the relationship between the career progression of females who were city managers at the time of this study and the invisible barrier that impedes the careers of women known as the glass ceiling. Data for this study were collected from a questionnaire that included both demographic information and Likert-style statements for which the respondents were asked to rate their opinions, beliefs, and experiences on a 5-point scale from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. These data were collected to glean a deeper understanding of what countermeasures facilitated the career advancement of these women with the goal of assisting other women in the public sector to elevate their careers to senior management levels. Chapter 5 includes a summary of Chapters 1 through 4, a discussion of the results and conclusions, and recommendations for further research on this topic.

Summary of Chapters 1 Through 4

Chapter 1 introduced the study and gave an overview of women as leaders, followed by the problem statement. Next were the background of the problem, purpose statement, and subject of this study. The next section contained a discussion of perceptions, since perceptions were the cornerstone in the completion of this dissertation. After the discussion of perceptions were the research questions, limitations, and definitions of terms. The chapter concluded with a summary and the plan for the remainder of the study.

Chapter 2 began with an overview of the historical background. The theoretical foundation of the study, a discussion on social equity, and a synopsis of representative bureaucracy followed. The synopsis of public administration included the following subtopics: Pre-Minnowbrook Public Administration, 1968 in the United States, Minnowbrook I and the New Public Administration, Minnowbrook II and Women in Public Administration, Minnowbrook III, and Moving Forward including possible topics for Minnowbrook IV. After representative bureaucracy was an examination of both women in public administration and social equity. The next topic covered in Chapter 2 included an historical background of representative bureaucracy including passive and active representative bureaucracy. Following representative bureaucracy was a section on the glass ceiling, which covered perceptions of the glass ceiling, nonnational research on the glass ceiling, the glass ceiling at the municipal level, and symptoms of the glass ceiling including wage gap, gender stereotypes, and promotion bias. Chapter 2 concluded with literature that covered countermeasures to the glass ceiling including mentoring and networking.

Chapter 3 covered the methodology for this study. The methodology chapter began with a brief introduction of the chapter. The next section covered the research design followed by an analysis of the glass ceiling and possible countermeasures. Following the glass ceiling were the research questions and the purpose of the study. Next was the structure of the study including the participants and steps that would ensure the confidentiality of the population of this study. After that was a discussion of the survey instrument, pilot test of the survey instrument, and how data would be collected

and then analyzed for this study. This section concluded with a discussion of the validity and reliability of the research process, and finally, limitations of this study.

Chapter 4 covered the findings of the study including demographics, data analysis, and findings including ties to research questions. Chapter 4 concluded with an overview of the remainder of the study.

Summary of the Study

The purpose of this descriptive research study was to investigate and describe how the glass ceiling has or has not influenced the professional journey of women who have successfully reached the position of city manager in California. This study was intended to be descriptive in nature so data were collected without any manipulation of the variables.

There was no existing survey instrument that could be adapted for the study, thus a new questionnaire was developed. A great deal of time and care went into creating the data collection instrument to ensure that the questionnaire would be satisfactory. At the end of pilot testing, data for this study were sent to the entire identified population. For the purpose of this study, in order to be included in the sample, the participant needed to be a female city manager in the state of California at the time of this study. The number of subjects identified as potential respondents was 73. Although the questionnaire was sent to the entire identified population of 73, only 26 provided responses.

At the conclusion of data collection, the raw data were analyzed using Cronbach's alpha to test for internal consistency and reliability. The results of this test demonstrated a high level of statistical connections between the perceptions of the respondents and the research questions.

Demographic Statistics

Demographic data were collected from the respondents not only to glean a better understanding of their age, education, and military service, but also to paint a picture of their personal lives. The findings from the demographic questions are reported in detail in Chapter 4; however, the demographic questions required an additional level of scrutiny. The researcher found that 50% of the respondents had minor children at home and 46% had substantial child-rearing responsibilities. An additional 7% had substantial responsibilities for caring for a member of their family other than a minor child. These statistics were not included in the analysis but are intriguing in their own right. There have been several studies that suggest that there is a dichotomy between women's work life and home responsibilities, which constitutes an underlying cause for women not achieving senior positions because of child-rearing and home responsibilities (Bozzon, Murgia, Poggio, & Rapetti, 2017).

An additional demographic statistic that stood out was that 76.92% of the respondents self-identified as White/Caucasian. This piece of data is disappointing but not surprising. One survey respondent shared the opinion of "blatant sexism and racism . . . racism adds to the barrier for women of color." This suggests that the improvements in the glass ceiling for women do not extend to all women. There continues to be a lack of women of color at the municipal executive level. Though the glass ceiling is cracking, there is still a long way to go in achieving municipal administrative leadership that is reflective of the community demographics.

Cronbach's Alpha

Before presenting the findings for the research questions, it is important to emphasize the care and effort that went into the construction of the survey. This survey went through numerous drafts and revisions before being released to the participants. The responses to the survey were checked for reliability and internal consistency. The reliability results were remarkable when compared with the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory, which has a Cronbach's alpha of .99. This study had internal consistency/reliability statistics that were significant. Internal consistency 1 showed a correlation between Survey Questions 21, 31, 26, 27, 33, and 28 with a result of .923. Considering that this survey was constructed specifically for this research and had not previously been tested, a Cronbach's alpha of .923 is outstanding. Two additional internal consistencies with significant Cronbach's alphas were also identified. Survey Questions 18, 17, and 19 demonstrated a Cronbach's alpha of .806 and Survey Questions 23, 30, and 33 showed a Cronbach's alpha of .813.

Findings

Conclusions for each individual research question are discussed in this section followed by the limitations of this study and recommendations for further study. Closing out the paper are the conclusions for the overall study.

Major Findings

The findings for the central research question, "What are the perceptions of female city managers concerning the glass ceiling and its impact on women seeking higher-level administrative careers in public sector?" are not surprising and can be demonstrated by the experience shared by a respondent. The participant summed up her

experience like this: “Electeds have been primarily male and older. This was/is a barrier for me. I had to overcome just the idea of them hiring a female.” This city manager added that, at the time of this study, she was now the longest serving female city manager to serve the community. The personal experience shared by this city manager was in-line with what other respondents shared as well. The majority of the city managers answered that gender stereotyping of the roles and responsibilities of women influenced the career progression of city managers. Furthermore, over half of the women indicated that throughout their career they needed to work harder than their male peers.

Subquestion 1 asked, “What aspects/elements of the glass ceiling have had an impact on the professional journey of current female city managers?” Respondents reported that the glass ceiling is a barrier in the public sector and many of the women reported having personal experiences with the glass ceiling. The women who responded to this survey reported having been affected by gender stereotyping not only as a barrier to career progression but also during the hiring and promotion process. Public sector women also have had to work harder than their male counterparts in demonstrating abilities, and talents. Two respondents shared thoughts on specific aspects of the glass ceiling. These comments included “blatant sexism and racism . . . racism adds to the barrier for women of color” and “negative stereotypes of strong women.”

Subquestion 2 stated, “What aspects/elements of the glass ceiling have changed in the past 30 years?” Seventy-five percent of the women in this survey responded that there is an invisible barrier that continues to impede the careers of women in the public sector. However, despite the bleakness reported by these women, there are also positive signs that the glass ceiling is becoming less of a glass ceiling obstruction now than 30

years ago because women are more visible in leadership positions. Public sector women now feel that their careers are progressing in a way that is fitting to their education, training, and experience.

The findings from earlier studies appear to contradict the results of this study. The participants in previous studies felt that the glass ceiling did have an impact on their careers; however, given the evidence provided by this study, there have been positive changes in the glass ceiling over the past 30 years. It was a pleasant surprise to find that the respondents found that their careers had advanced as expected based on experience, training, and education. There is a basis for concluding that this unexpected finding could be due to the increased visibility of women in leadership positions. There are also more promotion opportunities available to women. These trends need to continue in a positive manner to ensure increased opportunities for women in the future.

The findings for Subquestion 3, “What countermeasures are effective in ameliorating some of the aspects/elements of the glass ceiling?” are supported with a Cronbach’s alpha of .806. Statistical analysis shows that there are countermeasures affected in mitigating the effects of the glass ceiling on the career progression of women. Countermeasures that are shown to be statistically effective include opportunities to participate in professional development in the workplace. Networking has been shown in the literature to improve the career progression of women. The participation of women in the hiring process has also been effective in overcoming glass-ceiling barriers. Supportive supervisors who encourage women to seek positions with more responsibility, decision making, and leadership are reported to help women overcome the glass ceiling correspondingly.

In addition to networking, a second countermeasure to the glass ceiling is mentoring. There is a direct causal relationship between the progression of women's careers and mentoring; therefore, mentoring is essential for women aspiring to reach senior-level positions. In view of the close connection between women's career progression and networking and mentoring, it is clear that municipalities need to provide more opportunities for formal networking as well as meaningful opportunities for women to be mentors and to be mentored.

Emerging Themes

Collectively the findings for this research question confirm that based on the personal experiences, the majority of the women who are current city managers have experienced some form of glass ceiling impediment during their career—some more than others. In the case of this study, there is evidence of gender stereotyping and bias in promotions or hiring as indicated by responses to the questionnaire. However, the picture painted by the respondents in this study is not utterly bleak. The women who responded to this study firmly believe that women in public sector leadership are more valuable than they were 30 years ago. This can be attributed to women in leadership being more visible.

Wage Gap

Perhaps the most noteworthy finding during this research study relates to the glass-ceiling barrier of the wage gap. The wage gap is still present in today's society (Graf, Broan, & Patten, 2018); however, 70% of women in this study stated they felt that their current compensation package was fair and equitable when compared with the duties carried out by city managers. The belief that women city managers are paid at a

fair and equitable rate ties back to the statements that women in the public sector are valued more than they were 30 years ago. Moreover, the U.S. Government Accountability Office (2009) 30 years ago placed the wages of women at the federal level to be 28 cents less on the dollar than those of their male peers. Conversely, the same report placed the gender pay gap in 2007 at women in the federal work force at 11 cents less on the dollar. Current data from Pew state that little has changed since the GAO report in 2009, women still make approximately 11 cents less than their male peers (Graf et al., 2018). These reports provide validation to the respondents' beliefs that their wages are equal to their work. Women self-report that there have been positive improvements in the glass-ceiling barriers in the last 30 years, but there is still a journey to gender equity to be made in the public sector if the goal of a bureaucracy that reflects the citizens it serves is to be achieved.

One respondent to the questionnaire took the time to share a personal experience that summarizes succinctly the changes in the glass ceiling when it comes to work-life balance. She stated,

I did once report to a city manager who said that he did not like hiring young women because they are likely to have children and leave their careers to be moms. I found that to be (not only unlawful), but seriously misguided. Many of us professional women care deeply for our children, but also care deeply for our careers. I take his statement as a single incident/singular viewpoint from an overall unimpressive person rather than an overall gender stereotype by all men. I have worked for many other men who are supportive of me and have treated me as a valuable member of the team. My gender to them has been invisible.

This respondent's opinion demonstrates that gender stereotypes still exist in municipal governments although there is a slowly moving cultural shift to a more gender-neutral way of thinking.

This quote in particular stood out in the midst of the responses from the survey participants for the reason that the aforementioned experience is likely not an isolated incident. Furthermore, the quote brings a personal context to the women's experiences as their careers progressed to where these women are today.

Limitations

Every effort was made to ensure that this study was designed and implemented in a way that provided validity and reliability; however, limitations exist. The population for this study was small and an even smaller number (36%) of the population returned completed surveys. This study would have benefited from a higher response rate to increase the statistical significance. A higher number of responses may have been returned if the consent to participate had been done in a simplified manner.

Recommendations for Further Research

There are numerous opportunities for further study stemming from this research. The following are some suggestions:

Ethnic Study

This study focused exclusively on gender not ethnicity. A similar study that breaks the responses down by ethnicity may yield vastly different opinions on the prevalence of the glass ceiling on the careers of public sector women. There is evidence in the literature that supports that glass-ceiling barriers are experienced differently by women of color.

Expanded Public Sector

The population of this study was homogenous in public sector positions. A similar study with an expanded population of senior-level public sector women may have different results. Women who head predominately male-dominated departments like that of Parks, Utilities, and Transportation may demonstrate significantly different experiences with the glass ceiling.

Private Sector Study

The federal government funded the Glass Ceiling Commission in the 1990 but nothing since. A study of the private sector senior management women as compared to the Glass Ceiling Commission may provide some insight into how the glass ceiling has changed in the 25 years since a major federal report was published.

Male Perspective

A similar study should be done from the male perspective. The literature indicates that men view the effects of the glass ceiling on the careers of women differently.

Interviews

A limitation of this study was that it was conducted through on-line questionnaires. In retrospect, this does not seem adequate for a study of this nature. A similar study needs to be conducted; however, interviews should be conducted with a sample of the population. Many of the responses to this study could be examined more closely for elaboration and further detail in order to gain a complete understanding of how the glass ceiling has affected the female city managers of California.

Conclusions

A basic assumption throughout this analysis is that the glass ceiling still impedes women from advancing to senior management positions, and the experiences of some of the respondents support this assumption. One of the respondents stated, “I think the biggest challenge for women is that women still often bear primary responsibility for child rearing, and unless they have access to quality child care and are able to continue full time work, they will be less likely to be promoted compared to their male counterparts.” Statements like these from the respondents demonstrate that the glass ceiling, although improving, still exists in municipal governments.

The results of this study fill a previously unexplored space in the literature of the glass ceiling at the local government level. This study not only determined how current female city managers felt about the impact of the glass ceiling on their own careers but also what countermeasures helped these women to succeed. This study indicates that even though the glass ceiling is still a barrier to women in municipal government, there have been significant improvements over the last 30 years. Additionally, the findings indicate that these positive changes including more opportunities for women in senior-level positions and positive images of women in leadership roles stem from access to mentoring and networking. Furthermore, although limitations have been identified within this study, the strength of Cronbach’s alpha was pleasantly surprising and supported the validity of the study. .

In closing, one respondent shared this thought. She felt it might be time to shift away from talking about the glass ceiling because social and cultural traditions may be just as significant of an impediment to women in the public sector. She stated, “In the

end, though, the numbers speak for themselves: 30 years ago, 12-15% of city managers were women. Today that statistic remains unchanged.”

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Recruitment E-mail and Follow-up Emails

Dear City Manager:

My name is Cammie Donaghy, a doctoral candidate from the Department of Public Administration at California Baptist University working under the supervision of Dr. Pat Kircher, Professor of Public Administration at California Baptist University. I am conducting a research study investigating the effects of the glass ceiling on the careers of women who are current city managers. Additionally, this research study will seek your opinion on the effectiveness of the countermeasures of mentoring and networking on the glass ceiling. I would like to invite you to participate in this research study centered on the experiences of female city managers with glass ceiling barriers. You have been selected to participate based on your title city manager. As a participant, you will be asked to participate in a survey that will last approximately 15-20 minutes. In order to expand the investigative research experiences of female city managers with glass ceiling barriers, your knowledge, experience, and testimony to data collection processes will enhance the body of research for future generations. If you would like to participate in this research study, please respond to this email and I will contact you in order to provide additional instructions on completing the survey. If you have questions, please contact me at cammie.donaghy@calbaptist.edu or you may contact my advisor, Dr. Pat Kircher at pkircher@calbaptist.edu.

Additionally, your decision to participate or not in this research study will under no circumstances affects your relationship with CBU.

Respectfully,

Cammie Donaghy

Greetings City Manager,

My name is Cammie Donaghy; I am a doctoral candidate at California Baptist University in Riverside CA. I reached out to you a little over a week ago requesting your assistance to help me understand the barriers that you over came to earn your position as city manager by taking a short survey; additionally, I am interested in your opinions on the effects of mentoring and networking on the careers on women in public service. I am reaching out to you again today to ask that you please consider taking my survey to help me reach my research goals. They surveys and the answers you provide are completely confidential. I have attached the consent to participate to this email that further details the confidentiality of the survey and details your rights as a participant. I encourage you to take part in this study to smooth the way from women seeking to advance in the public sector.

If you have questions, please contact me at cammie.donaghy@calbaptist.edu or you may contact my advisor, Dr. Pat Kircher at pkircher@calbaptist.edu.

Additionally, your decision to participate or not in this research study will under no circumstances affects your relationship with CBU.

Respectfully,

Cammie Donaghy

Greetings,

My name is Cammie Donaghy; I am a doctoral candidate at California Baptist University in Riverside CA. I reached out to you over the last two weeks asking you to take a short survey to help me understand the barriers that you over came to earn your position as city manager. Additionally, I am interested in your opinions on the effects of mentoring and networking on the careers on women in public service. I am reaching out to you again today to ask that you please consider taking my survey to help me reach my research goals. They surveys and the answers you provide are completely confidential. I have attached the consent to participate to this email that further details the confidentiality of the survey and details your rights as a participant. I encourage you to take part in this study to smooth the way from women seeking to advance in the public sector.

If you have questions, please contact me at cammie.donaghy@calbaptist.edu or you may contact my advisor, Dr. Pat Kircher at pkircher@calbaptist.edu.

Additionally, your decision to participate or not in this research study will under no circumstances affects your relationship with CBU.

Respectfully,

Cammie Donaghy

APPENDIX B

Survey

Research Questions

Central Research Question: What are the perceptions of female city managers concerning the glass ceiling and its impact on women seeking higher-level administrative careers in public service?

Subquestions:

1. What aspects/elements of the glass ceiling have had an impact on the professional journey of current female city managers?
2. What aspects/elements of the glass ceiling have changed in the past thirty years?
3. What countermeasures are effective in ameliorating some of the aspects/elements of the glass ceiling?

Survey question number	Question	Ties to RQ number
SQ 0	Are female or male? If male please stop here	Demographic Questions
SQ 1	Age? <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Under 30• 31-40• 41-50• 51-60• 61-70• Over 70• Decline to State	Demographic Questions
SQ 2	Were you in the Military? <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Yes• No• Decline to State Branch? <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Army• Navy• Air Force• Marines• Coast Guard• Guard• Reserves• Decline to State	Demographic Questions
SQ 3	Current Marital Status <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Single	Demographic Questions

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Married • Divorced • Separated • Widowed • Life Partner • Decline to state 	
SQ 4	<p>Do you have minor children still living at home?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Yes • No • Decline to State 	Demographic Questions
SQ 5	<p>Which statement describes your current childrearing responsibilities?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No child-rearing responsibilities • Few child-rearing responsibilities • Moderate child-rearing responsibilities • Substantial child-rearing responsibilities • Decline to State 	Demographic Questions
SQ 6	<p>Which statement describes your current caregiver responsibility for family members other than children?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • None • Few • Moderate • Substantial • Decline to State 	Demographic Questions
SQ 7	<p>Highest level of education</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High school/GED • Associate Degree • Bachelor Degree • Master's Degree • Doctoral Degree 	Demographic Questions

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Decline to State 	
SQ 8	Race/Ethnicity <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Caucasian • African American • Hispanic/Latino • Native American • Asian/Pacific Islander • Decline to State 	Demographic Questions
SQ 9	How long have you been a City Manager? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Less than 1 year • 1-5 years • 6-10 years • 11-15 years • 16-20 years • 20 plus years • Decline to State 	Demographic Questions
SQ 10	What is the populations of the city you are currently a city manager? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Decline to State • > 5000 • >10,000 • >25,000 • >50,000 • >100,000 • >250,000 • >500,000 • >1 million • >5 million • <5million 	
SQ 11	How many years were you in public service prior to becoming City Manager? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Less than 1 year • 1-5 years • 6-10 years • 11-15 years • 16-20 years • 20 plus years • Decline to State 	Demographic Questions
The next 5 questions will ask you to think back over your career prior to		

becoming city manager		
SQ 12	My supervisors routinely sought my advice.	RQ1
SQ 13	I help determine priorities policy priorities for my organization.	RQ1
SQ 14	I was a part of the hiring process.	RQ1
SQ 15	I had opportunities to participate in professional development (workshops, resume building, conferences) during your career?	RQ1
SQ 16	I was encouraged by my supervisors to apply for positions with increasing decision-making and leadership responsibilities.	RQ1a
The next question will ask you to think about your current career as City Manager		
SQ 17	My compensation package is at an equivalent level to others who hold positions like mine.	RQ1
SQ 18	I have experienced gender stereotyping of my roles and abilities during my career progression.	RQ 1
SQ 19	As a woman, I feel I have had to work harder to earn the respect of my peers.	RQ1
SQ 20	I believe my career progressed in a way that was fitting with my education, experience, and training.	RQ1
SQ 21	I have experienced being treated unfairly regarding hiring, promotion, or work assignment.	RQ1
SQ 22	I feel the glass ceiling exist as a barrier to women career progression.	RQ1
SQ 23	I feel as a woman I had to work harder to demonstrate	RQ1a

	my abilities and talents.	
SQ 24	<p>I have experienced the following during my career (please mark all that apply)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • None • Pressure to remain home • Men's careers are more important than women's careers • Caring for family members hindered my career • Home responsibilities hindered my career progression • My gender influenced my career progression • My assertiveness influenced my career progression • Work-life balance Conflict • Decline to State 	RQ1a
The following questions ask about changes in the glass ceiling over the past 30 years		
SQ 25	The perception of female city managers has positively changed over the last 30 years.	RQ1b
SQ 26	The value of women in leadership positions in city government changed over the last 30 years.	RQ1b
The following questions address mentoring, training, and networking		
SQ 27	The glass ceiling is still a significant barrier to the career progression of women just starting out in Public Administration.	RQ1b

SQ 28	I feel human resource professionals have a significant impact on developing women leaders through organizational culture, workplace policies and practices, change management and workforce education.	RQ1c
SQ 29	My personal glass ceiling experiences influence my decision to become a mentor.	RQ1a
SQ 30	I had a mentor that was important to my career progression and development.	RQ1c
SQ 31	I feel mentoring improves women's opportunity for career advancement.	RQ1c
SQ 32	I feel professional development and training is offered to women and men equally in my organization.	RQ1c
SQ 33	I feel professional/non-profit leadership organizations like ASPA (American Society for Public Administration) or Public Leadership Education Network (PLEN) have a positive influence on the career progression and development of women.	RQ1c
SQ 34	I feel networking (formal or informal) positively influences a woman's career progression.	RQ1c
SQ 35	I feel I have a responsibility to mentor women seeking to reach senior management levels.	RQ1c
SQ 36	I feel I have a responsibility to advocate	RQ1c

	for increased representation of women in senior management positions in municipal government.	
SQ 37	<p>In your opinion, which of the following glass-ceiling barriers (if any) has affected your career progression the most? (Check all that apply)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • None • Early socialization • Top management support • Role expectations • “Old boys network” • Role conflict • Salary gap • Dual career strain • Mentoring • Family responsibilities • Decline to State 	RQ1

- A. What is your age?
- B. Were you in the military?
- C. Current marital status
- D. Do you have minor children living at home?
- E. Which statement best describes your current child-rearing responsibilities?
- F. Which statement best describes your current caregiver responsibility for family members other than children?
- G. Please indicate your highest level of education.
- H. Please indicate your race/ethnicity.

- I. How long have you held a position of city manager? (Please include current and previous city manager experience.)
- J. What is the population of the city where you are currently serving as a city manager?
- K. How many years were you in the public sector prior to becoming City Manager?
- L. My supervisors routinely sought my advice
- M. I helped determine policy priorities for my organization.
- N. I was frequently part of the hiring process.
- O. I had opportunities to participate in professional development (workshops, resume building, conferences) during my career.
- P. I was encouraged by my supervisors to apply for positions with increasing decision-making and leadership responsibilities.
- Q. I feel that my current compensation package is fair and equitable with my duties as city manager.
- R. I have not experienced gender stereotyping of my roles and abilities during my career progression.
- S. I do not feel that I have had to work harder than my male counterparts to earn the respect of my peers.
- T. I believe my career progressed in a way that was fitting with my education, experience, and training.
- U. I have not experienced being treated unfairly regarding hiring, promotion, or work assignment.
- V. There is no invisible barriers to that prevent the career progression of women.
- W. I have not had to work harder than my male counterparts to demonstrate my abilities and talents.
- X. The perception of the leadership abilities of female city managers has changed in a positive manner over the last 30 years.
- Y. The perceived value of women in leadership positions in city government changed over the last 30 years.

- Z. Opportunities for women seeking leadership positions have increased in the last 30 years.
- AA. The visibility of women in leadership roles has had a positive impact on the glass ceiling over the last 30 years.
- AB. The glass ceiling is no longer a significant barrier to the career progression of women in the public sector.
- AC. I had a mentor who was important to my career progression and development.
- AD. Mentoring others (formal or informal) is an important role for women in leadership.
- AE. Formal mentoring programs will benefit women looking to advance to senior leadership positions.
- AF. Professional development and training are offered to women and men equally in my organization.
- AG. Networking (formal or informal) positively influences a woman's career progression.
- AH. Contacts made through professional networking can influence the progression of women's careers.
- AI. I feel I have a responsibility to advocate for increased representation of women in senior management positions in municipal government.

Participants are randomly assigned a number between 1 and 73

1. What is your age?
 - 1 Under 30
 - 2 31-40
 - 3 41-50
 - 4 51-60
 - 5 61-70
 - 6 Over 70
 - 7 Decline to state
2. Were you in the military?

- 1 Yes
- 2 No
- 3 Decline to state

3. Current marital status

- 1 Single
- 2 Married
- 3 Divorced
- 4 Separated
- 5 Widowed
- 6 Life Partner
- 7 Decline to state

4. Do you have minor children living at home?

- 1 Yes
- 2 No
- 3 Decline to State

5. Which statement best describes your current childrearing responsibilities?

- 1 No child-rearing responsibilities
- 2 Some child-rearing responsibilities
- 3 Substantial child-rearing responsibilities
- 4 Decline to State

6. Which statement best describes your current caregiver responsibility for family members other than children?

- 1 None
- 2 Some
- 3 Substantial
- 4 Decline to State

7. Please indicate your highest level of education.

- 1 High school/GED
- 2 Associate Degree
- 3 Bachelor Degree
- 4 Master's Degree
- 5 Doctoral Degree
- 6 Decline to State

8. Please indicate your race/ethnicity.

- 1 Caucasian/ Non-Hispanic White/Euro-American
- 2 African American/Black/Afro-Caribbean
- 3 Hispanic/Latino/Hispanic American
- 4 Native American/Alaskan Native
- 5 Asian/Pacific Islander
- 6 East Asian/Asian American
- 7 South Asian/Indian American

- 8 Mixed/Multi-Racial
- 9 Other
- 10 Decline to State
- 9. How long have you held a position of city manager? (Please include current and previous city manager experience.)
 - 1 Less than 1 year
 - 2 1-5 years
 - 3 6-10 years
 - 4 11-15 years
 - 5 16-20 years
 - 6 20 plus years
 - 7 Decline to State
- 10. What is the population of the city where you are currently serving as a city manager?
 - 1 Decline to State
 - 2 <= 5000
 - 3 5001-10,000
 - 4 10,001-25,000
 - 5 25,001-50,000
 - 6 50,001-100,000
 - 7 100,001-250,000
 - 8 250,001-500,000
 - 9 >500,000
- 11. How many years were you in the public sector prior to becoming City Manager?
 - 1 1-5 years
 - 2 6-10 years
 - 3 11-15 years
 - 4 16-20 years
 - 5 20 plus years
 - 6 Decline to State

Statements 12- 37

1. Strongly Disagree	2. Disagree	3. Neutral	4. Agree	5. Strongly Agree
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0 Refused to answer/skipped

APPENDIX C

IRB Approval

RE: IRB Review

IRB No.: 013-1819-EXP

Project: Glass Ceiling the Invisible Barrier to a Representative Bureaucracy in the CA City Manager's Office

Date Complete Application Received 8/27

Date Final Revision Received 9/6

Principle Investigator: Cammie L Donaghy

Faculty Advisor: Dr. Pat Kircher

College/Department: OPS

IRB Determination: Expedited Application Approved – Student research using confidential survey questionnaires; no minor participants; no more than minimal risk/risk appropriately mitigated; no deception utilized; acceptable consent procedures and documentation; acceptable data protection procedures. Data collection may begin, in accordance with the final submitted documents and approved protocol.

Future Correspondence: All future correspondence about this project must include all PIs, Co-PIs, and Faculty Advisors (as relevant) and reference the assigned IRB number.

Approval Information: Approval is granted for one year from the date below. If you would like to continue research activities beyond that date, you are responsible for submitting a Research Renewal Request with enough time for that request to be reviewed and approved *prior* to the expiration of the project. In the case of an unforeseen risk/adverse experience, please report this to the IRB immediately using the appropriate forms. Requests for a change to the protocol must be submitted for IRB review and approved prior to implementation. At the completion of the project, you are to submit a Research Closure Form.

Researcher Responsibilities: The researcher is responsible for ensuring that the research is conducted in the manner outlined in the IRB application and that all reporting requirements are met. Please refer to this approval and to the IRB handbook for more information.

Date: September 12, 2018