

## **ABSTRACT**

Elisabeth W. Bengala, THE CONSTRAINTS THAT IMPACT WOMEN FACULTY IN THE PARKS, RECREATION AND TOURISM MANAGEMENT FIELD AT NC HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS IN THEIR CAREER DEVELOPMENT (Under the direction of Dr. Marjorie Ringler). Department of Educational Leadership, May 2020.

Organizational, individual and societal constraints are holding women back from seeking leadership roles in higher education, although it is not just one of these constraints that stand out. It is a combination of all of these constraints together in its own complex equation that challenges women for leadership roles and positions (Arini, Collings, Conner, McPherson, & Wilson, 2011) within higher education. Women within the recreation-related field are challenged by the same constraints but have also struggled for recognition and status (Henderson, Bialeschki, & Sessoms, 1990). While Eagly and Wood (1999) have found that due to the physical differences between men and women, social roles were given to each gender. Therefore, due to the perception of the recreation-related field, challenges within higher education and social roles that are placed upon women, the path that women must take in the development of their career could be complex (Henderson, Harrolle, Rich, & Moretz, 2011).

The purpose of this current study was to identify constraints that hinder career development for women faculty within PRTM departments at NC higher education institutions, discover if men and women view these constraint categories differently and reveal if constraints impact women differently at three different career stages. The significance of this current study is to raise the perception of the profession and awareness within higher education for women faculty in the higher education PRTM field. This study will provide a review of literature, framework used to guide the study, the methods of the participants surveyed, how the data was collected and how it was analyzed.



THE CONSTRAINTS THAT IMPACT WOMEN FACULTY  
IN THE PARKS, RECREATION AND TOURISM MANAGEMENT FIELD IN NC HIGHER  
EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS IN THEIR CAREER DEVELOPMENT

A Dissertation

Presented to

The Faculty of the Department of Educational Leadership

East Carolina University

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Education in Educational Leadership

by

Elisabeth W. Bengala

May, 2020

© Copyright 2020  
Elisabeth W. Bengala

THE CONSTRAINTS THAT IMPACT WOMEN FACULTY  
IN THE PARKS, RECREATION AND TOURISM MANAGEMENT FIELD IN NC HIGHER  
EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS IN THEIR CAREER DEVELOPMENT

by

Elisabeth W. Bengala

APPROVED BY:

DIRECTOR OF DISSERTATION: \_\_\_\_\_  
Marjorie Ringler, EdD

COMMITTEE MEMBER: \_\_\_\_\_  
Debra Jordan, ReD

COMMITTEE MEMBER: \_\_\_\_\_  
Carol Kline, PhD

COMMITTEE MEMBER: \_\_\_\_\_  
Karen Jones, EdD

CHAIR OF THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP:

\_\_\_\_\_  
Marjorie Ringler, EdD

DEAN OF THE GRADUATE SCHOOL:

\_\_\_\_\_  
Paul Gemperline, PhD

## **DEDICATION**

To Mom, Dad and James, I would not have finished if you didn't show me what dedication and hard work looks like due to you being positive role models. You taught me to never back down when something is hard and to always follow through. You have always been my biggest fans and to never forget that Bengala=success.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This journey has been one of the most difficult endeavors I have ever chosen to be on and I never thought it would take this long. I always knew I would achieve receiving a doctorate but I never knew it would be this hard. There are many people that tell you this journey is a marathon, life will get in the way and your journey will look different than everyone else's. They were correct! The key to successfully finishing is to keep getting back up when you get knocked down, putting one foot in front of the other and to learn from your mistakes. I try to live my life this way all the time.

I want to thank my mom, dad and brother as they have always been my loudest supporters. Mom would listen to my tears of frustration during this process and offer kind words of encouragement. Dad would tell me to "buck up" and keep going. Even though I hated hearing those words, he was right, and I did keep going. My brother, James, was always so excited for me even if he had no idea what I was talking about. I knew all three of them were proud of my perseverance.

I want to thank the members of my cohort. There would be many times during our coursework when we all needed a boost and most of you were there to pick me up. Even though we all finished our coursework at the same time, we've been on different timelines in finishing our dissertation and that's ok. We all have our own journey.

To my co-workers, Shawna Thompson, Chris Chappell and Jennifer Harrell. I know you got tired of hearing about my dissertation towards the end but I knew you wanted me to finish just as much as I did. I am so thankful in knowing the job would still get done even while I was focusing on my writing. I never doubted your friendship or support.

To my unwavering supervisor, Dean Smith. You handled my tears and frustration like the professional you are but always knowing when to offer a kind word of encouragement. I will never forget that when something is hard, “don’t chop your arm off one inch at a time” or “being a leader means you get to wear the crown, but it also lets the rain in”.

I want to thank the amazing women who are part of the TT’s. You have no idea how much you have helped me in the last year of this journey. The “big pours” and laughter always helped in more ways than you think. I look forward to many more memories with all of you.

Finally, to my committee, Dr. Marjorie Ringler, chair, Dr. Debra Jordan, Dr. Karen Jones and Dr. Carol Kline. Dr. Ringler and Dr Jones, you were always huge cheerleaders and supporters when I was down and needed an encouraging boost of positive energy. Dr. Jordan, I knew working with you would be extremely challenging and you would push me. Thank you for pushing me and setting very high standards. I knew you would help me get the best out of myself even if I struggled most of the time.

Finally, Dr. Kline, who knew our journey together would continue from 1998 when you were one of my instructors at N. C. State as an undergraduate. You saw something in me and always knew I could accomplish any goal that I put in front of me. I can’t thank you enough for all those days I spent in Raleigh at your house, teaching me SPSS and statistics. I am so lucky to have you as a mentor and friend for the past 22 years.



## TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
TITLE.....	i
COPYRIGHT.....	ii
SIGNATURE.....	iii
DEDICATION.....	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	v
LIST OF TABLES.....	xi
LIST OF FIGURES.....	xii
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION.....	1
Background of the Study.....	1
Problem Statement.....	3
Definition of Terms.....	5
Significance of the Study.....	5
Research Questions.....	6
Overview of Methodology.....	6
Research Participants.....	7
Analysis of Data.....	8
Summary.....	8
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW.....	10
History of Women.....	10
History of Women in Higher Education.....	11
History of Women in Parks, Recreation and Tourism Management.....	12
Current Constraints for Women in the Workplace: The Glass Ceiling.....	14

Organizational Constraints for Women in the Workplace .....	17
Organizational Constraints for Women in Higher Education .....	19
Organizational Constraints for Women in PRTM .....	20
Individual Constraints for Women in the Workplace .....	21
Individual Constraints for Women in Higher Education .....	21
Individual Constraints for Women in PRTM .....	23
Societal Constraints for Women in the Workplace .....	23
Societal Constraints for Women in Higher Education .....	24
Societal Constraints for Women in PRTM.....	25
Men’s Views on Constraints that Women Encounter.....	26
Social Roles .....	27
Social Role Theory .....	31
Career Development Model .....	32
Career Phases .....	40
Beginning/Idealism.....	42
Middle/Endurance .....	43
Advanced/Reinvention .....	44
Career Development .....	44
Summary .....	45
<b>CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY .....</b>	<b>47</b>
Context of the Study .....	50
Research Participants .....	50
Design of the Study .....	50

Data Collection .....	56
Analysis of Data .....	57
Research Questions.....	58
Research Question #1.....	58
Research Question #2.....	58
Research Question #3.....	58
Research Question #4.....	58
Summary.....	59
CHAPTER 4: RESULTS .....	60
General Results .....	62
Research Question #1.....	68
Research Question #2.....	104
Validity and Reliability of the Data.....	105
Research Question #3.....	106
Assumptions.....	107
Dimension Reduction by Factor Analysis.....	107
Research Question #4.....	111
Summary.....	115
CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION .....	118
Summary of Findings.....	118
Discussion of Findings.....	119
Research Question #1.....	119
Research Question #2.....	120

Research Question #3.....	125
Research Question #4.....	126
Implications.....	127
Limitations.....	130
Recommendations for Future Research.....	132
Conclusions.....	133
REFERENCES .....	134
APPENDIX A: INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL.....	147
APPENDIX B: SURVEY SENT OUT VIA EMAIL THROUGH QUALTRICS .....	148
APPENDIX C: INITIAL EMAIL SENT ON JUNE 4, 2019.....	156
APPENDIX D: INITIAL EMAIL SENT ON JUNE 7, 9, and 26, 2019 WITH ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE .....	157

## LIST OF TABLES

1. North Carolina Higher Education Institutions with PRTM Departments .....	51
2. Demographic Characteristics of Study Participants.....	64
3. Characteristics of NC Higher Education Institutions Represented in the Study	67
4. Area of Research or Teaching Focus .....	69
5. Type of Belief Statements and How They Were Coded in SPSS .....	70
6. Means, Standard Deviations, and t-Test Results on Belief Statements by Gender.....	72
7. Rotated Component Matrix Loadings of 24 Belief Statements when Forced to 3 Factors (RelativeCare Belief Statement was Removed).....	109
8. KMO and Barlett's Tests for 3 Factors .....	112
9. Means, Standard Deviations, Reliability and t-Test Results on New Factors by Gender.....	113
10. Means, Standard Deviations, and ANVOA Results for How Women View Constraint Categories at Each Career Stage .....	116

## LIST OF FIGURES

1. Constraints for women in the workplace and in higher education.....	15
2. A model of women's career development in leisure services (Frisby, 1992).....	35
3. A model of women's career development in leisure services (Henderson & Bialeschki, 1995).....	36
4. A conceptual model of a women's career development applied to higher education (Henderson et al., 2011).....	39
5. A conceptual model of a woman's career development applied to faculty in the PRTM field .....	41
6. Belief statement: Excluded from networks.....	74
7. Belief statement: Conscious discrimination occurs .....	75
8. Belief statement: Unconscious discrimination occurs.....	76
9. Belief statement: Gender roles prevents women from being leaders .....	77
10. Belief statement: Sexual harassment is an issue .....	78
11. Belief statement: Slow changes though oldboys are retiring .....	79
12. Belief statement: Women do not desire to move into an administrative role ...	80
13. Belief statement: No formal networks .....	81
14. Belief statement No informal network .....	82
15. Belief statement: Equity issues not addressed .....	83
16. Belief statement: Experienced glass ceiling .....	84
17. Belief statement: Women do not aspire to have an administrative role .....	85
18. Belief statement: Policies not implemented at institution to help employees ...	86
19. Belief statement: Men recruit men over women .....	87
20. Belief statement: Men do not get gender equity is still an issue .....	88

21. Belief statement: Women lack role models .....	89
22. Belief statement: Women do not receive mentoring .....	90
23. Belief statement Women have less power .....	91
24. Belief statement: Women are unable to put in extra hours .....	92
25. Belief statement: Women must work harder than men .....	93
26. Belief statement: Women are responsible for childcare .....	94
27. Belief statement: Women regularly care for a relative .....	95
28. Belief statement: Women have the main responsibility of household chores ...	96
29. Belief statement: Have been sexually harassed at work .....	97
30. Belief statement: Have witnessed women being sexually harassed .....	98
31. Scree plot of 24 belief statements when forced to 3 factors .....	110

## **CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION**

### **Background of the Study**

There has always been a lack of women in leadership roles within higher education. While the gap has been closing between men and women in regard to leadership positions and tenured faculty, a number of constraints still keep women in higher education from developing their careers at the same pace as men. In looking specifically at women within recreation-related fields, Henderson, Grappendorf, Bruton, and Tomas (2013) found that women are continually facing different constraints keep them from developing their careers. Henderson stated in a study conducted in 1992 that “career planning in leisure services suggests that females have lower expectations than males concerning their level of achievement in leisure services organizations. Whether these differences are a result of individual, organizational, or societal factors require further exploration” (Henderson, 1992, p. 21). These demands and constraints that women encounter in higher education are not singular to this field but have been seen in other fields as well, including Parks, Recreation, and Tourism Management (PRTM).

The review of literature provides an overview of the glass ceiling effect for women in the workplace, higher education, then specifically in the PRTM field. Three different constraint categories, societal, individual and organizational, are discussed and how each one has impacted a woman’s career development. Women are underrepresented in leadership roles across the board, including the PRTM field. Regardless of discipline, women have still been facing a variety of challenges when it comes to the development of their career (Henderson et al., 2011). The social role theory was used as the framework for this study and how social roles also have impacted women.



While this study's focus is on the constraints that hinder career development for women faculty within PRTM departments at NC higher education institutions, it is important to discuss the connection between higher education and the PRTM field. LaPan, Hodge, Peroff, and Henderson (2013) found that it is important to identify how current female faculty have reached their career goals in the hope of providing useful information for the next generation of women who decide to enter the world of higher education. Henderson et al. (2011) discovered that women faculty in the PRTM field were mostly satisfied with the direction of their careers, but issues of concern were in individual constraints, such as work/life balance and societal issues such as gender equity. LaPan et al. (2013) stated that while recognizing the issues must be the first step and moving towards social change is crucial, they found that it is equally essential in allowing women faculty to share their story in how they developed their career to provide advice for incoming women faculty. It is important to identify issues, offer advice, and remember that women need to support one another instead of competing against each other.

Henderson et al. (2011) found that due to "social role factors," the path that women must take in the development of their career could be complex. Anderson and Shinew (2001) also stated that if the career development of women is not taken seriously, women will choose to leave their current field of employment. While it may be difficult for women to separate home from career goals, it is imperative that individuals within the PRTM field try to push through and pass these constraints towards their career goals in order to help other women in PRTM who have similar goals (Henderson, 1992).

The history behind the term gendered social roles is discussed in the literature review to verify if there is a significant difference between gender and social roles, or it is only constructed by society's expectations. Once a child is born, society has connected expectations with the

baby. Differences have been established between male and female roles that are learned through socialization. The socialization process is a powerful one that helps to identify the individual's role in society, which can take on many forms, including different manners and attitudes.

Heilman (2001) stated these stereotypes can be detrimental to a woman's career even if they are competent in the skills that are required for the job. While gender-based stereotypes affect one's gender role and have been culturally created, they do not necessarily affect one's social role, which is the expectations and responsibilities that identify the association between the individual and specific groups of people he or she interacts with on a regular basis (Andersen & Witham, 2011).

Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt (2001) argued that leadership roles within the workplace can restrict how leaders act, though the difference is minimal. The leader's gender identity can restrict their behavior as well, which then escapes into the workplace. The different roles that men and women play within the workplace are shown to be inconsistent, which in return creates constraints for women in leadership roles. Social behavior within the workplace has an impact on women who hold leadership roles, thus requiring a fair amount of support. It is important to understand that women in leadership roles not only seek support but also search for cooperation from men as well. Support for women leaders in the PRTM field is crucial from not just other women but from men and within the overall field as well. Henderson and Bialeschki (1990) found that men within the PRTM field truly want to support women by trying to understand the gender constraints that women encounter.

### **Problem Statement**

Women have always had to work harder than men to achieve status and leadership positions within higher education. Women who are interested in having a career have faced

constraints and challenges for centuries. While there have been advances made for women in different fields, they are still encountering constraints in both higher education and the PRTM field. Henderson and Bialeschki (1990) stated that professionals in the PRTM field have consistently struggled for respect and a positive reputation among other fields. The White House Project (2009) reported that “women account for 42% of full-time faculty at degree-granting institutions” (p. 17), but only 26% of women were full professors, 23% were university presidents, and they only count for less than 30% on higher education institution boards. Salary equity has also been slow to develop as women faculty made 83% of what male faculty made in 1972, and almost four decades later, their salary decreased by one percent to only 82% in comparison to male faculty (The White House Project, 2009). Clearly, equality between men and women in higher education has not yet been established.

A study needs to be conducted to find out what constraints are keeping women faculty in recreation-related departments within higher education from earning leadership roles. Finding out what the specific constraints are will hopefully help women who are currently faculty within this field as well as women who are interested in pursuing a career in academia. The purpose of this study was to identify constraints that hinder career development for women faculty within PRTM departments at NC higher education institutions, discover if men and women view these constraints differently and reveal if constraints impact women differently at three different career stages.

For this study, the recreation-related field includes any department that contains a variety of terms or phrases. The teaching area terms included: community recreation, event management, exercise science, health education, health and human performance, health sciences, health and wellness, kinesiology, leisure studies, physical education, recreation management,

sport leadership, sport management, sport science and tourism management. This study will include quantitative questions and will be looking specifically at women faculty in all of the higher education institutions within NC that have a recreation-related department.

### **Definition of Terms**

The term used to represent this field in this study is parks, recreation and tourism management (PRTM). Higher education institutions within North Carolina that had departments that offered a parks and recreation degree were found on the North Carolina Recreation and Parks website. Every institution offers at least a bachelor's degree, and some schools also offer master's and doctoral programs. Thirty-seven institutions were listed on the website, and these terms, listed in alphabetical order, were listed in the department names. In order to increase the sample size, it was decided to include all schools within NC that had some type of PRTM department. It is important to understand that this study includes faculty from a wide range of PRTM departments and not specifically departments that only include the terms "parks" and "recreation." Stevens, Murphy, Allen, and Sheffield (2010) defined recreation-related fields to include recreation, parks, sports management, hospitality, tourism, health and wellness, and therapeutic recreation.

### **Significance of the Study**

The significance of this study is to hopefully raise the perception of the profession and awareness for women faculty in the PRTM field at NC higher education institutions. Thus, in return, will hopefully help women in the PRTM field at NC higher education institutions advance in their careers to leadership positions at a pace suitable for their lifestyle, if they choose to do so.

## **Research Questions**

Four research questions were part of this study:

1. What are the specific belief statements that hinder career development for women faculty in PRTM fields at NC higher education institutions?
2. In what ways do men and women faculty view these specific belief statements differently that hinder career development for women?
3. In what ways do men and women faculty view the constraint categories differently?
4. How do women faculty view each constraint category and its effect on women at each career stage?

## **Overview of Methodology**

This was a quantitative study using an instrument that was developed by Henderson et al. (2011), which the researcher was given permission to modify. A quantitative study was chosen because it allowed the researcher to investigate specific issues and questions that would not be as accessible in a qualitative study (Freysinger, Shaw, Henderson, & Bialeschki, 2013a). Also, a quantitative survey would allow the researcher to have access to a larger number of subjects due to time constraints.

The framework for this study, social role theory, was based on studies conducted by Henderson et al. (2011) that utilized career development models from O'Neil and Bilimoria (2005) and O'Neil, Hopkins, and Bilimoria (2008). Henderson and Bialeschki's (1995) study was also used as a foundation for Henderson et al. (2013). Henderson and Bialeschki used Frisby's (1992) career development model as a foundation for their study and model.

Henderson et al.'s (2011) survey was slightly modified and planned to send it out via email. Dr. Henderson gave permission (K. Henderson, email communication, November 6,

2016), to use her survey instrument for this study. Qualtrics survey software was used to create and send the survey and analyze the data. A quantitative study allowed the researcher to investigate current opinions, attitudes, and beliefs (Creswell, 2005) of women faculty in the PRTM field at NC higher education institutions. The survey was emailed to all faculty, both men and women, in each of the 37 departments.

There were 37 institutions within North Carolina that had a PRTM department. The PRTM department for each school had a different name, described in Chapter 3. There were 33 departments that were originally found on the North Carolina Recreation and Parks website, which offered a full list of all the institutions within the state that have a PRTM department. The survey was extended to an additional four institutions within NC that offered a degree in the PRTM field. Every institution offered at least a bachelor's degree, while some schools also offered master's and doctoral programs. There was not a physical location for this study as it was conducted via email.

### **Research Participants**

The study took a convenience sample of women faculty who were employed at higher education institutions in North Carolina that had a PRTM department. There were approximately 450 faculty between the 37 institutions. One of the main reasons why this study was conducted to look specifically at women faculty was due to a limitation within Henderson et al.'s 2011 study. It stated that "many university faculty members in the broad field of parks, recreation, sport and tourism are not members of NRPA" (Henderson et al., 2011, p. 23). These particular institutions were chosen as they were listed on the North Carolina Recreation and Park Association website for having a PRTM department. An additional four institutions within NC that offered a degree in the PRTM field were added to the study.

## **Analysis of Data**

Once data was collected, it was exported in an Excel file from Qualtrics into SPSS, after which the surveys were then separated by gender. Descriptive statistics, t-test, factor analysis, and ANOVA tests were used to analyze the data. Significance testing was conducted on all twenty-five of the belief statements between men and women and was done so by running a t-test as well as on the constraint categories. Descriptive statistics could be used to draw conclusions to the sample population. Rogelberg and Rogelberg (2017) defined factor analysis as “a statistical procedure for describing the interrelationships among a number of observed variables. Factor analysis is used to measure variables that cannot be measured directly, to summarize large amounts of data, and to develop and test theories” (Rogelberg & Rogelberg, 2017, pp. 479-480). Rogelberg and Rogelberg also stated there are three reasons to use factor analysis, which includes measuring concepts that cannot be observed naturally, summarizing large quantities of observations into a reasonable number of factors, and delivering evidence of construct validity. Rogelberg and Rogelberg (2017) defined the analysis of variance (ANOVA) model, which was used to compare the means of three or more groups, as “the comparisons of mean levels of a dependent variable across different groups created by experimental manipulations” (p. 1,294).

## **Summary**

This chapter introduced the study by first describing the background of the problem of how societal, individual, or organizational constraints may impact women faculty in the PRTM field in their career development. There were four different research questions identified for this study. Finally, the terms were listed in the title of each department of every North Carolina school that had a PRTM department.

Chapter 2 of this study will provide a comprehensive review of the relevant literature related to constraints for women in the workplace, higher education, and the PRTM field, as well as career development for women and social roles. It will also describe the theoretical framework used to guide this study. Chapter 3 will outline how t-test, factor analysis, and ANOVA tests were used as the research methodology. Chapter 4 dissects the results of the t-test, factor analysis, and ANOVA tests and Chapter 5 provides a thorough discussion and implications of the quantitative analysis.



## CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

### History of Women

Women who were interested in having a career have faced constraints and challenges for centuries. While there have been advances made for women in different fields, women continue to encounter constraints in the workplace, higher education and the Parks, Recreation, and Tourism Management (PRTM) field. Henderson and Bialeschki (1990) stated professionals in the PRTM field have consistently struggled for respect and a positive reputation among other fields, although, Karla Henderson stated for

“students not to ever apologize for this field. I feel like, sometimes, you know, people are like, ‘I’m not an engineer. I’m not something else.’ Well, you are a parks and recreation major, you’re sports management, or whatever. This is a great thing. This is really wonderful what we do, and it’s special. Nobody else is doing the kind of stuff that we do that enables people to enjoy life. And what could be greater than that?” (Bricker, Schwab, Brownlee, & Dustin, 2019, p. 148)

The purpose of this study was to identify constraints that hinder career development for women faculty within PRTM departments at NC higher education institutions, discover if men and women view these constraints differently and reveal if constraints impact women differently at three different career stages. LaPan et al. (2013) found it was important to identify how current female faculty have reached their career goals in the hope of providing useful information for the next generation of women who decide to enter the world of higher education. The significance of this study is to hopefully raise the perception of the profession and awareness for women faculty in the PRTM field at NC higher education institutions.

The literature review provides an overview of the glass ceiling effect for women in the workplace, higher education and specifically in the PRTM field. Three different constraints: societal, individual, and organizational, are discussed and how each one can impact a woman's career development. The social role theory is used as the framework for this study and how social roles have an impact on women.

### **History of Women in Higher Education**

Women have always had to work harder, from an equity standpoint, than men to achieve status and leadership positions within higher education (Shepherd, 2017). Harriett Cooke became the first female full professor who was paid as equally as male faculty in 1871 at Cornell University (Kamioner, 2014). Many of the same challenges she faced almost a century and a half ago still occur today, including organizational, individual, and societal constraints. Johnson (2016) reported women account for 31% of full professors at degree-granting institutions, 27% of university presidents and approximately 30% of higher education institution board members. Eddy and Ward reported in 2015 half of all new faculty who were entering higher education careers were women and there was a positive outlook on career advancement. Those numbers began to decline when women look to become associate or full professors. Salary equity has also been slow to develop as women faculty earn approximately thirteen thousand dollars less than men at public institutions and approximately seventeen thousand dollars less at private institutions (Johnson, 2016). Clearly, equality between men and women in higher education still has not yet been established.

Henderson et al. (2011) found women were not valued as scholars or chosen for research in collaboration with their colleagues, lacked a role model, and were less likely to be part of unofficial associations within the institution. Women faculty have made gains, their presence is

still limited, especially within higher academic ranks and tenured faculty, which can be attributed to the length of time it takes to reach upper administration (Subbaye & Vithal, 2016; Sussman & Yssad, 2005). One of the main constraints that hindered women from reaching their goals has been trying to balance their lives at work and at home (Mazerolle & Barrett, 2018).

Work/life balance was difficult for women because of defined gender roles and societal expectations, such as that once women marry, they were expected to stay home but this viewpoint changed “in the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century” (Pessin, 2018, p. 25). Over time, this societal expectation had not varied much but there had been an upward turn at the beginning of the 21<sup>st</sup> century “as institutions and families start adapting to women’s new roles outside the household” (Pessin, 2018, p. 25). Johnson (2016) reported 71% of college presidents who were women were married and 72% had children. Eddy and Ward (2015) stated women in leadership roles within higher education institutions tend to find it difficult to have a good balance within the workplace, as they need to be strong and authoritative but must also have the appropriate manners of a lady. For women who want careers, these societal expectations became constraints to their presence in the workplace and in higher education. The demands and expectations that were put on women at both home and the workplace caused a struggle between the two. Shapiro, Ingols, and Blake-Beard (2008) stated women “see themselves as overwhelmed with multiple demands on their finite time and energy” (p. 311). These demands and constraints women encounter in higher education were not singular to this field but are seen in other fields as well, including PRTM.

### **History of Women in Parks, Recreation, and Tourism Management**

While constraints were evident, women were actively working within the PRTM fields, dating back over a century ago. Their hard work had gone mostly unnoticed, but women have

had a strong presence in the Recreation Movement for over a century, as well as helping develop the National Recreation and Park Association (NRPA) (Henderson et al., 2011). Women worked alongside men during the American urban parks and recreation movement in the 19<sup>th</sup> century. They focused on the social issues that resulted from urban industrialism because it was believed support the movement into the 20<sup>th</sup> century to help develop a positive quality of life. Even though the NRPA supported women in leadership roles, that was not the case within the entire PRTM field.

Women were underrepresented in leadership roles (Johnson, 2016), including the PRTM field (Carvalho, Costa, Lykke, Torres, & Wahl, 2018; Henderson et al., 2013). Regardless of discipline, women have still been facing a variety of challenges when it came to the development of their career (Henderson et al., 2011). Smith, Santucci, Xu, Cox, and Henderson (2012) found even though the government had put into effect policies that discourage discrimination, it could be assumed women who work within PRTM fields are discriminated against less, but the culture within institutions have continued to negatively affect women in their career goals. While these policies have aided women's advancement, there was still a lack of women in leadership roles.

Along with other fields, the PRTM field presented constraints for women. The feminist movement began over a century ago, with partial focus on leadership and management positions for women, but it wasn't until the mid 1980s research began addressing the lack of management positions, how social roles impacted women at both home and work, and overall issues of gender inequality within the PRTM field (Henderson, 1993). Henderson (1993) found the PRTM field lagged significantly behind other fields in regard to social changes for women and how it reacted to these societal changes. Henderson (1993) wrote after her retirement that "leisure studies must contribute to the analysis and affirmation of what makes life meaningful. No other field

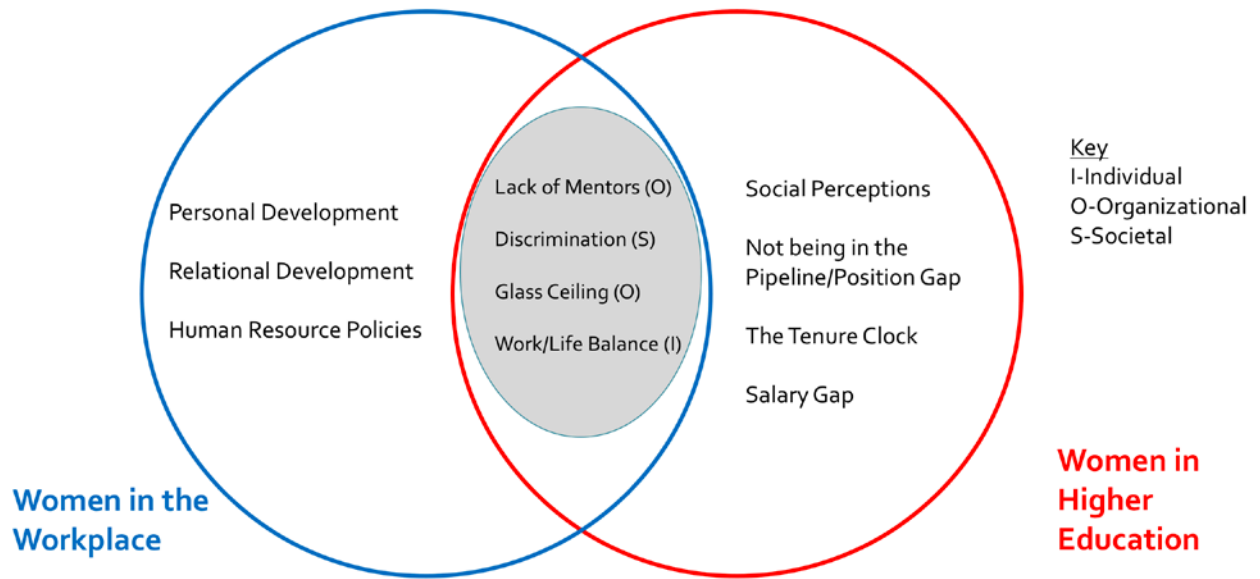
contributes in the same way that leisure studies does. Looking at the world through a leisure lens provides a channel to make an essential contribution to understanding why people do what they do. I believe leisure is essential as a value, a right, a privilege, and a responsibility and I hope we can all be involved in this calling to further the possibilities for many years to come”

(Henderson, 2018, p. 189). Faculty in the PRTM field can make contributions by continuing to conduct research.

LaPan et al. (2013) found it was important to identify how current female faculty have reached their career goals in the hope of providing useful information for the next generation of women who decide to enter the world of higher education. Henderson et al. (2011) discovered women faculty in the PRTM field were mostly satisfied with the direction of their careers, but issues of concern were in individual factors, such as work/life balance and societal issues such as gender equity. LaPan et al. (2013) stated, while recognizing the constraints must be the first step and moving towards social change is crucial, they found that it was equally essential in allowing women faculty to share their story in how they developed their career to provide advice for incoming women faculty. It is important to identify the issues, offer advice, and remember that women need to support one another instead of competing against each other (LaPan et al., 2013).

### **Current Constraints for Women in the Workplace: The Glass Ceiling**

Women are an important part of an organization’s structure and team, and some women were interested in holding leadership roles. However, there are constraints that can keep them from reaching their career goals. Not all constraints are easy to detect within the workplace; some are silent and easily overlooked. Individual, organizational, and societal constraints all hold back women, but it is not just one of them that stands out (see Figure 1). It is a combination of all of these factors together in one complex equation that challenge women who were trying to



*Figure 1.* Constraints for women in the workplace and in higher education.

---

reach leadership roles (Arini et al., 2011). Regardless of the field, women who aspire to hold leadership roles could potentially hit a glass ceiling.

Morrison, White, and Van Velsor (1982) coined the term “glass ceiling” due to their findings within their research showing women were having difficulties rising to leadership positions within corporations because of the fact they were women. Morrison et al. (1982) also found once women break through one constraint, it is highly likely they will encounter another constraint. Heilman (2001) described a glass ceiling as a “natural consequence of gender stereotypes and the expectations they produce about what women are like and how they should behave” (p. 657); therefore, women in all fields of study could potentially hit the glass ceiling. Since the glass ceiling was determined, a variety of studies have focused on women and the glass ceilings they encounter.

Women who encountered the glass ceiling in their career journey could be confronted by individuals stating it did not exist due to the fact they have not experienced it. Arini et al. (2011) stated whether women admit to having hit these constraints or a glass ceiling can be perceived as one side of the story, whereas the perceptions of men and other women who have not faced these challenges to understand the reality of these constraints was viewed separately. It is important for men to comprehend the reality of challenges women face and how much men understand them will show society the true reality of women’s standpoint. Women within higher education have their own experiences with the glass ceiling and constraints.

Glass ceiling for women in higher education. Hitting “the glass ceiling” was a term commonly used when discussing women, leadership, and higher education. Ballenger (2010) wrote the “glass ceiling is evident in the supposedly progressive world of higher education. While women have made significant inroads into the senior leadership of American higher

education, parity for women presidents has yet to be reached” (Ballenger, 2010, p. 1). The glass ceiling was a compilation of constraints women in higher education encountered and should be studied to help identify why women have decreased access to power and leadership roles (Ballenger, 2010; Subbaye & Vithal, 2016). “If new women doctoral recipients do not see the value in the academic professoriate, higher education will lose its ability to recruit new faculty into the profession and that, in turn, will affect student learning and institutional success” (Webber & Rogers, 2018, p. 1,106). Research showed the main challenges women faced in the climb to leadership positions within higher education fell into three main categories; societal, individual, and organizational. There were different constraints within each category. While there might be different definitions of success, Henderson et al. (2011) stated the traditional path to attaining tenure within higher education depended on the significance of one’s research and how fast he or she wanted to climb the ladder to hold a leadership role.

The glass ceiling is present within the PRTM field (Carvalho et al., 2018; Henderson, 1992; Remington & Kitterlin-Lynch, 2018). Henderson et al. (1990) emphasized this field was successful due to the diversity of its community members; therefore, men need to be aware and have an understanding of constraints that women within the PRTM field face. With this being stated, Henderson et al. (2011) and Corbett (2016) suggested faculty and practitioners must be attentive to these issues as they educate the next generation of PRTM professionals. Not only do they need to be aware of the glass ceiling but the constraints that caused this glass ceiling.

### **Organizational Constraints for Women in the Workplace**

An organizational constraint was described as conditions that prevent, restrict or lack of reinforcement towards an individual’s job performance (Pindek & Spector, 2016). One



organizational constraint was lack of mentors for women in the workplace. Women should stand up and be mentors for other women (Flippin, 2017; Henderson, 1992; Redmond, Gutke, Galligan, Howard, & Newman, 2017), and women who were seeking a mentor should take advantage of more than one mentor if the opportunity presented itself.

Flippin (2017) found not only was having a mentor valuable for career advancement to impact on their development. Women entering the workplace were looking for support impact on their development. Women entering the workplace were looking for support from both their supervisor and the organization they work for, which in turn provided benefits for both the individual and the organization. The benefits for the individual include “greater opportunity, growth, fulfillment and financial gain,” whereas for the organization, designating “plans for identifying, motivating and preparing leaders can ensure business continuity” (Flippin, 2017, p. 41). Another way to support women in their career goals is by helping them to identify and become members with specific networks. “Networks can come in a range of forms, including social networks, mixed-gender networks, female only networks, informal and formal networks, discipline specific networks or those created for females in a geo- graphical area, networks that have a range of seniority levels, or those networks where the participants are at similar levels” (Redmond et al., 2017, p. 335).

In addition to networks, having policies that support women as they try to balance life and work was crucial. It was important these policies were put into place to “not only level the playing field” but to recognize how a woman’s gender could be baggage (Ballakrishnen, Fielding-Singh, & Magliozzi, 2019, p. 38). Heilman and Caleo (2018) found organizations can limit its’ production if they do not put policies into place that reinforce that gender was not an issue. Organizational constraints were also present in higher education.

## **Organizational Constraints for Women in Higher Education**

Constraints could harm women from achieving leadership roles and their capability to achieve their full potential (Wicker, Cunningham, & Fields, 2019). “Women in leadership roles serve as role models for others, mentor others, bring different viewpoints to the workplace, in deviant workplace behaviors” (Wicker et al., 2019, p. 798). Other roadblocks included being held to a higher standard than men, dealing with human resource policies and procedures, and the tendency to be subjected to more scrutiny in their jobs (Eddy & Ward, 2015; O’Neil, Hopkins, & Bilimoria, 2015). Broadbridge (2007) found women search for strong relationships at work for support, whereas men look for support more from home. If more female role models emerge within the organization, the career goals of young professional women could alter. Like many other education systems, higher education institutions could create resources and programs, which could make a substantial difference to specifically support women in their desire to gain leadership roles (Redmond et al., 2017).

For women to reach their career advancement goals, mentorship has been shown to be a “valuable development resource” (Flippin, 2017, p. 36). Whether the relationship is formal or informal, the purpose of mentorship is for the mentee to take advantage of the mentor’s career skills and achievements, which will help to heighten the mentee’s knowledge of how to reach their career goals. Women who do not have mentors can have limited careers and lower job performance, which in return will keep them from reaching leadership roles (Flippin, 2017; Subbaya & Vithal, 2016). Lack of an appropriate mentor can be compounded by gender discrimination, which is still prevalent in higher education.

It is essential for women to focus on what they can do well within the organization and use their talents to their maximum potential (Henderson et al., 1990), including being student centered. Student success has become an important part of faculty members' jobs as the importance of retention rates became more highly valued by senior administrators. Eddy and Ward (2015) stated students were one of the main reasons why faculty members had employment but focusing on student success can actually hinder women in their career development. Institutions did not see the value of the time women faculty put into student success, regardless of whether it improved student retention (Eddy & Ward, 2015).

### **Organizational Constraints for Women in PRTM**

Women working within the PRTM fields were able to be successful in their job and raising a family if the policies within the organization were supportive (Smith et al., 2012). Smith et al. (2012) also noted the organization must also be supportive of both formal and informal networks as well as mentorship. Planning a career path with the support from mentors and networking in PRTM is crucial for women, as it is in any other field (Henderson, 1992; Henderson et al., 2013). Henderson (1992) found less than half of women in PRTM have ever had a mentor or role model and that a mentor is not exclusively someone who is a positive influence in supporting their careers—they also provide emotional support. Therefore, it was crucial for women to rise up and become mentors to new females who were entering the field in order for them to have the drive and desire to become the next generation of leaders (Henderson et al., 1990).

### **Individual Constraints for Women in the Workplace**

A struggle women were constantly battling was the balance between their commitments to and priorities for both home and work. Although both men and women can be impacted by the balance between the two, the majority of women who are in the work force will not sacrifice their role within their families, and therefore, their careers are either put on hold or do not progress to leadership positions (Henderson, 1992; Kalysh, Kulik, & Perera, 2016). Women who do focus on their careers and sacrifice time with their families are often criticized (Ezzedeen, Budworth, & Baker, 2018; Shapiro et al., 2008). In addition, some women have chosen to take an alternate career path to dedicate time needed towards their families, which derailed their goal of becoming leaders within their field.

Women who think they can manage and balance responsibilities between home and work will inevitably add stress to their lives (Henderson, 1992; Mazerolle & Barrett, 2018). This stress not only affects them directly but also affects their performances at both home and work. Overall, women wanted to be able to balance the two to the best of their abilities, and when this was achieved, their levels of satisfaction in their lives doubled and productivity increased (Henderson, 1992; Kalysh et al., 2016; Mas-Machuca, Berbegal-Mirabent, & Alegre, 2016). Women can be successful at balancing the two, but they must receive support during their journey (Ezzedeen et al., 2018).

### **Individual Constraints for Women in Higher Education**

A challenge that was ongoing for many of women was managing a good balance between a career and family. “Balance is more than individual mastery of the environment; it is a part of a push-and-pull from actors and requirements and expectations ever whirling in our minds and in our realities” (Morris, 2019, p. 247). Bingham and Nix (2010) found higher education

institutions appear to see the importance of the work that is being created over the people who are doing the work.

“Women with familial responsibilities seemed to be judged unfairly in multiple ways: by the quality and value of their work, women’s commitment to work, the degree of respect received by peers, the scrutiny of the work, differing performance standards between men and women, and unequal pay raises and promotions” (Bingham & Nix, 2010, p. 2).

This fight was ongoing for women in higher education, but while having a family was seen as a challenge, it was up to women to see it as a potential constraint and choose whether to allow it to become one.

If women are already facing these challenges, they will take on extra duties to prove their worth, but as noted by Bingham and Nix (2010), their higher education institution may not acknowledge their value. If women were constantly being scrutinized and felt overworked, underpaid, and not appreciated, their goal of rising to the top could easily be extinguished. Women who lose interest do so not because of lack of drive, but due to lack of opportunity and support, and this can have a long-term impact on their career advancement (Eddy & Ward, 2015; Madsen, 2012). Even if women do not have children, they are still challenged in their climb to leadership positions because a lot of the time, they are assigned “mom” work (Eddy & Ward, 2015, p. 9). Mazerolle and Barrett (2018) stated higher education offered flexible work hours and can promote support of work-life balance for women faculty, but that does not mean maintaining that balance was easy. “Recognition of what is important versus what is not during the workday was used as a means to gain balance” (Mazerolle & Barrett, 2018, p. 256). Women need to embrace this view of recognition in their lives in order to try to achieve balance.

## **Individual Constraints for Women in PRTM**

Similar to women in higher education, balancing home and work life was an issue for women in the PRTM field. Women were faced with individual constraints when they made the decision to focus primarily on their career goals (Eddy & Ward, 2015; LaPan et al., 2013; Shapiro et al., 2008), therefore making it difficult for professional women in leisure services who value their family life to become fully involved in their work (Smith et al., 2012). Bialeschki and Henderson (2000) found it was crucial for managers to be aware of gender inclusion within the workplace, which enables them to focus on multi-tasking their efforts that allowed women to have a healthier balance between work and home. Organizational support, or lack of, can also overlap into individual constraints if women were trying to make decisions in regards to when to start or continue to build their families (Lepine, 1992; Mazerolle & Barrett, 2018).

## **Societal Constraints for Women in the Workplace**

Society provided a number of invisible constraints that women, in all facets of work settings, encounter on a daily basis. The amount of unnecessary pressure societal constraints have added to a woman's shoulders became very heavy. Results from a study conducted within the hospitality industry by Clevenger and Singh in 2013 found almost half of the participants agreed or strongly agreed that one's work performance could be affected negatively when societal constraints were present, and 40% either agreed or strongly agreed that societal constraints were present within their organizations. While these results show societal constraints still exist within the workplace and women still have a hill to climb to reach leadership positions within it, they have shown progression in this battle (Clevenger & Singh, 2013). Ibarra, Ely, Robin, and Kolb (2013) stated if gender bias existed within the workplace, then it was very

unlikely women will be able to be successful in their career path. Heilman and Caleo (2018) state that “increasing the presence of women in traditionally male roles” (p. 729) as well as having women in upper administration will help in the reduction of stereotyping. This stereotype also impacts how effective women are in their careers, regardless of their field, including higher education.

### **Societal Constraints for Women in Higher Education**

Stereotypes existed for women in higher education, and the constraints that are present have been seen as external and self-inflicted, such as encountering male-controlled boards or committees. Women interested in advancing their careers have hit road blocks even when they are interviewing for leadership roles (June, 2015). They knew they were working with almost no advantages, as compared to men within their fields, and would allow small imperfections, whether they were real or assumed, to impact their leadership abilities (June, 2015; Soloman, 1985). For women who have reached leadership positions, constraints have continued to exist. It was important for them to learn to delegate and to remember everything one says or does will be highly criticized and dissected (June, 2015). While having women in leadership roles within higher education is extremely important for young women, since it allows them to see they can reach their goals, they must be aware their leadership style will be analyzed when they hold these positions. Being seen as aggressive can be another constraint for women, but as long they are aware of this issue, they can still lead in their own style while being firm and clear (June, 2015).

Subbaye and Vithal (2016) found as leadership positions within higher education rise in authority, the number of women drastically decreases—by up to 29% at the highest level. However, it is still important for women to seek leadership roles in higher education because “it determines eligibility and shapes opportunities for women to access senior academic leadership

positions within higher education, in which they are severely under-represented” (Subbaye & Vithal, 2016, p. 928). Another reason that kept women from rising in the ranks was they tend to publish less than men, which in turn has kept them from getting promotions (Subbaye & Vithal, 2016).

Gender harassment and sexual harassment is still common and occurs in all subjects in higher education (Bondestam & Lundqvist, 2020) and is considered a constraint. Bondestam and Lundqvist (2020) found “sexual harassment is an epidemic throughout global higher education systems and impact individuals, groups and entire organizations in profound ways” (p. 1). Bondestam and Lundqvist (2020) also found it is important to focus on the policies within the higher education institution in regard to sexual harassment. Higher education institutions need to focus on policies for both sexual harassment and gender bias. Gender bias can be erased with intervention, therefore, it is important for women to be able to detect even the slightest hint of bias in order for it to be addressed (Cundiff, Danube, Zawadzki, & Shields, 2018). Gender bias is not only present in higher education but also in the PRTM field.

### **Societal Constraints for Women in PRTM**

Inequity comes in a variety of forms, such as race, class, ability, sexual orientation, and age and has continued to be an issue within the PRTM fields (Henderson et al., 2013). Henderson et al. (2013) stated conscious and unconscious discrimination still occurred within the field as well as men do not understand that gender equity remains to be an issue. It is also noted the PRTM fields aren’t concerned about gender equity or sexual harassment issues (Henderson et al., 2013). Henderson stated not only is this important to a woman’s career in the PRTM field but also by not having career ambitions, women could have a negative impact on the field as a whole. In order to support women’s career goals and the development of the PRTM industry, it is



crucial that women create networks that allow them to both give and receive support (Henderson, 1992; Walters, 2018).

Gender inequality persisted in the tourism, hospitality, leisure and event conferences field, specifically with women as keynote speakers, expert panelists, committees and boards (Walters, 2018). Walters stated by not having women representing these areas within the field, it is providing a less balanced perspective on issues, hindering women's career goals and could be harmful to emerging scholars. "In terms of making progress in achieving gender equality in our discipline area, the ongoing transparent monitoring of academic conferences on a (perhaps) biennial basis may help to provide the necessary impetus for measurable improvement" (Walters, 2018, p. 30). While it is important women are aware of these constraints, it is equally important to obtain men's views on these constraints as well, as men can equally as support to women.

### **Men's View on Constraints that Women Encounter**

The majority of the research focused on constraints in the workplace, higher education and the PRTM field pertained to women. LaPan et al. (2013) wrote constraints, such as discrimination and demands outside of the workplace, was not exclusive to women. There was literature to support constraints against both women and men of color but nothing specifically in how men viewed the constraints against women, no matter what field. While a career path in higher education had common expectations for the majority of men and women, research has shown that women, due to gender roles, experience and perceive constraints differently than men (LaPan et al., 2013). Constraints for men have not generally been discussed as both higher education and the PRTM field has been predominantly managed by men. LaPan et al. (2013) states, "having it all is a challenge for both women and men, but it is not insurmountable if structural support is in place in higher education for everyone" (p. 11). Regardless of the type of

constraint, support is needed from men within the workplace, at home and from society in order for women to succeed. Henderson et al. (1990) emphasized this field was successful due to the diversity of its community members; therefore, men need to be aware and have an understanding of constraints that women within the PRTM field face.

### **Social Roles**

A person's biological sex is determined during conception and is then developed while in the womb. Andersen and Witham (2011) defined the term gender as referring "specifically to the social and cultural patterns we associate with women and men in society" (p. 30), whereas Henderson, Bialeschki, Shaw, and Freysinger (1996) defined gender as the "cultural connections associated with one's biological sex" (p. 17). While society has connected these expectations with an individual, differences have been established between males and females, and these roles are learned through socialization.

The socialization process is a process that helps to identify the individual's role in society, which can take on many forms, including different manners and attitudes. Society sees men as having characteristics that are aggressive, persuasive, and independent, while women are kind, supportive, and compassionate (Eagly & Sczesny, 2019; Heilman, 2001). While gender-based stereotypes affect one's gender role and have been culturally created, it does not necessarily affect one's social role, which is the expectations and responsibilities that identify the association between the individual and specific groups of people he or she interacts with on a regular basis (Andersen & Witham, 2011).

The term social roles has transformed over the decades and was originally described as sex roles, which was termed by Rosenkrantz, Vogel, Bee, Broverman, and Broverman (1968). Sex roles became a topic of conversation back in 1968 when Rosenkrantz et al. created the Sex

Role Stereotype Questionnaire (SRSQ), which included 122 bipolar attributes. The purpose of Rosenkrantz et al.'s study in 1968 was to "examine the relation of self-concepts to differentially valued sex-role stereotypes in male and female college students" (p. 287). There were three specific findings from this study. First, the stereotypes were distinct and both men and women students were in agreement of the stereotypes. Second, both men and women agreed the attributes that were considered socially desirable were closely related to masculinity than femininity. Finally, it was found men and women hold an image of themselves closely to the stereotypes, which in turn showed women to have negative self-images. Studies by Bem (1974, 1975), Spence, Helmreich, and Stapp (1974, 1975), Eagly (1987), Eagly, Makhijani and Klonsky (1992), Eagly and Wood (1999), Eagly, Wood and Diekmann (2000) began to follow Rosenkrantz et al. (1968), providing data that would create the foundation for the evolution of the term social roles.

Bem (1974) took this information and went a step further by creating the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI). The difference between the SRSQ and the BSRI was Bem included a Social Desirability scale of neutral items. This scale was added to "insure the inventory would not simply be tapping a general tendency to endorse socially desirable traits" (Bem, 1974, p. 156). Bem's (1974) expectation was the "androgynous person will come to define a more human standard of psychological health" (p. 162), showing it is acceptable to not consider one's self as masculine or feminine. Results from previous BSRI studies were analyzed and discussed, stating women enrolled in college are "less likely to endorse feminine traits" (Donnelly & Twenge, 2017, p. 563) rather than women enrolled in college in the 1990s. Results also were shown women enrolled in college over a time span of four decades had an increase of association with both masculine and androgyny traits, showing a generational change towards social roles

(Donnelly & Twenge, 2017). The BSRI, developed by Bem in 1974, continues to be the most standard and frequently used measurement for gender roles (Patel & Biswas, 2016).

It was important to understand the stereotypes of sex roles and the different characteristics associated with men and women to determine if “people should no longer be socialized to conform to outdated standards of masculinity and femininity, but that they should be considered to be androgynous” (Bem, 1975, p. 634). Spence et al. (1975) used the SRSQ and the BSRI as the foundation for their Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ). The purpose of the PAQ was to either confirm or deny that the reported “differences between sexes should be at least moderately correlated with the degree to which their self-image corresponds to the stereotype” (Spence et al., 1975, p. 30) and to see if the “self-ratings in the direction of accepted sex role stereotypes can be regarded as a kind of masculinity-femininity index” (p. 30). Spence et al. (1975) found masculine attributes were more related to men, feminine attributes were more related to women, and views of both were misleading to conform their viewpoints about sex roles. This research helped to create the term gender roles, which was studied in depth by Eagly (1987). Eagly (1987) noted that the term gender is useful

“to the meanings that societies and individuals ascribe to female and male categories.

Thus, I refer to the social roles a society defines for women and men as gender roles and the stereotypes that people hold about women and men as gender stereotypes. These concepts are approximately defined in terms of the meanings ascribed to the sexes” (p. 6).

Eagly (1987) stated, social behaviors were assessed in diverse ways in far more varied settings. Therefore, sex differences in social behaviors were likely to be inconsistent across studies and accounting for variability between studies becomes a fundamental aspect of integrating research findings. The definition of the situation in which behavior occurs must be considered in order to

account for variability between studies, the theoretical analysis for social behaviors should be somewhat different than it is for cognitive abilities (Eagly, 1987).

Eagly used Bem (1974) and Spence et al.'s (1975) studies as a foundation for the beginning of her study on gender roles and their transformation to social roles. "The idea that people may apply stereotypic expectations to themselves suggests that people's own attitudes and values have the stamp of societal gender roles on them" (Eagly, 1987, p. 18). Society played a large part in how individuals were labeled due to the conformity of role expectations, thus creating social roles. The transition from gender roles to social roles allowed an individual to fill many gendered social roles based on the groups of people with whom individuals associate. Eddy and Ward (2015) stated it is imperative to look at gendered social roles, professional work conditions, and institutional structures in order to comprehend how women approach the workplace.

A person's social role in their personal life can be completely different than their gendered social role in their work life. Eagly (1987) stated in settings within families or the workplace, "specific social roles are probably of considerably more importance in determining behaviors. Since these roles may easily override gender roles, it is possible that women and men in the same specific role behave quite similarly" (Eagly, 1987, p. 34). Social roles have developed over a long period of time and are unlikely to dissolve quickly, but organizations can be an influence to their further evolution (Heilman & Caleo, 2018). The nature of behaviors men and women enact decides where each individual works in the workplace, including the PRTM field.

Historically, a separation of labor can be observed in the PRTM field. Women have worked in the therapeutic recreation sector, and men have worked in the outdoor recreation

sector (Henderson & Bialeschki, 1990). Not only does the type of work separate men and women, but also it affects them psychologically. Henderson (1992) found women in the PRTM field and other fields shows that women in the PRTM field may display uncharacteristic gender role behaviors. While there is a difference in how women in the PRTM field are viewed, there must be a collected effort between the individuals and workplace in order for there to be any changes for career development for women (Bialeschki & Henderson, 2000). Gendered social roles can also affect a woman's leadership role within the workplace, and Patel and Biswas (2016) stated, "stereotypes are overgeneralized beliefs about people based on their being a member of any of the social groups and/or categories" (p. 53).

### **Social Role Theory**

Social role theory was used as the framework for this study. Social role theory is how men and women behave differently in social situations due to the expectations that society puts upon them (Eagly, 1987). Henderson et al. (2011) found due to "social role factors", the path that women must take in the development of their career could be complex. Eagly and Wood (1999) stated due to the physical differences between men and women were "homemakers." This in return created psychological differences for each role (Eagly & Wood, 1999). Eagly, Nater, Miller, Kaufmann and Sczesny (2019) stated behavior that is role-constrained provides essential information because most behaviors category sex, which divides most humans into two groups based on their reproductive functions, is fundamental to human cognition and social organization" (p. 1).

Eagly (1987) found the expectations to which men and women were exposed were different from one another, which in turn make them adapt to society and acquire new skills, mindsets, and principles. "Social roles are embodied in the interaction between people based on

shared and perceived expectations that are learned in a societal context” (Henderson, 1993, p. 166). Social roles have transformed from the mid-20<sup>th</sup> century due to changes in gender stereotypes (Eagly et al., 2019) such as women not taking full responsibility for taking care of the children and home and men being the bread winner. Even though social roles have changed, there were still constraints for women that are attached to their social role. Social role theory connected with the three constraints, organizational, individual and societal that were studied and discussed previously in this chapter. The framework offered a way of thinking about the constraints that women faculty in the PRTM field encounter and how their career development could be impacted.

### **Career Development Model**

A conceptual model of a women’s career development applied to higher education was used by Henderson et al. (2011). Their study was based on studies from O’Neil and Bilimoria (2005) and O’Neil et al. (2008). Henderson and Bialeschki (1995) used Frisby’s (1992) career development model as a foundation for their study and model.

Frisby (1992) stated one of the first career development models, developed by Schien (1978), did not include women because early research on career studies assumed women were not focused on their careers. Schien’s (1978) model included eight different career stages based on a man’s age, beginning at age zero and ending at retirement age. Frisby (1992) noted the stages began with entry into the workforce (16 – 25 years), basic training at the workplace (16 – 25 years), full membership in early part of career (17 – 30 years), full membership in middle part of career (25 years and more), mid-career crisis (35 – 45 years), non-leadership role at a later part of career (40 to retirement), decline and disengagement (40 to retirement), and retirement. Frisby (1992) also stated customary career development models can put both financial and

achievement pressure on men, underestimate the career goals of women, and are based on the incorrect assumption that traditional family structure is the custom. Therefore, it became evident a career development model geared specifically towards women was crucial.

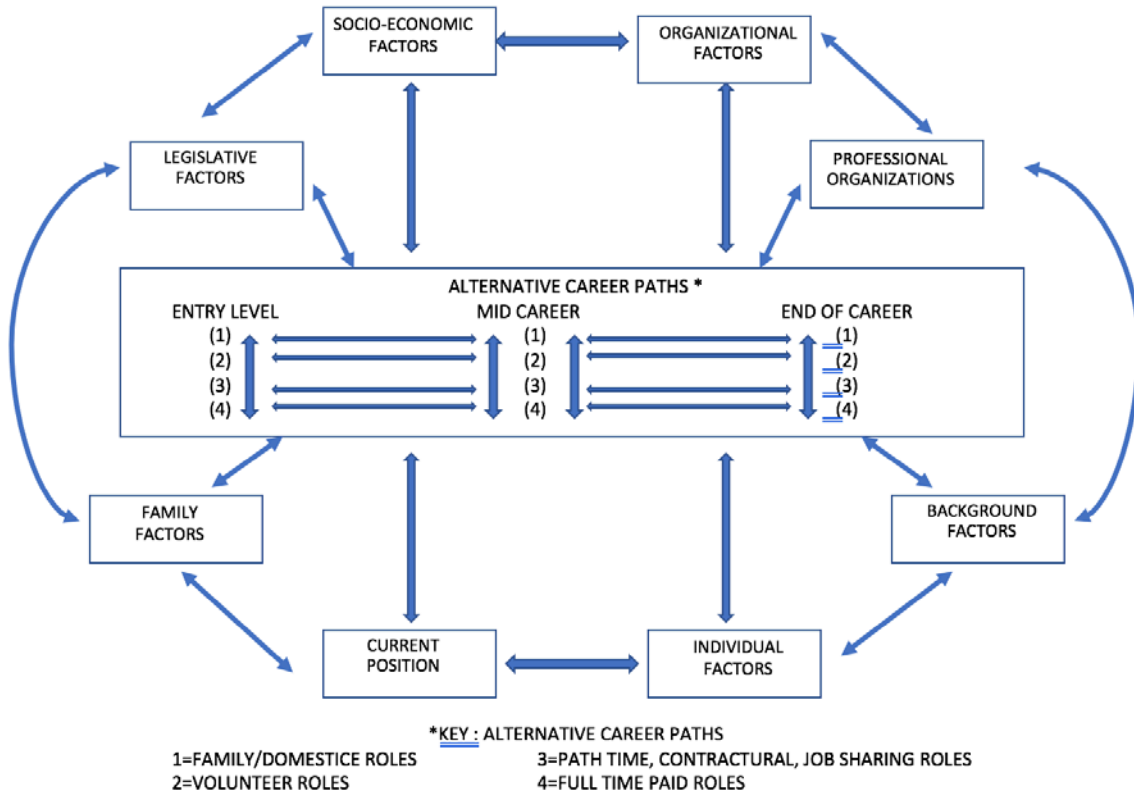
A number of researchers began to focus on the need for a woman-centered career development model. Defining indicators focused on the distinctiveness and diversity of women's experiences in the development of a theory for career development is crucial for research (Diamond, 1987; Frisby, 1992; Gutek & Larwood, 1987). Five societal forces were developed by that could be used in the career development model to find out how they affect women at work, which include sex roles, structure of the labor market, capitalism, home-making structure, and patriarchy (Frisby, 1992; Sokoloff, 1988). These social forces have an evident place within this career development model, but it is important to not generalize women in certain roles (Acker, 1988; Collinson, Knights, & Collinson, 1990; Frisby, 1992; Gutek & Larwood, 1987). It was also found an indicator that should be included in the model is childbearing/motherhood (Frisby, 1992; Wilson, 1991). Rose and Larwood (1988) developed a career development model for women that included work and family balance. Powell (1988) created a model that was general, focusing on both men and women, but it included non-work indicators that could affect one's career development. The six indicators were "societal factors, organizational factors, decisions by organization, family factors, personal factors and actions by individuals" (Frisby, 1992, p. 162). Three of these factors, societal, organizational, and individual, become the foundation within the career development model.

Powell's model was the foundation for a study by Frisby and Brown (1991), from which data was used to develop the first career development model for women in the PRTM field. This model was used in Frisby's (1992) study, which included eight different factors: legislative,

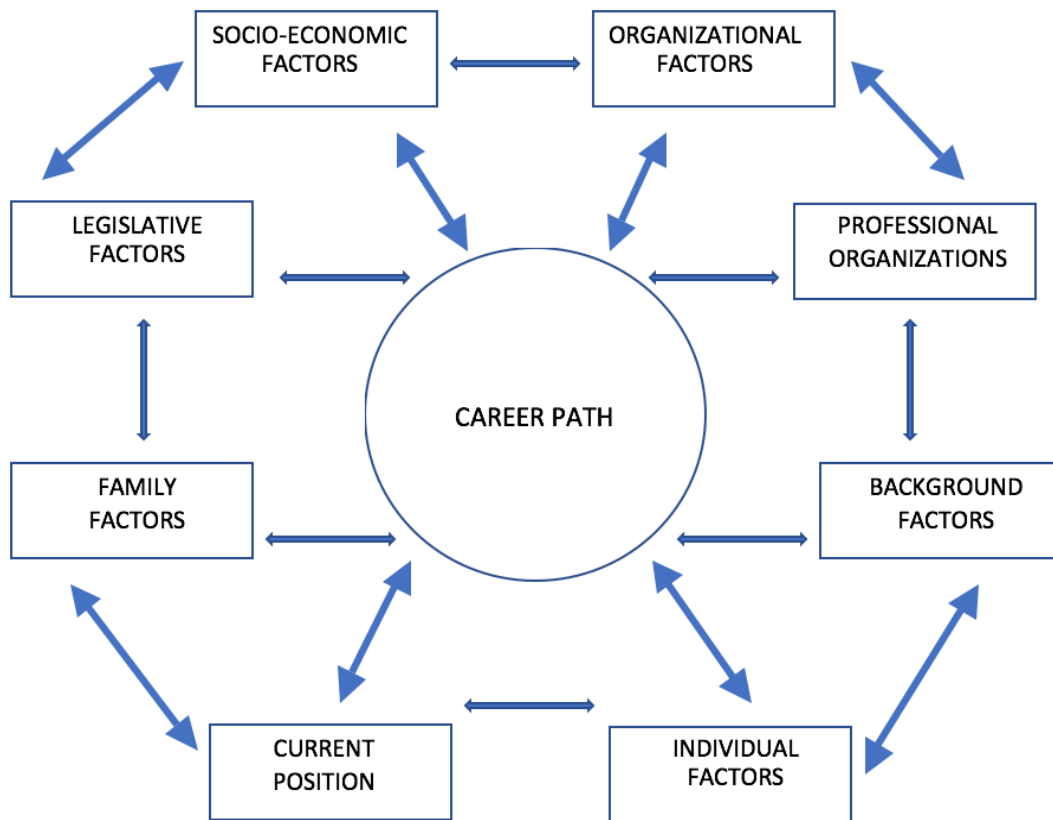


socio-economic, organizational, professional organizations, background, individual, current positions, and family. The career stages were deviated from eight stages in Schien's (1978) study down to three: entry level, mid-career, and end of career. It was not specified what the age ranges were for each career stage. The model that was created by Frisby, see Figure 2. was then used in a study by Henderson and Bialeschki in 1995, see Figure 3.

The purpose of Henderson and Bialeschki's (1995) study was to establish a career development model for women who work within the PRTM field, and Frisby's (1992) model was one of the ones used for the framework. Henderson and Bialeschki (1995) stated how important it was for there to be a career development model for women in the PRTM field due to research findings that "when applied to traditional models of career, suggest that females often have lower expectations than males concerning their level of achievement" (p. 27). While Frisby (1992) used a qualitative study that focused on women who work in public PRTM fields, Henderson and Bialeschki (1995) chose to replicate the study but focus on women who work specifically in recreation programming and management, therapeutic recreation, and park resources by using a quantitative study. These "areas were chosen to compare the diversity, or lack of diversity, that exist" in the PRTM field (Henderson & Bialeschki, 1995, p. 29). The career stages were slightly adjusted as well, using the descriptions front-line staff, supervisory or mid-management, and senior management instead of entry level, mid-career, and end of career. It was not clarified in the study what age ranges were used to describe each career stage. O'Neil and Bilimoria (2005) studied women's career development phases but not within the PRTM field. Their study is a building block in the framework for this study as it begins to focus on the career stages. Their career stages were based on the data from studies by Lepine (1992), Levinson (1996), and Sheehy (1995). Levinson (1996) described the "adult development



*Figure 2. A model of women's career development in leisure services (Frisby, 1992).*



*Figure 3.* A model of women's career development in leisure services (Henderson & Bialeschki, 1995).

---

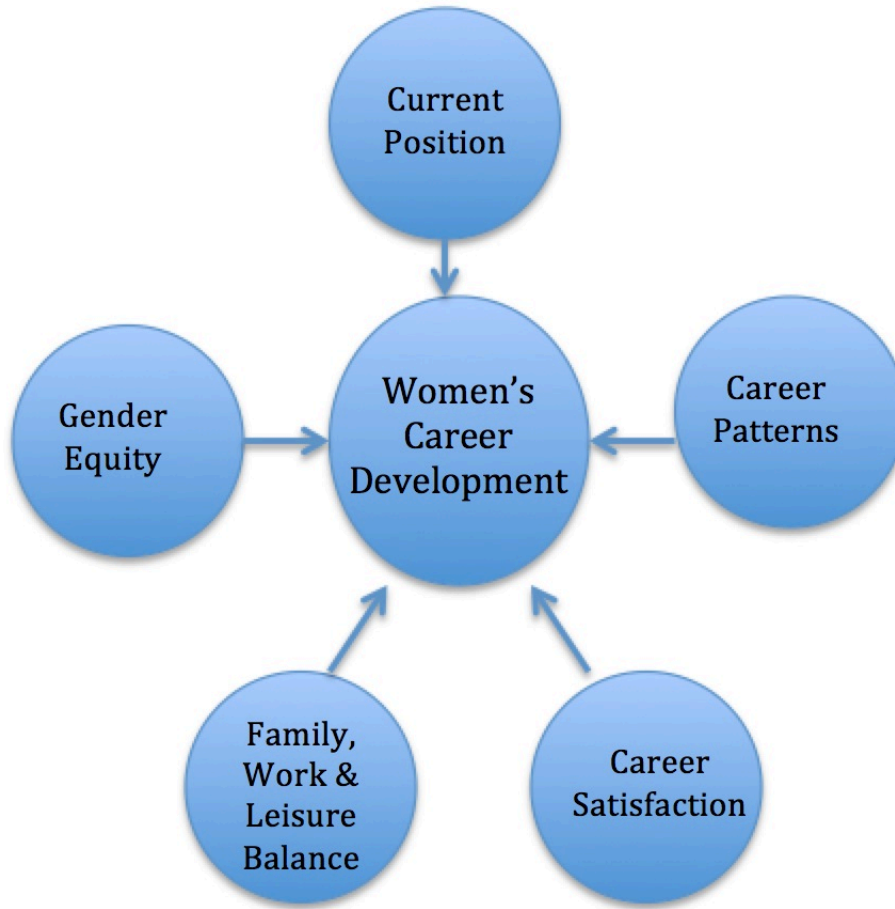
stages” in three age ranges: early life, 22-33; early adulthood to mid-life, 33-45; and middle adulthood, 45-60 (p. 171-172). Sheehy (1995) created five different age ranges that consisted of the “endangered” generation, 21-35; the “me” generation, 36-45; the “Vietnam” generation, 46-55; the “silent” generation, 56-60; and the “Second World War” generation of 61 and older (p. 172). For the purpose of their study, O’Neil and Bilimoria used the research from Levinson and Sheehy and created their own career stages and age ranges, which included career phase 1, ages 24-35; career phase 2, ages 36-45; and career stage 3, 46-60. They then went on to describe the career stages as idealistic achievement (career phase 1), pragmatic endurance (career phase 2), and reinventive contribution (career stage 3). These three career stages are described in more depth later in this chapter.

O’Neil et al. (2008) used the data and framework from O’Neil and Bilimoria (2005) based on the fact “that women’s career and life responsibilities ebb and flow according to life stage concerns and that these must be factored into organizational models of successful careers in addition to work-related concerns” (p. 729). O’Neil et al. (2008) found the three career stages used in O’Neil and Bilimoria (2005) were congruent with their study and that while the issues were different but significant, career development was important in all three stages. O’Neil et al. (2008) also found social roles can be an important and challenging factor for women in their career development, which was then addressed in a study by Henderson et al. (2011).

Henderson et al. (2011) came together to show the importance in how “the management levels of women in any aspect of leisure services including higher education may be better understood by examining aspects of women’s career development” (p. 15). Their career stages were adapted from O’Neil and Bilimoria (2005) and O’Neil et al. (2008) as early (idealism), middle (endurance), and advanced (reinvention). Henderson et al. (2011) found “although

women in higher education were not studied directly in O'Neil and Bilimoria's integrative review, the career phases seemed to have some implication for women at different employment ranks (i.e., assistant, associate, and full professor) within universities" (p. 16). Ferber (2003) and Henderson et al. (2011) discovered that some constraints relate specifically to women in higher education, including lack of role models, the depreciation of women as scholars, and an uneven circulation of women in certain fields across institutions, while Williams (2004) and Henderson et al. (2011) found women working as faculty can be at a disadvantage to the stereotypes given to them by their social roles. Henderson et al. (2011) then created the framework presented in Figure 4 using only five indicators, current position; career patterns; career satisfaction; family, work, and leisure balance; and gender equity, in determining how a woman's career development is impacted in their current career stage.

Women encounter all types of constraints when trying to reach leadership roles but there were certain specific constraints that were common between women in the workplace and women in higher education, such as lack of mentors, discrimination and work/life balance. In order to stay in alignment with the foundation of the career development models (Frisby, 1992; Henderson, 1992; Henderson & Bialeschki, 1995; Henderson et al., 2011), three constraints of career development, were chosen; societal, individual, and organizational. The indicators *current position* and *career patterns*, which was used Henderson et al. (2011), were removed. Henderson et al. (2011) viewed the current position constraint as time in current job and average of hours expected to work per week. The constraint, career patterns, used in Henderson et al.'s (2011) study pertained to job history and professional development. The research questions for this study did not focus on current position or career patterns, therefore, the questions pertaining to



---

*Figure 4.* A conceptual model of a women's career development applied to higher education (Henderson et al., 2011).

---

these two constraint categories were taken out of the survey and were removed from the career development model, see Figure 5.

### **Career Phases**

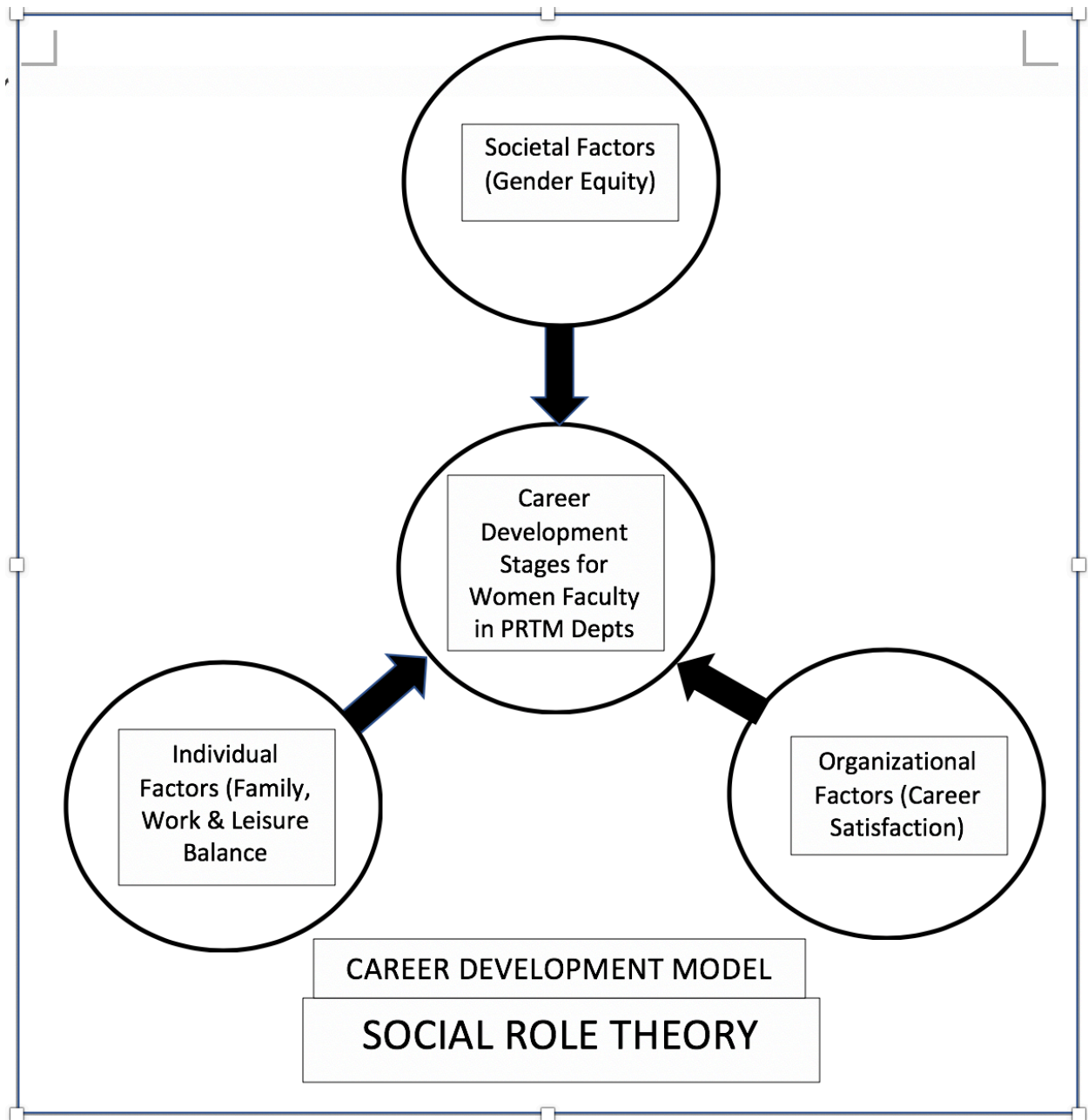
O'Neil and Bilimoria (2005) found there were three stages of career development for women, which were categorized into three themes (Smith et al., 2012). Smith et al. (2012) found the three stages with the identifying themes are early (idealism), middle (endurance), and advanced (reinvention). Smith et al. (2012) also found:

“career patterns shift as women assess their changing roles and relationships.

Authenticity (i.e., being true to oneself), balance (i.e., making decisions about work-life), and challenge (i.e., finding ways to learn and grow) had major influences on the shifting aspects of women's careers” (p. 55).

Henderson and Bialeschki (1995) stated a career development model needs to contain both professional and personal aspects, how they relate to each other, and factors “such as organizational structures, professional associations, current position, family responsibilities, legislation, socioeconomic level, academic and cultural background and individual situations” (Smith et al., 2012, p. 55). For the purpose of this study, Henderson et al.'s (2011) “conceptual model of a women's career development applied to higher education” (p. 17) was used, focusing on current position, career patterns, career satisfaction, work-life balance, and gender equity.

O'Neil et al. (2015) found “that authenticity, balance, and challenge are key elements that will alternate in importance depending on women's career phase and life context” (p. 257). They also noted that women who focused on career development wanted to be challenged with opportunities that were appropriate for their lives but not “focusing on advancement for the sake



*Figure 5.* A conceptual model of a woman's career development applied to faculty in the PRTM field.



of advancement” (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005, p. 113). The next sections describes a woman’s goal and her purpose in each of the three stages.

### **Beginning/Idealism**

O’Neil and Bilimoria (2005) found women ages 24-35 who are in the beginning of their careers tend to base their career choices on the need for gratification and accomplishment. They want to be successful, which in turn impacts others in a positive manner. “Women in this phase are mostly likely to see themselves in charge of their careers and will doubtless be proactive in taking strategic steps to ensure their career progress” (O’Neil & Bilimoria, 2005, p. 182). O’Neil, Hopkins, and Bilimoria (2013) found women were focused on establishing a name for themselves, making a change in their environment, whether it be local or global, and have the attitude that they can conquer the world. Women in this career stage can also be described as “sprinters,” where they want to get to their goals as fast as they can regardless of the consequences.

While goals can weigh heavy on their personal lives, women do understand establishing a balance between their work and home lives was crucial. This was the time to focus on finding a mentor if a woman didn’t have one already. A mentor can share their experiences and advice with the woman in the idealistic phase of her career, while also helping her focus on creating a positive balance between her two lives. Not only do women in this phase need balance, but they also need to be in a work environment that will challenge them and help them grow their skills within the workplace. Mentors can help decide the skills that need help being developed, but once they are identified, it was up to the woman to advocate for herself in the workplace to make sure she receives the help and support she needs (O’Neil et al., 2013). Once women enter their mid-thirties, they tend to cross over into the second phase of their careers.

## **Middle/Endurance**

The second phase, ages 36-45, is considered to be “pragmatic endurance,” as stated by O’Neil and Bilimoria (2005). They describe this phase as when women have set their careers on cruise control but “see their careers as extensions of themselves, and their identities are inextricably linked with what they do for a living” (O’Neil & Bilimoria, 2005, p. 183). O’Neil and Bilimoria (2005) found when women reach this stage of their careers, they are most likely frustrated due to situations such as discrimination or a negative workplace. If women feel their careers have stalled, they tend to focus on aspects of their lives that provide them with satisfaction and fulfillment. Women in this career stage tend to see a wide variety of challenges; therefore, they are seen as “marathoners,” enduring the difficult issues they encounter on a regular basis (O’Neil et al., 2013). Mainiero and Gibson (2018) found women in the middle of their career had the strongest issues in regards to constraints.

Hitting a lull or plateauing at this part of a woman’s career and enduring the heavy workload at both home and in the workplace can be frustrating. Women in this career stage must dig down deep into their mental and physical resources in order to be able to balance their lives. They become so focused on the needs and demands at home and work that they put themselves both physically and mentally at risk (O’Neil et al., 2013). Women who have a mid-level leadership position during this career stage can actually slow down their career advancement if they focus on the wrong aspects of their job, such as management and administration (Eddy & Ward, 2015). With such heavy stress on a woman’s shoulders at this point in her career, she must rely on those strong relationships she has at both work and home in order for her to be successful.

## **Advanced/Reinvention**

The final phase, described by O'Neil and Bilimoria (2005) as the advanced or reinvention phase, occurs from ages 46-60. Women who have reached this phase of their careers are focused on "contributing to their organizations, their families, and their communities" as well as "recognition, respect and living integrated lives" (O'Neil & Bilimoria, 2005, p. 184). This shows a career path that has a strong foundation that can be accredited to individuals in their lives, both personal and professional, which will result in women working in areas that will allow opportunities to support in making a difference (O'Neil & Bilimoria, 2005; O'Neil et al., 2013). Women in this career stage begin to focus on the important aspects of their lives, which in turn allows them to hand off responsibilities to others or become a "relay runner" (O'Neil et al., 2013).

Over the course of their careers, women have developed their skills, taken advantage of the right opportunities to develop their careers, and have proven themselves in the workplace. This allows women in the career stage to become mentors to the women who are entering the beginning of their careers. They can offer advice and encouragement and are able to focus on what is important in the workplace, as well as focusing on what they want their legacy to be when they retire (O'Neil et al., 2013).

## **Career Development**

Women in the PRTM field are on a similar path as other professions when it comes to constraints (Smith et al., 2012). While it may be difficult for women to separate home from career goals, it was imperative individuals within the PRTM field try to push through and pass these constraints towards their career goals in order to help other women in PRTM who have similar goals (Henderson, 1992). Diehl (2014) interviewed women who hold roles as presidents,

provosts, and vice presidents within higher education institutions and found that despite all of the constraints or adversities they encountered, they “navigated through obstacles, and broke through constraints to attain senior leadership positions in higher education” (p. 61).

Witt (1987) found over 30 years ago, women were not just looking for a job but a career due to changes in social viewpoints, financial needs, and desire to make a difference. Henderson (1992) found it is important for women to think about their career path if they want to impact the PRTM field, which meant that they not only chose a career path but also made contributions within their career to the field. Henderson (1992) also stated that “career planning relates to deliberate process of knowing yourself, identifying goals, and planning and implementing strategies to reach those career goals by assisting other women plan their career. While this is no menial task, the efforts that are put forth by supervisors will not only help them individually but also make an impact to the PRTM field (Henderson, 1992).

Warren and Loeffler published a study in 2006 discussing skill development and career advancement for women within the outdoor adventure field. They found women who were interested in advancing their career in the outdoor adventure field encountered the constraints of feeling less qualified and having doubts about their ability to lead. Regardless of whether the position is within higher education or within the PRTM field, if women feel unprepared and insecure in their field, they will not feel confident in developing a career development plan (Flippin, 2017; Warren & Loeffler, 2006).

### **Summary**

The review of the literature on constraints that impact women during their career development explored three different categories, organizational, individual and societal. Each category was divided into three sections to discuss women in the workplace, in higher education

and within the PRTM fields. A section on how men viewed constraints was described but there was an underrepresentation on this topic within the literature.

The social role theory was used as the framework for this study, which was followed by describing how social roles have an impact on the constraints that women encounter in their career development. The history of career development models were then explored to show the foundation of the study, followed by the career phases; beginning, middle and advanced. These career phases were described and were used to identify the faculty at their current position.

### CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

Women are an important part of an organization's structure and team, and some women were interested in holding leadership roles (Shepherd, 2017). However, there are constraints that can keep them from reaching their career goals. Not all constraints are easy to detect within the workplace; some are silent and easily overlooked. Individual, organizational, and societal constraints can hold back women, but it is not just one constraints that stands out. It is a combination of all of these factors together in one complex equation that challenge women who were trying to reach leadership roles (Arini et al., 2011). Regardless of the field, women who aspire to hold leadership roles could potentially hit a glass ceiling.

Women have always had to work harder, from an equity standpoint, than men to achieve status and leadership positions within higher education (Shepherd, 2017). Eddy and Ward reported in 2015 half of all new faculty who were entering higher education careers were women and there was a positive outlook on career advancement. Those numbers began to decline when women look to become associate or full professors. Salary equity has also been slow to develop as women faculty earn approximately thirteen thousand dollars less than men at public institutions and approximately seventeen thousand dollars less at private institutions (Johnson, 2016). Clearly, equality between men and women in higher education still has not yet been established.

Work/life balance was difficult for women because of defined gender roles and societal expectations, such as that once women marry, they were expected to stay home but this viewpoint changed "in the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century" (Pessin, 2018, p. 25). Over time, this societal expectation had not varied much but there had been an upward turn at the beginning of the 21<sup>st</sup> century "as institutions and families start adapting to women's new roles outside the

household” (Pessin, 2018, p. 25). Eddy and Ward (2015) stated women in leadership roles within higher education institutions tend to find it difficult to have a good balance within the workplace, as they need to be strong and authoritative but must also have the appropriate manners of a lady. For women who want careers, these societal expectations became constraints to their presence in the workplace and in higher education. The demands and expectations that were put on women at both home and the workplace caused a struggle between the two. Shapiro et al. (2008) stated women “see themselves as overwhelmed with multiple demands on their finite time and energy (p. 311). These demands and constraints women encounter in higher education were not singular to this field but are seen in other fields as well, including PRTM.

Women were underrepresented in leadership roles (Johnson, 2016), including the PRTM field (Carvalho et al., 2018; Henderson et al., 2013). Regardless of discipline, women have still been facing a variety of challenges when it came to the development of their career (Henderson et al., 2011). Smith et al. (2012) found even though the government had put into effect policies that discourage discrimination, it could be assumed women who work within PRTM fields are discriminated against less, but the culture within institutions have continued to negatively affect women in their career goals. While these policies have aided women’s advancement, there was still a lack of women in leadership roles.

The purpose of this study was to identify constraints that hinder career development for women faculty within PRTM departments at NC higher education institutions, discover if men and women view these constraints differently and reveal if constraints impact women differently at three different career stages. LaPan et al. (2013) found it was important to identify how current female faculty have reached their career goals in the hope of providing useful information for the next generation of women who decide to enter the world of higher education. The significance of

this study was to hopefully raise the perception of the profession and awareness for women faculty in the PRTM field at NC higher education institutions.

Four research questions were part of this study:

1. What are the specific belief statements that hinder career development for women faculty in PRTM fields at NC higher education institutions?
2. In what ways do men and women faculty view these specific belief statements differently that hinder career development for women?
3. In what ways do men and women faculty view the constraint categories differently?
4. How do women faculty view each constraint category and its effect on women at each career stage?

This chapter is organized in the following sections: (a) context of the study, (b) research participants, (c) design of the study, (d) data collection procedures, and (e) analysis of data. The hypothesis for research question #2 was as follows:

H1<sub>0</sub>: There is no significant difference between men and women faculty in how they view constraints that hinder career development for women.

The hypothesis for research question #3 was as follows:

H2<sub>0</sub>: There is no significant difference in how men and women faculty view constraint categories.

The hypothesis for research question #4 was as follows:

H3<sub>0</sub>: There is no significant difference within each constraint category and its effect on women at each career stage.



### **Context of the Study**

This study investigated the research questions within higher education institutions in NC. There were 37 institutions within NC that have a type of PRTM department. The PRTM department for each school has a different department name. A list of departments on the NC Recreation and Parks website offered a list of all the institutions within NC that had a PRTM department. Every institution offered at least a bachelor's degree, while some schools additionally offer master's and doctoral degree programs. There was not a physical location for this study as the survey was sent to faculty via email at each institution.

### **Research Participants**

A convenience sample included faculty who were employed at higher education institutions in NC that have a PRTM department. There were 549 male and female faculty between the 37 institutions. Email addresses were collected for each faculty member from each department's website. If a faculty member was not listed on the website, he or she was not included in the list. One of the main reasons why this study chose to specifically look at faculty was due to a limitation within Henderson et al.'s 2011 study, which stated that "many university faculty members in the broad field of parks, recreation, sport, and tourism are not members of NRPA" (p. 23). There were 33 particular institutions that were chosen, as they were listed on the NC Recreation and Park Association (NCRPA) website for having a PRTM department. In order to capture all higher education institutions, an additional four schools were added to total 37. A complete list of institutions can be seen in Table 1.

### **Design of the Study**

This was a quantitative study using the instrument, A Conceptual Model of a Woman's Career Development Applied to Higher Education, which was developed by Henderson et al.

Table 1

*North Carolina Higher Education Institutions with PRTM Departments*

Institution	Department/School/College	# of Faculty
Appalachian State University	Department of Recreation Management & Physical Education	71
Barton College	School of Allied Health & Sport Studies	5
Belmont Abbey College	Department of Sport Management	3
Campbell University	Department of Exercise Science	11
Catawba College	Department of Sport and Health Sciences	11
Chowan College	Department of Sports Studies & Physical Education	4
East Carolina University	Department of Recreation & Leisure Studies	13
Elizabeth City State University	Department of Physical Education & Health	2
Elon University	Department of Sport & Event Management	7
Gardner-Webb University	Department of Health, Sport & Physical Education	4
Greensboro College	Department of Kinesiology	4
Guilford College	Department of Sports Studies	4
High Point University	Stout School of Education	26
Johnson C. Smith University	Department of Health & Human Performance	5
Lees-McRae College	Department of Sport Management	1
Lenoir- Rhyne University	College of Health Sciences	1
Mars Hills University	Department of Health, Human Performance & Recreation	4

Table 1 (continued)

Institution	Department/School/College	# of Faculty
Meredith College	Department of Nutrition, Health & Human Performance	10
Lenoir- Rhyne University	College of Health Sciences	1
Mars Hills University	Department of Health, Human Performance & Recreation	4
Meredith College	Department of Nutrition, Health & Human Performance	10
Methodist University	Department of Sports Management	2
Montreat College	Department of Business Administration	3
NC A & T	Department of Human Performance & Leisure Studies	10
NC Central University	Department of Physical Education & Recreation	28
NC State University	Department of Parks, Recreation & Tourism Management	56
NC Wesleyan College	School of Mathematics & Science	3
Pfeiffer University	Department of Sports Management	2
Queens University of Charlotte	Department of Sports Management	1
St. Andrews University	Department of Business Administration	2
UNC-Asheville	Department of Health & Wellness	13
UNC-Chapel Hill	Department of Exercise & Sport Science	67
UNC-Charlotte	Department of Kinesiology	27
UNC-Greensboro	Department of Community & Therapeutic Recreation	6

Table 1 (continued)

---

Institution	Department/School/College	# of Faculty
UNC-Wilmington	Department of Recreation, Sport Leadership & Tourism Management	5
UNC-Pembroke	Department of Health & Human Performance	7
University of Mount Olive	Department of Recreation & Leisure	6
Western Carolina University	Department of Parks & Recreation Management	5
Wingate University	Department of Sports Management	11
Winston Salem State University	Department of Health, Physical Education & Sports Studies	8

---

(2011). Dr. Karla Henderson gave permission (K. Henderson, email communication, November 6, 2016), to replicate this study. A quantitative study was chosen because it can investigate specific issues and questions that would not be as accessible in a qualitative study (Freysinger, Shaw, Henderson, & Bialeschki, 2013b). Also, a quantitative survey would allow access to a larger number of subjects due to time constraints.

Henderson et al.'s (2011) instrument, A Conceptual Model of a Woman's Career Development Applied to Higher Education, had 60 total questions. The instrument used for this study, A Conceptual Model of a Woman's Career Development Applied to Faculty in the PRTM Field, which was slightly modified, had 28 questions. Even though some questions were taken out, it did not change what the original survey was meant to do, which was to explore the career development of women in higher education within the PRTM field.

Three constraints were renamed for this study and two were removed. The family/work/leisure balance constraint was changed to the individual constraint section, the gender equity issues constraint was changed to the societal constraint section and the career satisfaction constraint was renamed the organizational constraint section. The constraints, *current position* and *career patterns* were removed. Henderson et al. (2011) viewed the *current position* constraint as time in current job and average of hours expected to work per week. The constraint, *career patterns*, used in Henderson et al.'s (2011) study pertained to job history and professional development. As the research questions for this study did not focus on *current position* or *career patterns*, the questions pertaining to these two constraint categories were taken out of the survey and were removed from the career development model.

The sections for this study, in order, included: (a) survey details, (b) current position, (c) career patterns, (d) individual constraints, (e) societal constraints, (f) organizational constraints,

(g) demographics, and (h) thank-you section. There were five different scales were used within this study. The first scale included the following: (a) very little, (b) moderate amount, and (c) great deal. The second scale included the following: (a) not met at all, (b) somewhat met expectations, and (c) exceeded expectations. The third scale used included the following: (a) strongly agree, (b) agree, (c) unsure, (d) disagree, and (e) strongly disagree. The fourth scale included the following: (a) very satisfied, (b) somewhat satisfied, (c) neither satisfied or unsatisfied, (d) somewhat unsatisfied, and (e) very unsatisfied. The final scale used included the following: (a) always, (b) often, (c) sometimes, (d) rarely, and (e) never.

In looking specifically at one section in Henderson et al.'s (2011) study, there were originally 18 specific belief statements provided to those individuals taking the survey and how much of a degree each one impacted one's career development. In order to condense the survey, seven questions that were separate questions on Henderson et al.'s (2011) survey were combined with the 18 original belief statements to create the twenty-five beliefs used for this study. In order to equally distribute the number of beliefs into the three constraint categories, some of the gender equity (*societal*) beliefs were labeled as organizational beliefs, specifically about networks, mentors, role models or anything related to the participant's individual institution. Those belief statements were changed to organizational. The point of view was also changed in the majority of the belief statements from the third person to the first person. With this change, any belief statement that spoke specifically to the individual about their goals or related to their personal life was labeled as an individual belief.

Social role theory was used as the framework for this study. Social role theory is how men and women behave differently in social situations due to the expectations that society puts upon them (Eagly, 1987). Henderson et al. (2011) found due to "social role factors", the path that

women must take in the development of their career could be complex. Eagly et al. (2019) stated behavior that is role-constrained provides essential information because most behaviors represent roles. A conceptual model of a woman's career development applied to faculty in the PRTM field was used in conjunction with social role theory for this study. This career development model was supported by Henderson et al. (2011).

The Conceptual Model of a Woman's Career Development Applied to Faculty in the PRTM Field survey, which was originally developed by Henderson et al. (2011), was slightly modified and sent out via email. Henderson et al.'s (2011) study had been approved by the Institutional Review Board at North Carolina State University, and a survey was constructed based on the career development model used by Frisby (1992), Henderson (1992), Henderson and Bialeschki (1995), O'Neil and Bilimoria (2005), and O'Neil et al. (2008). The instrument was compiled by an advisory team of 12 university women who met on several occasions to modify and update the questionnaire modeled from previous studies. This group also unofficially pilot tested the survey to evaluate its face validity and readability before it was sent to the sample population (Henderson et al., 2011). Creswell (2005) stated it is important for the instrument to be both reliable and valid because in order to have scores that are the most valid, the scores must be first reliable. This will show the scores to be constant and dependable, which in turn will allow the scores to be significant.

### **Data Collection**

Qualtrics survey software was used to create and send out the survey. A quantitative study allowed the researcher to investigate current opinions, attitudes, and beliefs (Creswell, 2005) of women faculty in the PRTM field at NC higher education institutions. The survey was emailed out to all faculty, both men and women, in each of the 37 departments. While this study

focused specifically on women, the study was sent out to all 450 faculty members during the beginning of the summer in 2019, as there were some names for which gender was not easily identifiable. A follow-up email was sent out two weeks after the initial email. If the completion rate was below 20% after the second email, a third email one week after the follow-up email. A fourth email would be sent, if needed, in order to capture as high of a completion rate as possible, as Creswell (2008) suggested a response rate of 30-35% for quantitative studies using a survey.

### **Analysis of Data**

Once data was collected, it was exported in an Excel file from Qualtrics into SPSS, after which the surveys were then separated by gender. Descriptive statistics, t-test, factor analysis, and ANOVA tests were used to analyze the data. Significance testing was conducted on all twenty-five of the beliefs between men and women and was done so by running a t-test as well as on the constraint categories. Descriptive statistics could be used to draw conclusions to the sample population. Rogelberg and Rogelberg (2017) defined factor analysis as “a statistical procedure for describing the interrelationships among a number of observed variables. Factor analysis is used to measure variables that cannot be measured directly, to summarize large amounts of data, and to develop and test theories” (Rogelberg & Rogelberg, 2017, pp. 479-480). Rogelberg and Rogelberg (2017) also stated there are three reasons to use factor analysis, which includes measuring concepts that cannot be observed naturally, summarizing large quantities of observations into a reasonable number of factors, and delivering evidence of construct validity. Rogelberg and Rogelberg (2017) defined the analysis of variance (ANOVA) model, which is used to compare the means of three or more groups, as “the comparisons of mean levels of a dependent variable across different groups created by experimental manipulations” (p. 1,294).



## **Research Questions**

There were four research questions used for this study. Hypotheses were developed for research questions #2-4. Both reliability and significance testing were conducted for research questions #2 and #3. Factor analysis was then conducted for research question #3. An ANOVA test was then run for research question #4, to look at each of the constraint categories against the three career stages.

### **Research Question #1**

Descriptive statistics were used to answer research question #1: What are the specific belief statements that hinder career development for women faculty in the PRTM fields within NC higher education institutions?

### **Research Question #2**

In what ways do men and women faculty view these specific belief statements differently that hinder career development for women?

H1<sub>0</sub>: There is no significant difference between men and women faculty in how they view belief statements that hinder career development for women.

### **Research Question #3**

In what ways do men and women faculty view the constraint categories differently?

H2<sub>0</sub>: There is no significant difference in how men and women faculty view constraint categories.

### **Research Question #4**

How do women faculty view each constraint category and its effect on women at each career stage?

H<sub>30</sub>: There is no significant difference between each constraint category and its effect on women at each career stage.

### **Summary**

This chapter presents the research methodology used to examine how individual, societal, and organizational constraints impacted women faculty in the PRTM field NC higher education institutions at their current career stage. The statistical significance between the three constraint categories from the point of view of male faculty in the PRTM field was also presented within the methodology. First, the research design of the study was addressed, followed by the sample of the study, which included faculty in the PRTM field at higher education institutions within NC. The instrument, A Conceptual Model of a Woman's Career Development Applied to Faculty in the PRTM Field, which was originally developed by Henderson et al. (2011), was then discussed and how it was modified to fit this study. Descriptive statistics, t-test, factor analysis, and ANOVA were used to analyze the data.

## CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

Women are an important part of an organization's structure and team and some women are interested in holding leadership roles. However, constraints can keep women from climbing the leadership ladder, though not all constraints are easy to detect within the workplace; some are silent and easily overlooked. Individual, organizational, and societal constraints can hold women back from their goals. Regardless of their field, women who aspire to hold leadership roles could potentially hit a glass ceiling due to constraints.

While there have been advances made for women in different fields, they still encounter constraints in both higher education and the PRTM field. In 1990, Henderson and Bialeschki found professionals in the PRTM field have consistently struggled for respect and a positive reputation among other fields. This, in turn, may promote conversations about women in the PRTM field and ways to advance in their leadership careers.

The purpose of this current study was to identify constraints that hinder career development for women faculty within PRTM departments at NC higher education institutions, discover if men and women view these constraint categories differently and reveal if constraints impact women differently at three different career stages. The significance of this study is to hopefully raise the perception of the profession and awareness for women faculty in the PRTM field at NC higher education institutions..

The social role theory framed these research questions identified for this study. Social role theory describes how men and women behave differently in social situations due to the expectations society puts upon them (Eagly, 1987). Eagly (1987) found the expectations to which men and women were exposed were different from one another, which in turn make men and women adapt to society and acquire new skills, mindsets, and principles. Henderson et al.

(2011) found due to social role factors, the path women must take in the development of their career could be complex. Eddy and Ward (2015) suggest to look at gendered social roles, professional work conditions, and institutional structures in order to comprehend how women approach the workplace (Eddy & Ward, 2015) and their career development.

Research has found women encounter constraints when trying to reach leadership roles within the workplace. Specific constraints were common between women in the workplace and women in higher education, such as lack of mentors, discrimination and work/life balance. To stay in alignment with the foundation of the career development models (Frisby, 1992; Henderson & Bialeschki, 1995; Henderson et al., 2011), three constraint categories that impact women in their of career development were chosen to be studied; societal, individual, and organizational.

Results are presented in five sections, followed by a summary of the sections. The first section addresses general results: overall response rate and demographic description of respondents. The second section presents descriptive findings for research question #1. Research question #2 is presented in the third section and describes the analysis of how men and women view specific belief statements. The fourth section, which focuses on research question #3, provides results from a factor analysis and t-test. The fifth and final section focuses on research question #4, which provides results of an ANOVA test. The four research questions of this study were:

1. What are the specific belief statements that hinder career development for women faculty in PRTM fields at NC higher education institutions?
2. In what ways do men and women faculty view these specific belief statements differently that hinder career development for women?

3. In what ways do men and women faculty view the constraint categories differently?
4. How do women faculty view each constraint category and its effect on women at each career stage?

### **General Results**

The respondents selected to complete the survey were originally from 33 higher education institutions that had a department related to PRTM fields and were found on the North Carolina Recreation and Park Association (NCRPA) website. The researcher reviewed the department website from each institution to find the directory of faculty and their emails. The first email was sent on June 4, 2019 to all faculty at the 33 institutions. The email included the language of “parks, recreation, and tourism management”-related departments to describe which faculty this the researcher was interested in surveying. Email responses were received from 13 individual faculty members, who stated they were not in the PRTM field; rather, they were in other fields, such as exercise science or sports management. These comments inspired the researcher to send the survey again to a larger sample population, which included four additional institutions that were not on the NCRPA website but were on a list of higher education institutions in North Carolina. An email was sent to the additional four institutions with the new email language on June 7, 2019 describing how this study was interested in surveying faculty in the parks, recreation, tourism, sports management, exercise science and related fields, see Appendix D. This brought the number of institutions to 37. Within the 37 institutions, a total of 549 faculty were found on the institutions’ study-related websites. Fourteen of the institutions were part of the UNC system and 23 institutions were private institutions. A second email was sent to all faculty on June 12, 2019, and a third and final email was sent on June 26, 2019.

Out of the original 549 surveys that were deployed, 480 email addresses were usable. Unusable emails include the following: undeliverable, no longer works at that institution, responded and stated they do not work in this field, out of the office until the end of the summer, retired, staff, doctoral student and asked to be removed. Thus, 114 individuals that responded out of 480, provided a 23.75% response rate. Of the 114 respondents, there 101 usable survey results, which provided a final response rate of 21.04%. The 13 emails were removed because of incomplete surveys.

Initial data analysis revealed the demographics of the participants (see Table 2), which included 35.6% males ( $n = 36$ ) and 64.4% females ( $n = 65$ ). Based on rank, assistant professors were the largest group of respondents at 31.7% ( $n = 32$ ). Over half of the participants, 61.4% ( $n = 62$ ), stated they did not have administrative duties within their current position. The majority of the respondents labeled themselves as being in the Advanced stage of their career at 51.5% ( $n = 52$ ). Slightly more than third of the respondents, 36.6% were tenured faculty ( $n = 37$ ). The majority of the sample was 86% White ( $n = 87$ ) and 29.7% were between 41-50 years of age ( $n = 30$ ). The majority of the respondents at 83.2%, were either married or living with a partner ( $n = 84$ ); the largest group of respondents earned a salary of \$60,000-\$69,999 at 21.8% ( $n=22$ ). The other ranges are listed in Table 2. There were 37.6% of the respondents that stated they contributed over half of their household income ( $n = 38$ ). Over half (57%) of the respondents were from public institutions, 95% were employed at institutions that offered a bachelors degree, followed closely with 94.1% offering a master degree. Table 3, describes the remaining descriptives on institutions.

Table 2

*Demographic Characteristics of Study Participants*

Respondent Variable	Response Groups	Frequency	%
Gender	Male	36	35.6
	Female	65	64.4
Rank	Full Professor	19	18.8
	Associate Professor	22	21.8
	Assistant Professor	32	31.7
	Full-time Instructor	13	12.9
	Adjunct	10	9.9
	Other	3	3.0
Administrative Duties Within Current Position	No	62	61.4
	Yes	37	36.3
Stage of Career	Beginning	21	20.8
	Middle	25	24.8
	Advanced	52	51.5
Career Track	Tenured	37	36.6
	Tenure Track	27	26.7
	Non-tenured	35	34.7
Ethnicity	African American	5	5.0
	American Indian/Native American	0	0.0
	Asian American	2	2.0

Table 2 (continued)

Respondent Variable	Response Groups	Frequency	%
Ethnicity	Biracial	0	0.0
	Hispanic/Latino Black	0	0.0
	Hispanic/Latino White	3	3.0
	Pacific Islander or Native Alaskan	0	0.0
	White	87	86.1
	Other	2	2.0
Age	22-30 years old	2	2.0
	31-40 years old	27	26.7
	41-50 years old	30	29.7
	51-60 years old	26	25.7
	60+ years old	14	13.9
	Relationship Status	Single	9
Married or Living with Partner		84	83.2
Widowed		1	1.0
Separated/Divorced		5	5.0
Salary in current position	Less than \$39,999	7	6.9
	\$40,000-\$49,999	8	7.9
	\$50,000-\$59,000	12	11.9
	\$60,000-\$69,999	22	21.8



Table 2 (continued)

Respondent Variable	Response Groups	Frequency	%
Salary in current position	\$70,000-\$79,999	14	13.9
	\$80,000-\$89,999	12	11.9
	\$90,000-\$99,999	6	5.9
	More than \$100,000	16	15.8
Contribution to household income	All	21	20.8
	More than Half	38	37.6
	About Half	19	18.8
	Less than Half	21	20.8

*Note.* n=101.

Table 3

*Characteristics of NC Higher Education Institutions Represented in the Study*

Respondent Variable	Response Groups	Frequency	%
Type of Institution	Private	42	41.6
	Public	57	56.4
Degrees Offered	Associate degree	1	5.0
	Bachelors degree	96	95.0
	Professional masters degree	95	94.1
	Doctoral degree	22	21.8

*Note.* n=101.

As for discipline, the largest group of respondents considered themselves a part of the Exercise, Kinesiology and Health/Physical Education field at 23.8%, followed by Sports Leadership, Sports Management, and Sports Science at 20.8%. The full list of research or teaching focus can be seen in Table 4.

### **Research Question #1**

*What are the specific belief statements that hinder career development for women faculty in PRTM fields at NC higher education institutions?* A descriptive analysis of the mean responses was used to analyze 25 belief statements (see Figures 6-30) that hinder career development for women faculty in the PRTM field at NC higher education institutions. Each belief statement was coded in SPSS as well as the constraint category the belief statement belonged to which was determined on the current literature, Table 5. The percentages of responses from both men and women are shown in Table 6. When the descriptive analysis was run, respondents with missing data were omitted completely, leaving a total number of surveys of 93 (Women n=59, Men n=34) that were used for the remaining research questions.

Figure 6 illustrates the perceptions of men and women about whether or not women were excluded from networks. Upon analysis no significant differences were found. As indicated by the analysis of data, 29.4% of men either agreed or strongly agreed if women were excluded from networks and 42.4% of women either agreed or strongly agreed with this statement.

Figure 7 illustrates the perceptions of men and women about whether or not women felt conscious discrimination occurred within their institution. Upon analysis no significant differences were found. As indicated by the analysis of data, 26.5% of men either agreed or strongly agreed that women were excluded and 32.2% of women either agreed or strongly agreed they were consciously discriminated against at their institution.

Table 4

*Area of Research or Teaching Focus*

Category	Frequency	%
Community Recreation/Leisure Studies/Recreation Management	16	16.9
Exercise Science/Kinesiology/ Health/Physical Education	24	23.8
Health & Human Performance/Health & Wellness	10	9.9
Sports Leadership/Sports Management/Sports Science	21	20.8
Therapeutic Recreation	4	4.0
Outdoor Recreation	7	6.9
Other	11	10.8

*Note.* n=101.

Table 5

*Type of Belief Statements and How They Were Coded in SPSS*

Belief statements	Code	Constraint
Women are excluded from informal male networks	Excluded	Organizational
Conscious discrimination occurs against women in higher education	ConsDiscrim	Societal
Unconscious discrimination occurs against women in higher education	UnconDiscrim	Societal
Traditional gender roles prevent women from being viewed as leaders	Roles	Societal
Sexual harassment continues to be an issue in higher education	Harass	Organizational
Changes are slow to occur even though “old boys” are retiring	Oldboys	Organizational
Women do not desire to move into administrative positions	MoveAdmin	Individual
Women do not have adequate formal networks at institution	FormalNet	Organizational
Women do not have adequate informal networks at institution	InformalNet	Organizational
Gender equity issues have not been adequately addressed at institution	EquityIss	Societal
Women have experienced a glass ceiling in higher education	GlassCeil	Organizational
Women don't aspire to be full professors or in administration positions due to non-work roles	DontAspire	Individual
Institutions have not implemented policies that help employees, especially women	Policies	Organizational
Men prefer to work with other men and will recruit men over women	MenRecruit	Organizational

Table 5 (continued)

Belief statements	Code	Constraint
Men do not “get” that gender equity remains an issue to be addressed	Mendonotget	Societal
Women lack good role models in higher education	LackRoleMod	Organizational
Women do not receive the same mentoring as men in higher education	NoMentoring	Organizational
Women have less influence and power at my institution	LessPower	Organizational
Women are unable to put in extra hours required to get promoted or to move into administration	UnableHrs	Individual
Must work harder than male colleagues to advance or get promoted	WorkHarder	Organizational
Have main responsibility for day-to-day arrangements for childcare	ChildCare	Individual
Regularly care for older or disabled relative	RelativeCare	Individual
Have main responsibility for seeing household chores get done	Chores	Individual
Have been sexually harassed at work	SexHarass	Societal
Have witnessed a women being sexually harassed at work	WitnessSH	Societal

Table 6

*Means, Standard Deviations, and t-Test Results on Belief Statements by Gender*

Belief statements	Gender				T-test for Equality of Means		
	Men (n=34)		Women (n=59)		t	df	Sig.
	M	SD	M	SD			
Excluded	3.12	1.03	2.92	1.14	.84	91	.31
ConsDiscrim	3.26	1.16	3.05	1.13	.86	91	.59
UnconDiscrim	2.35	1.12	2.17	1.05	.78	91	.51
Roles	3.29	1.21	2.75	1.12	2.19	91	.03*E
Harass	2.74	0.96	2.59	1.05	0.64	91	.21
Oldboys	2.88	1.25	2.36	1.04	2.17	91	.04*E
MoveAdmin	4.38	0.60	2.98	1.52	5.11	91	.01*
FormalNet	3.71	0.90	3.25	1.12	1.99	91	.03*E
InformalNet	3.76	0.78	3.47	1.07	1.37	91	.03*
EquityIss	3.09	1.08	2.66	1.24	1.63	91	.30
GlassCeil	3.21	1.00	3.22	1.03	-0.06	91	.65
DontAspire	3.62	1.15	3.36	1.34	0.94	91	.09
Policies	3.21	1.20	2.54	1.23	2.50	91	.01*E
MenRecruit	3.82	0.90	3.05	1.23	3.18	91	.01*
Mendonotget	2.82	0.96	2.32	1.04	2.29	91	.02*E

Table 6 (continued)

Belief statements	Gender				T-test for Equality of Means		
	Men (n=34)		Women (n=59)		t	df	Sig.
	M	SD	M	SD			
LessPower	3.41	1.18	3.20	1.25	0.78	91	.40
UnableHrs	4.06	0.73	3.59	1.08	2.22	91	.01*
WorkHarder	3.00	1.12	2.92	1.25	0.32	91	.24
ChildCare	2.91	1.11	2.51	1.35	1.47	91	.03* <sup>E</sup>
RelativeCare	2.91	0.99	3.88	1.19	-4.00	91	.01*
Chores	3.03	1.05	2.02	1.00	4.57	91	.01* <sup>E</sup>
SexHarass	4.32	1.17	3.64	1.43	2.34	91	.01*
WitnessedSH	4.21	1.20	3.58	1.44	2.15	91	.01*

*Note.* (n=93),  $p < .05$ ; \*statistically significant; <sup>E</sup>=Equal variances not assumed.



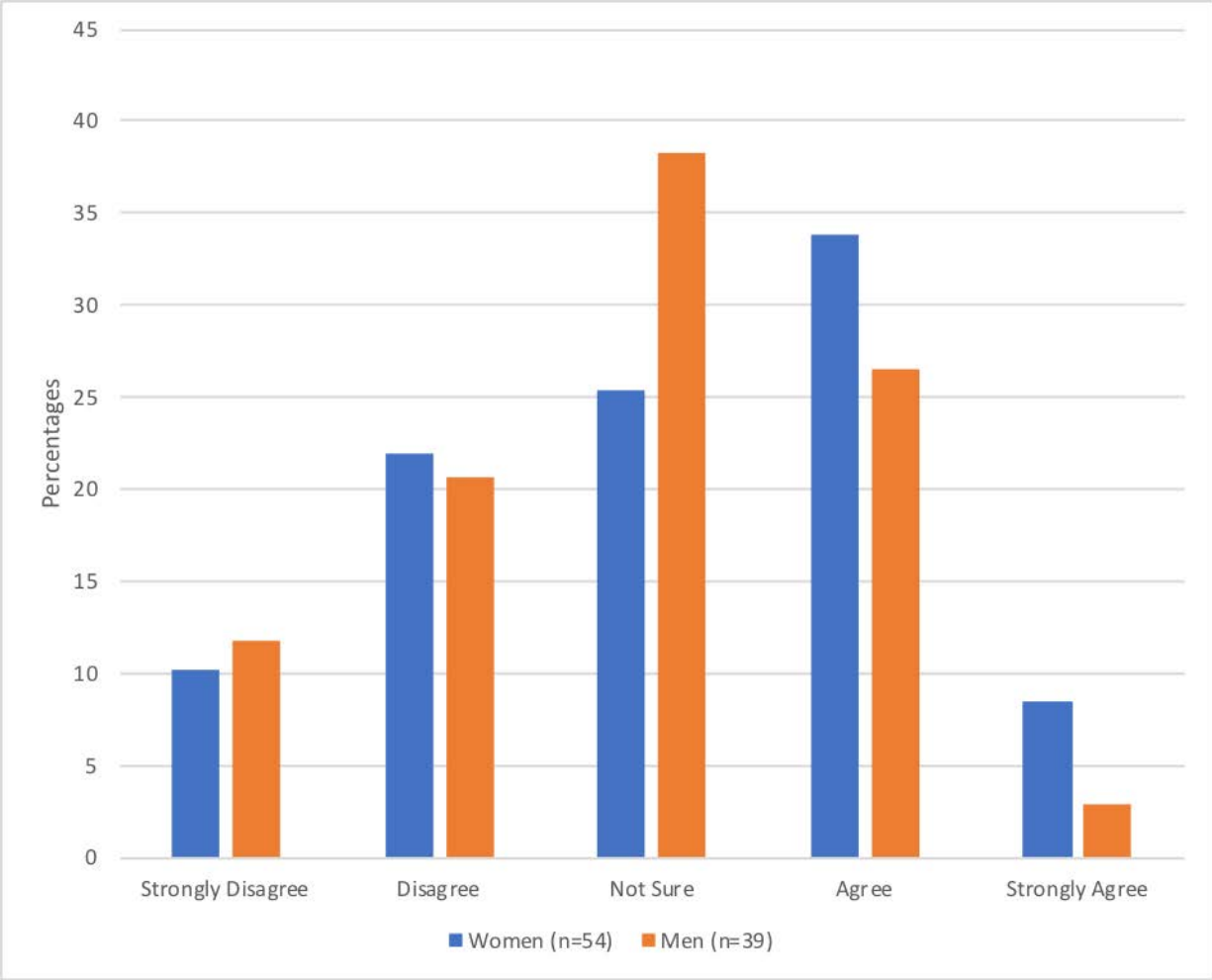
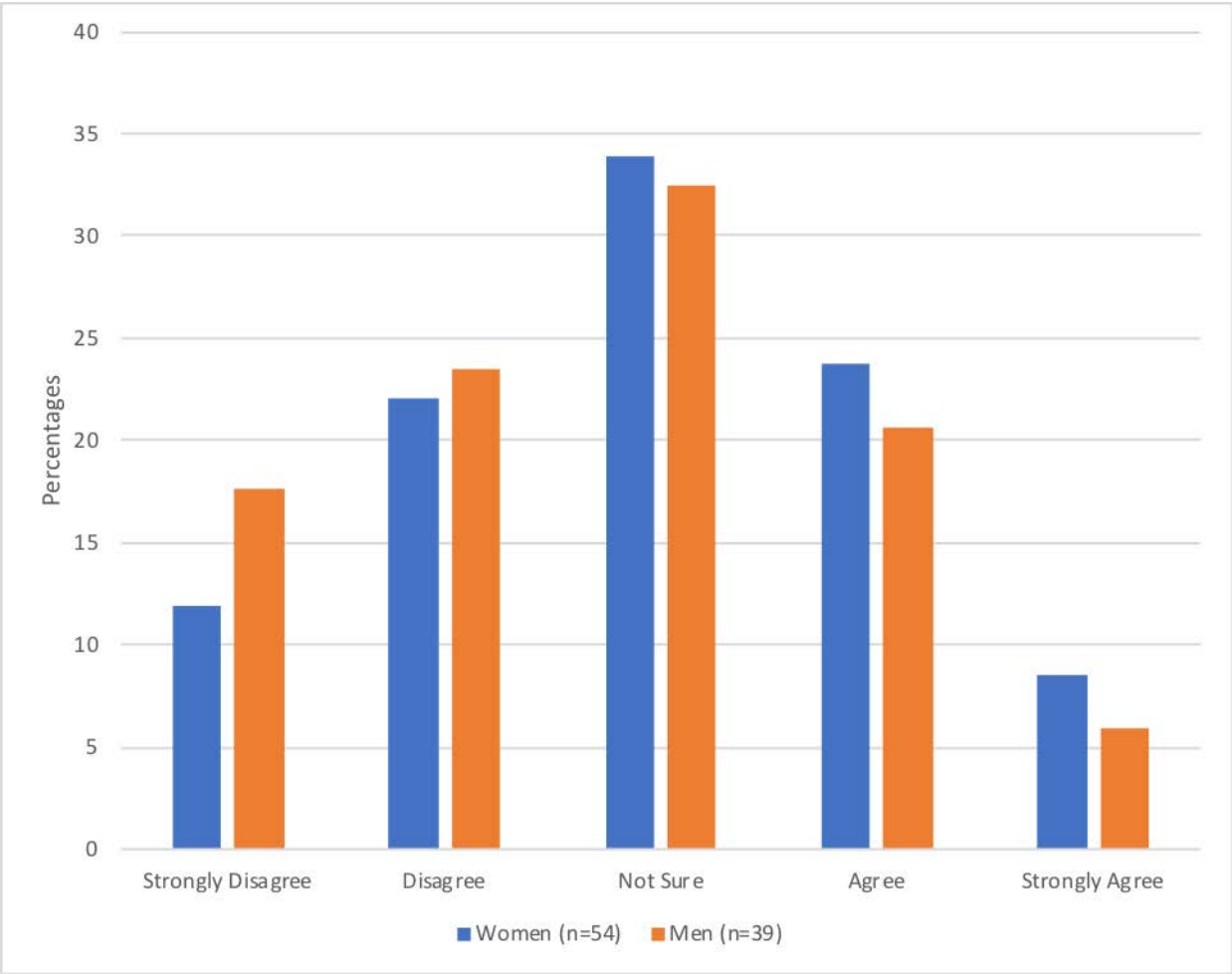


Figure 6. Belief statement: Excluded from networks.



*Figure 7.* Belief statement: Conscious discrimination occurs.

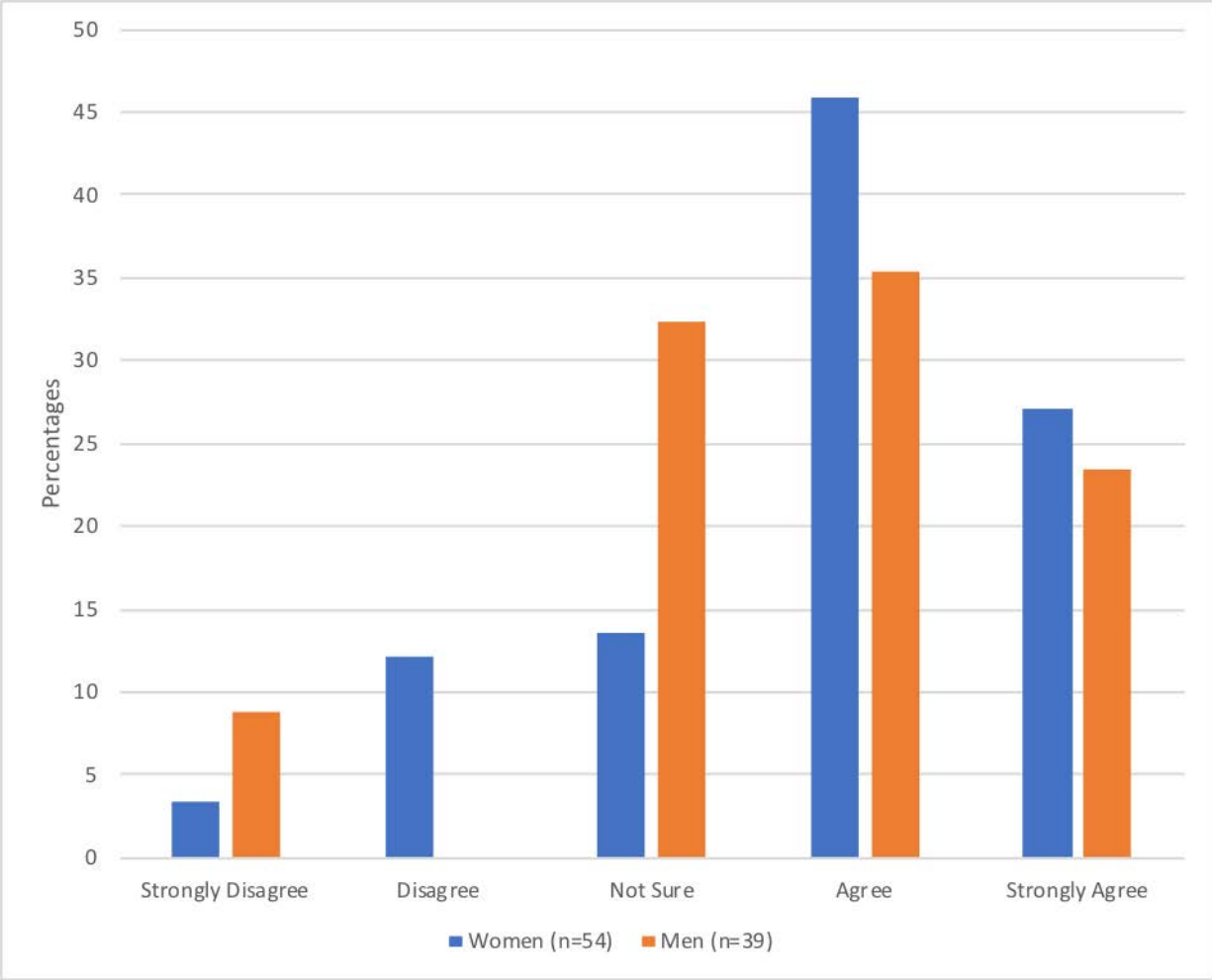


Figure 8. Belief statement: Unconscious discrimination occurs.

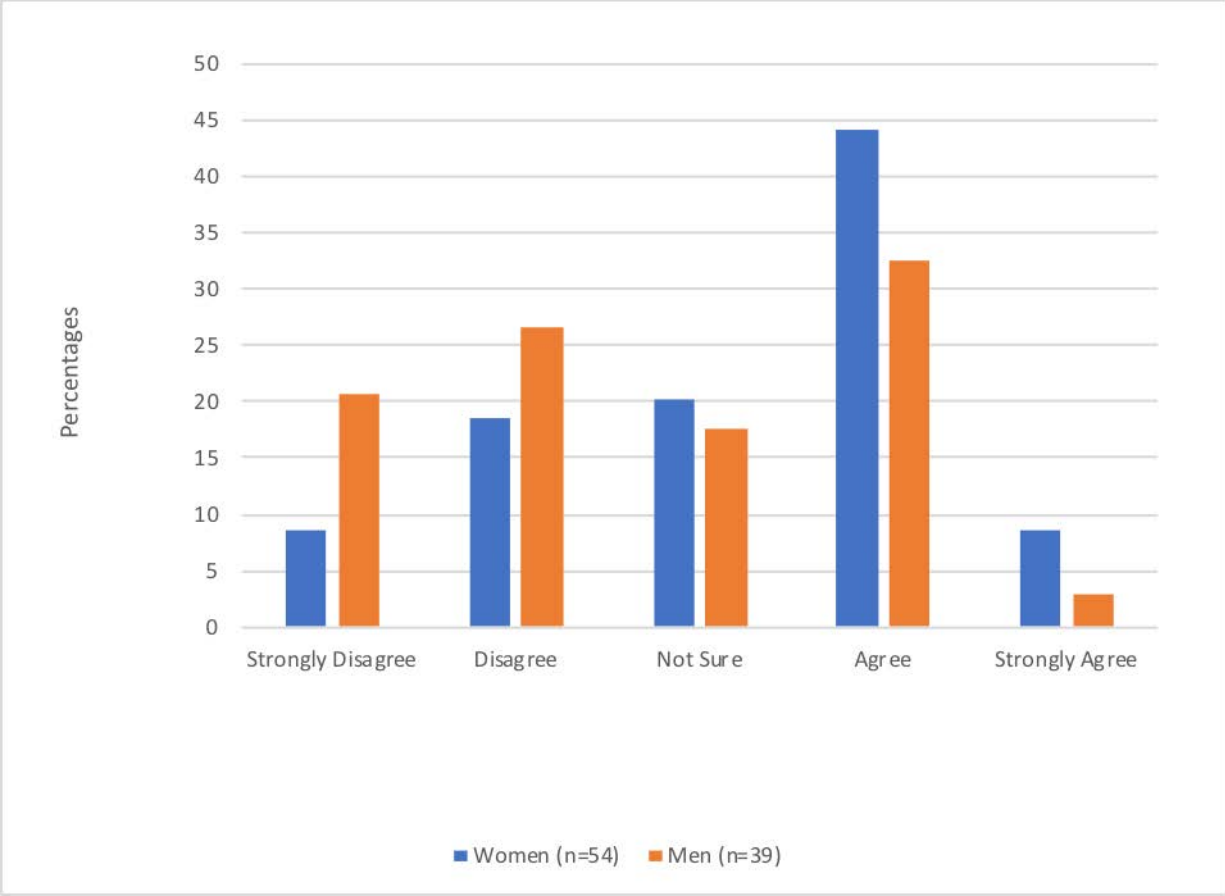


Figure 9. Belief statement: Gender roles prevents women from being leaders.

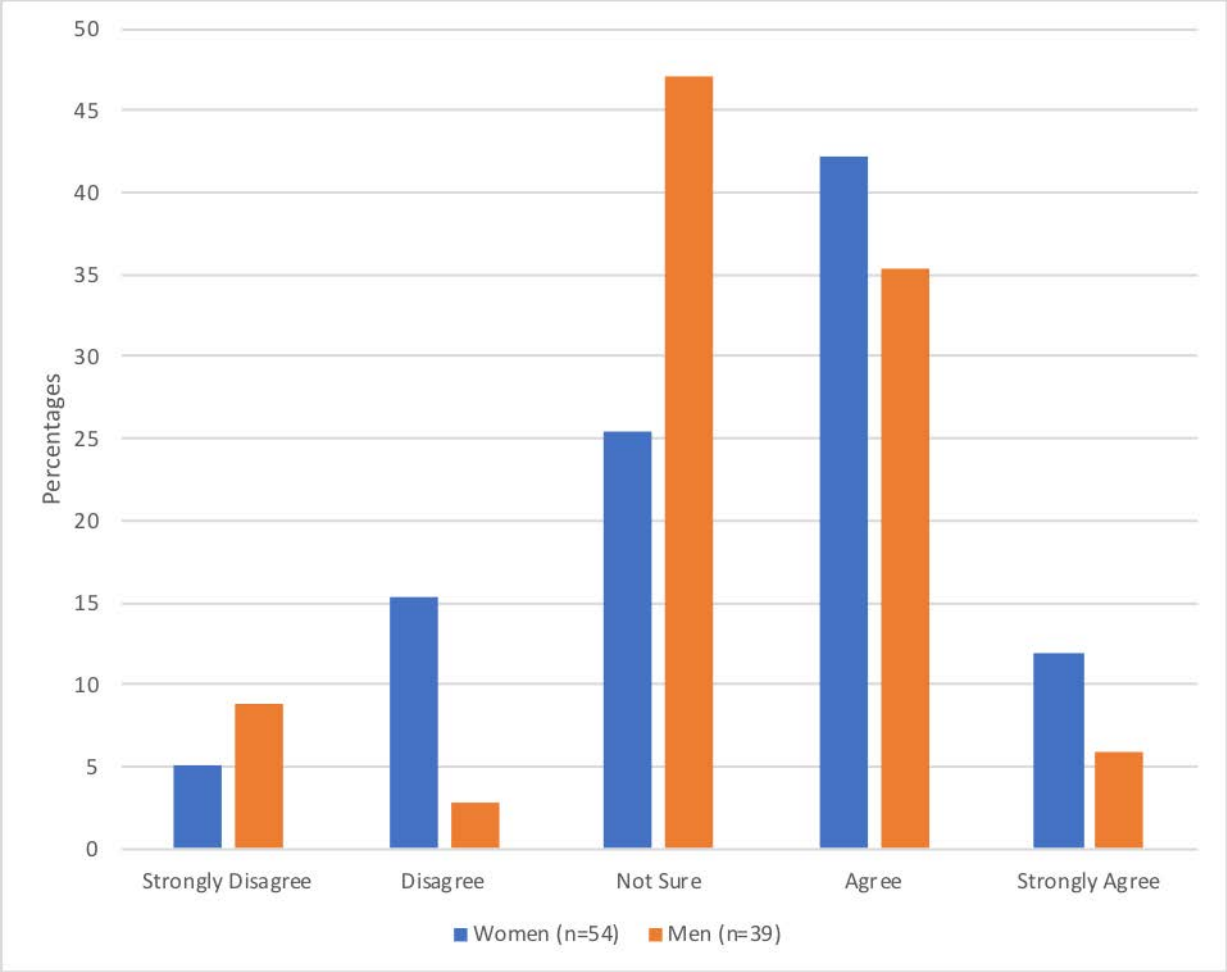
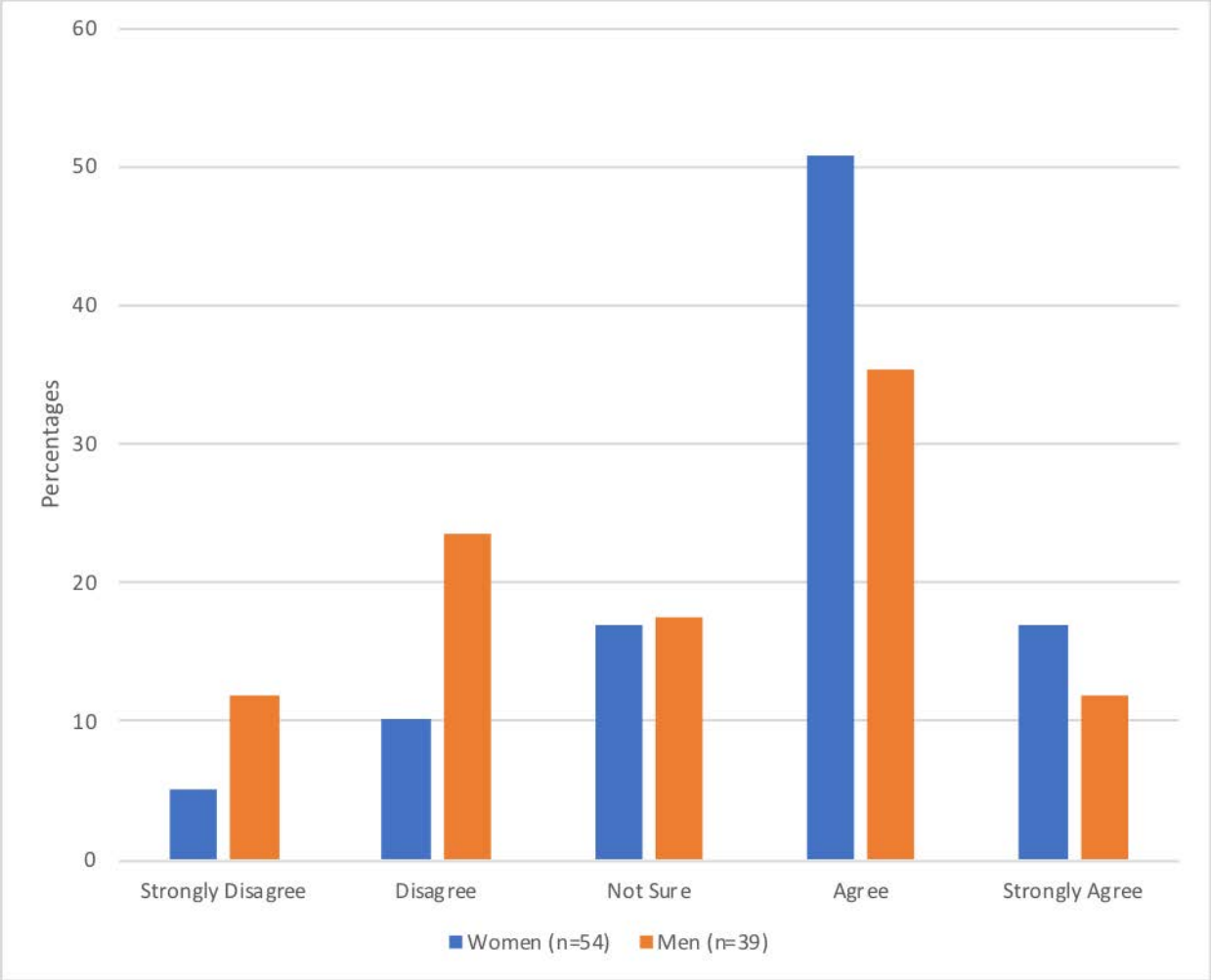
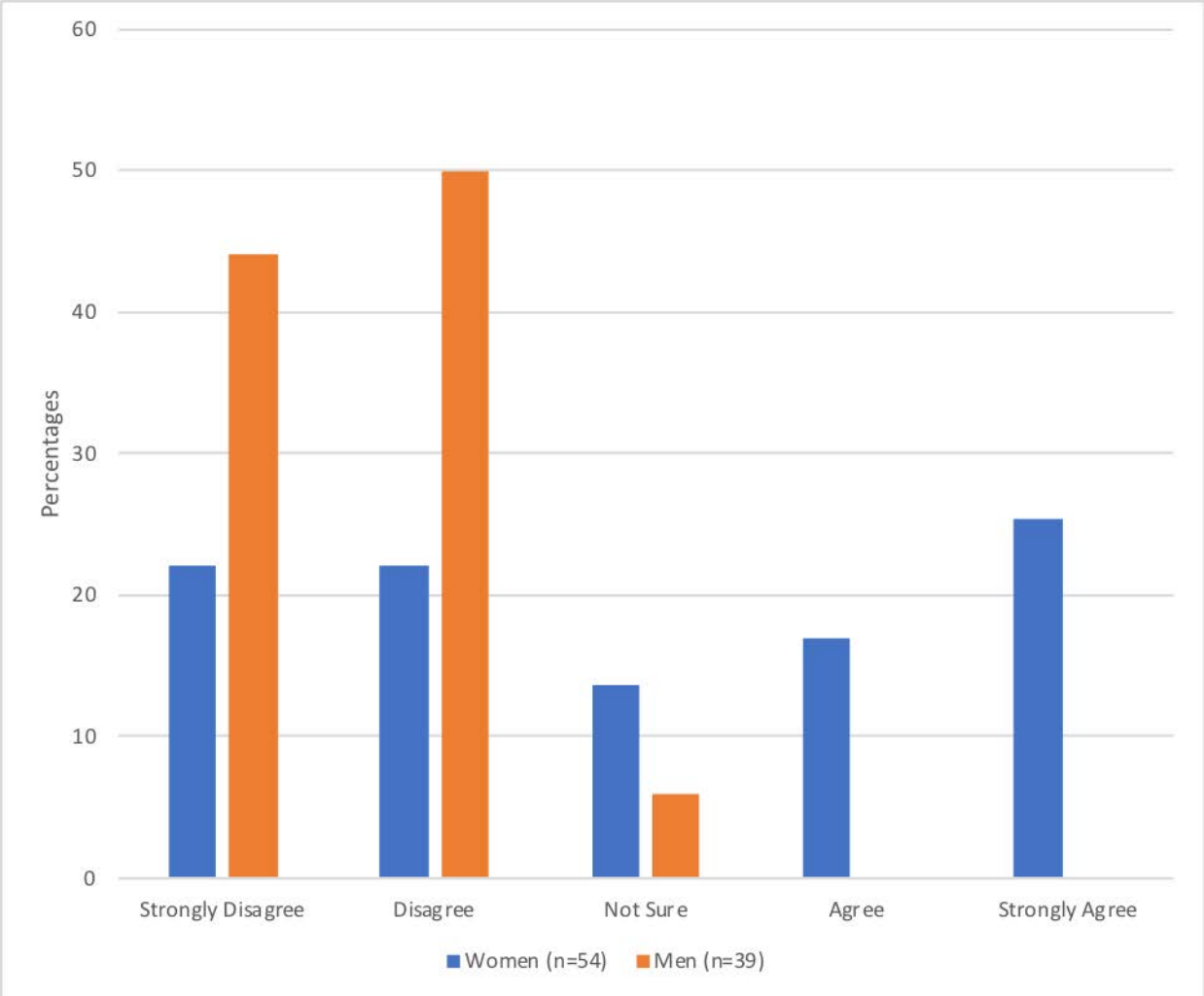


Figure 10. Belief statement: Sexual harassment is an issue.



*Figure 11.* Belief statement: Slow changes though oldboys are retiring.



*Figure 12.* Belief statement: Women do not desire to move into an administrative role.

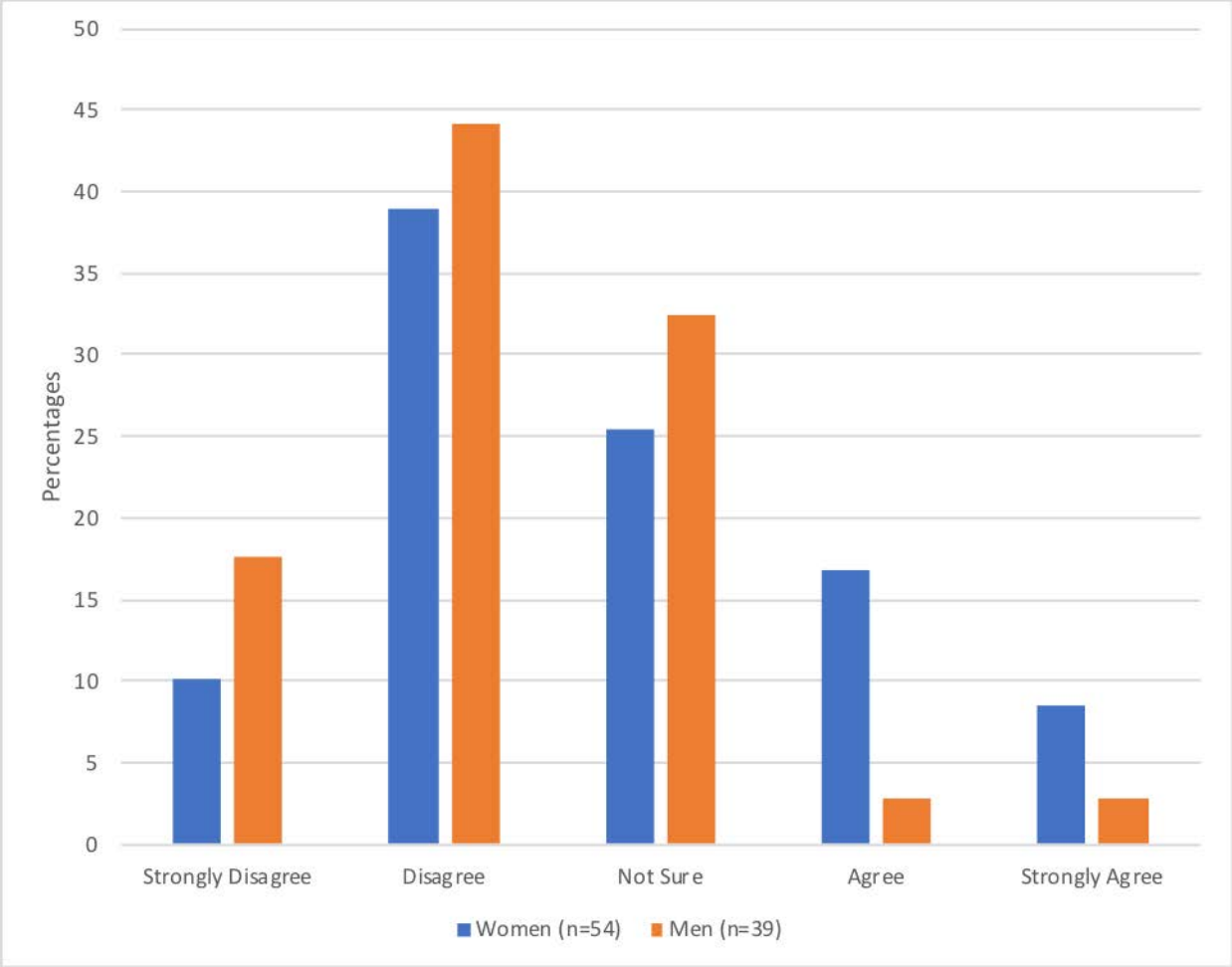


Figure 13. Belief statement: No formal networks.



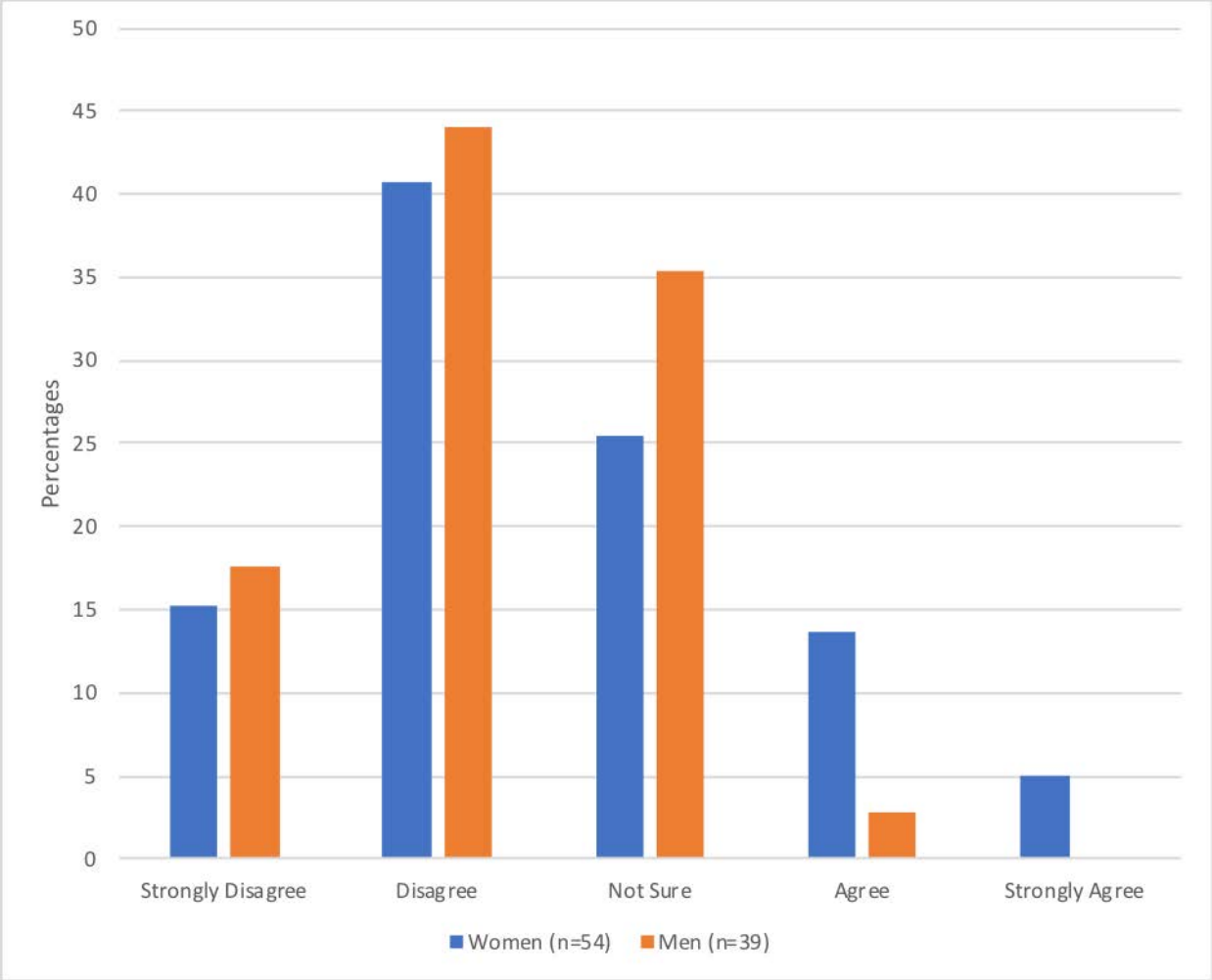
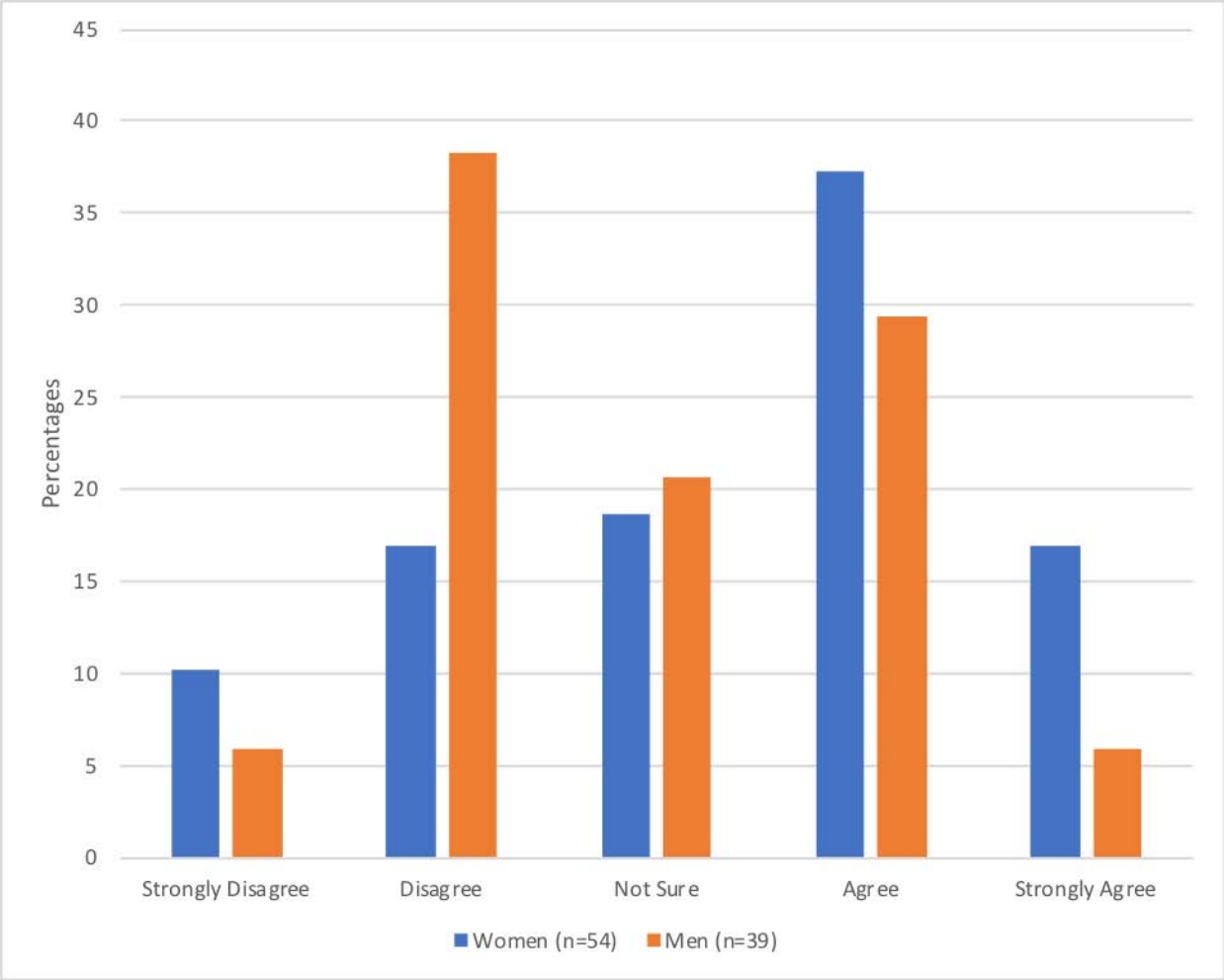


Figure 14. Belief statement: No informal network.



*Figure 15.* Belief statement: Equity issues not addressed.

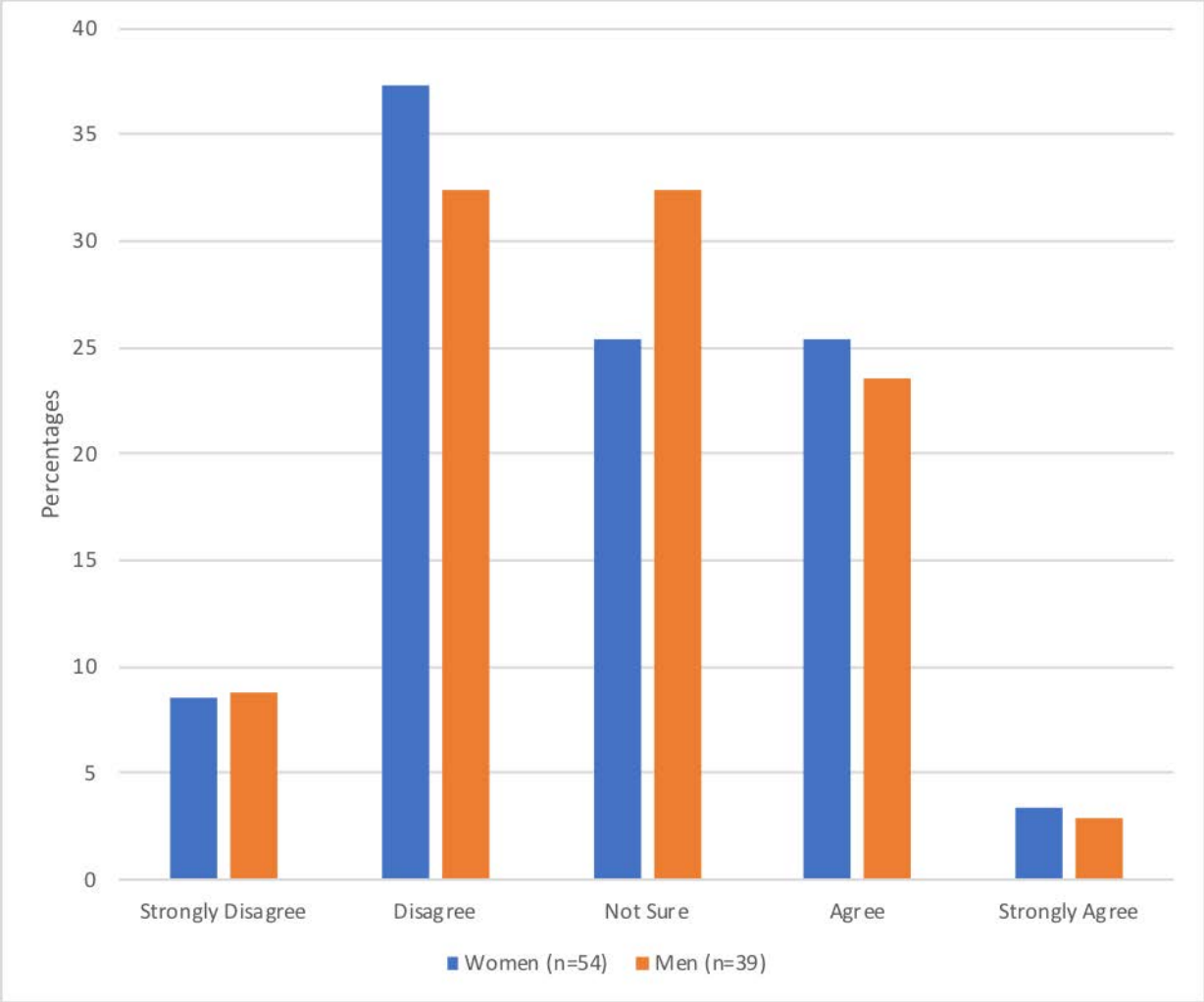
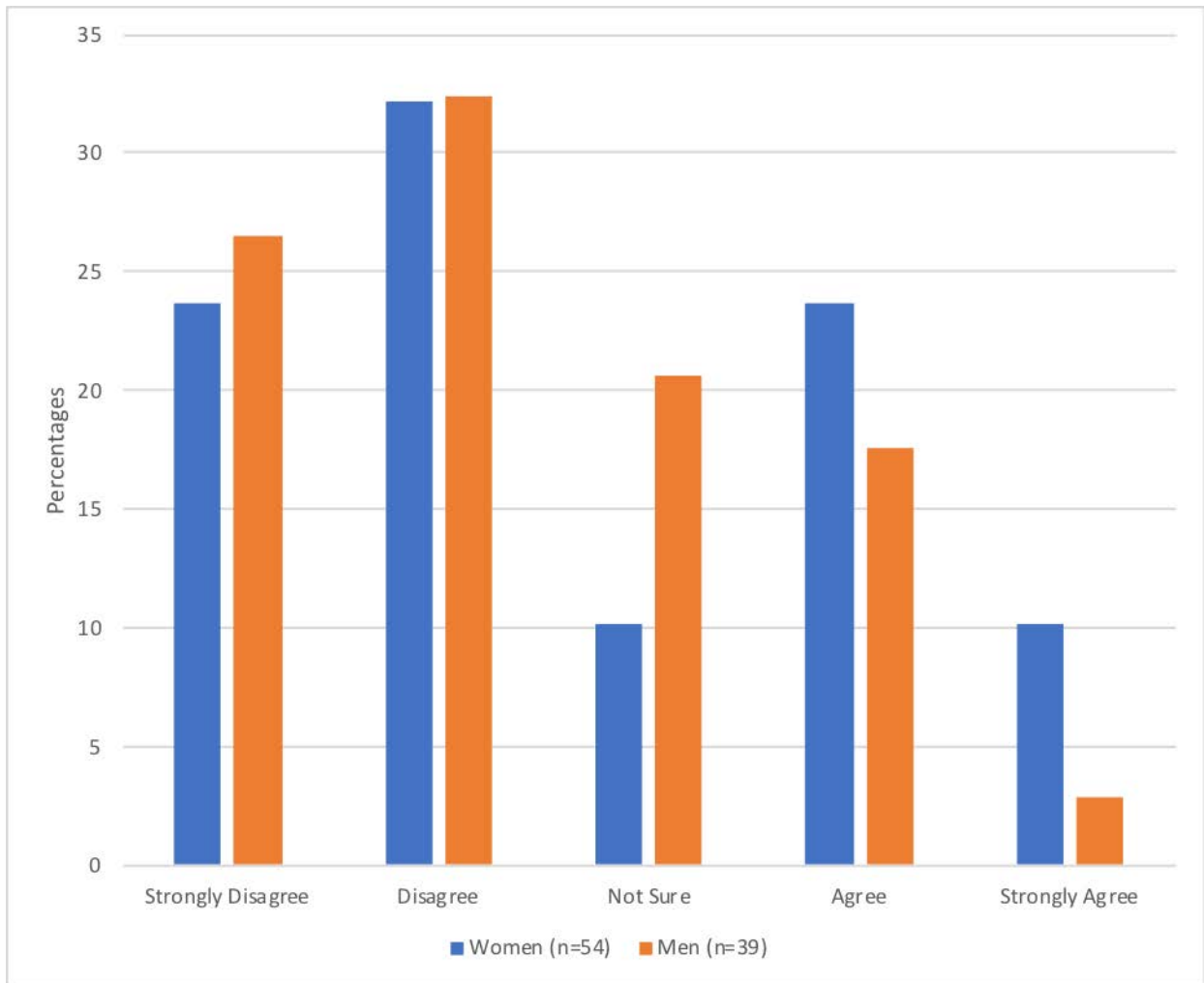
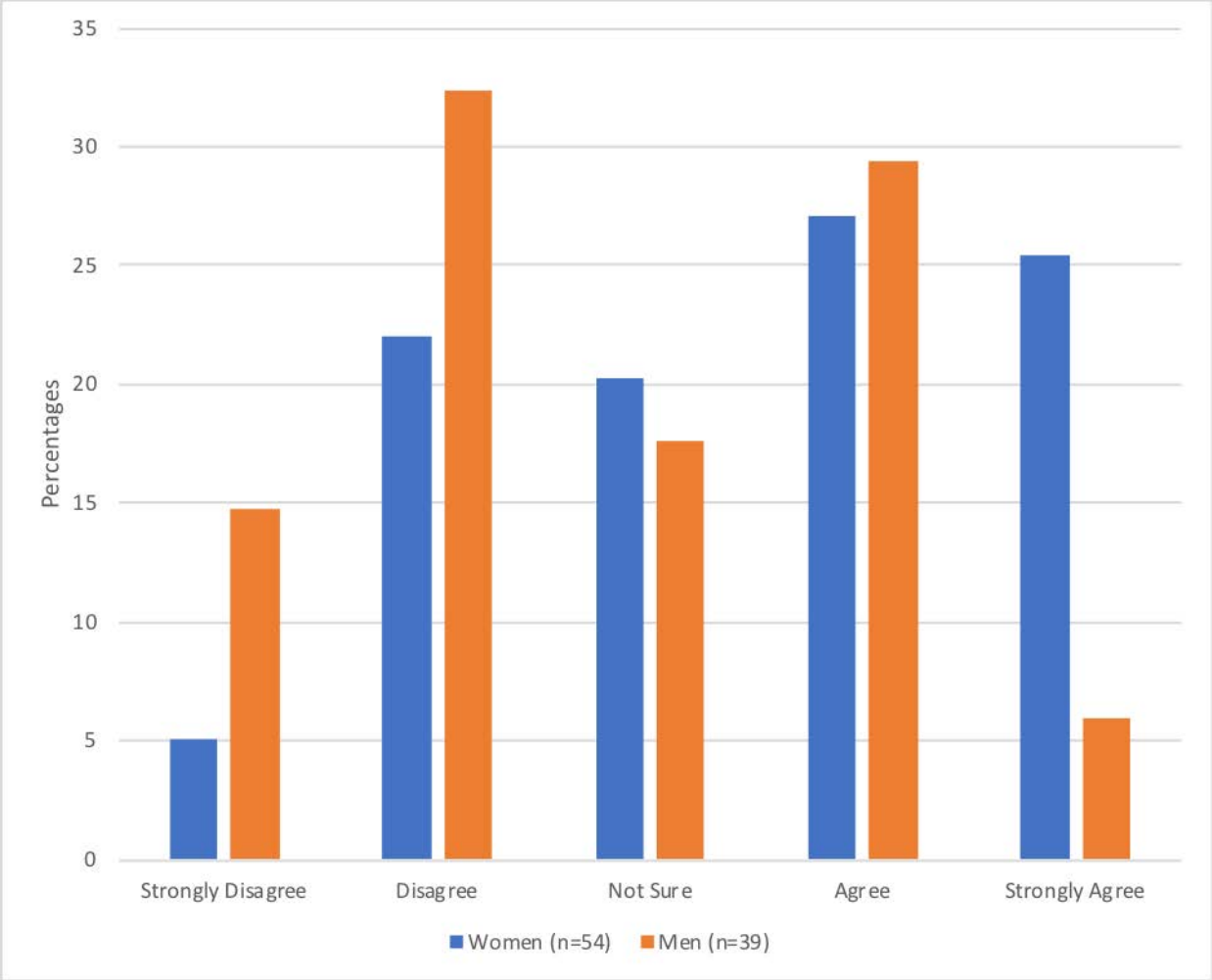


Figure 16. Belief statement: Experienced glass ceiling.



*Figure 17.* Belief statement: Women do not aspire to have an administrative role.

---



*Figure 18.* Belief statement: Policies not implemented at institution to help employees.

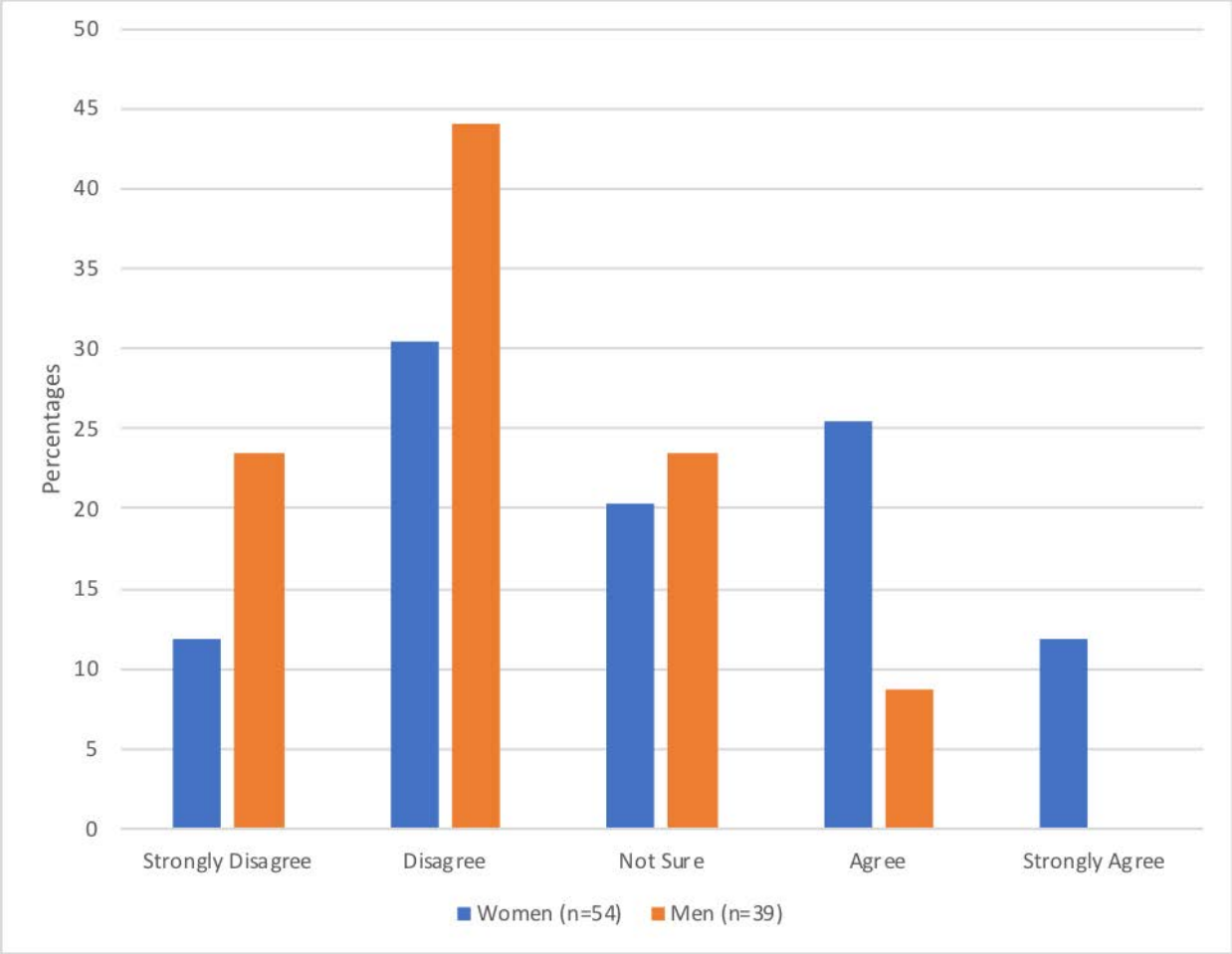
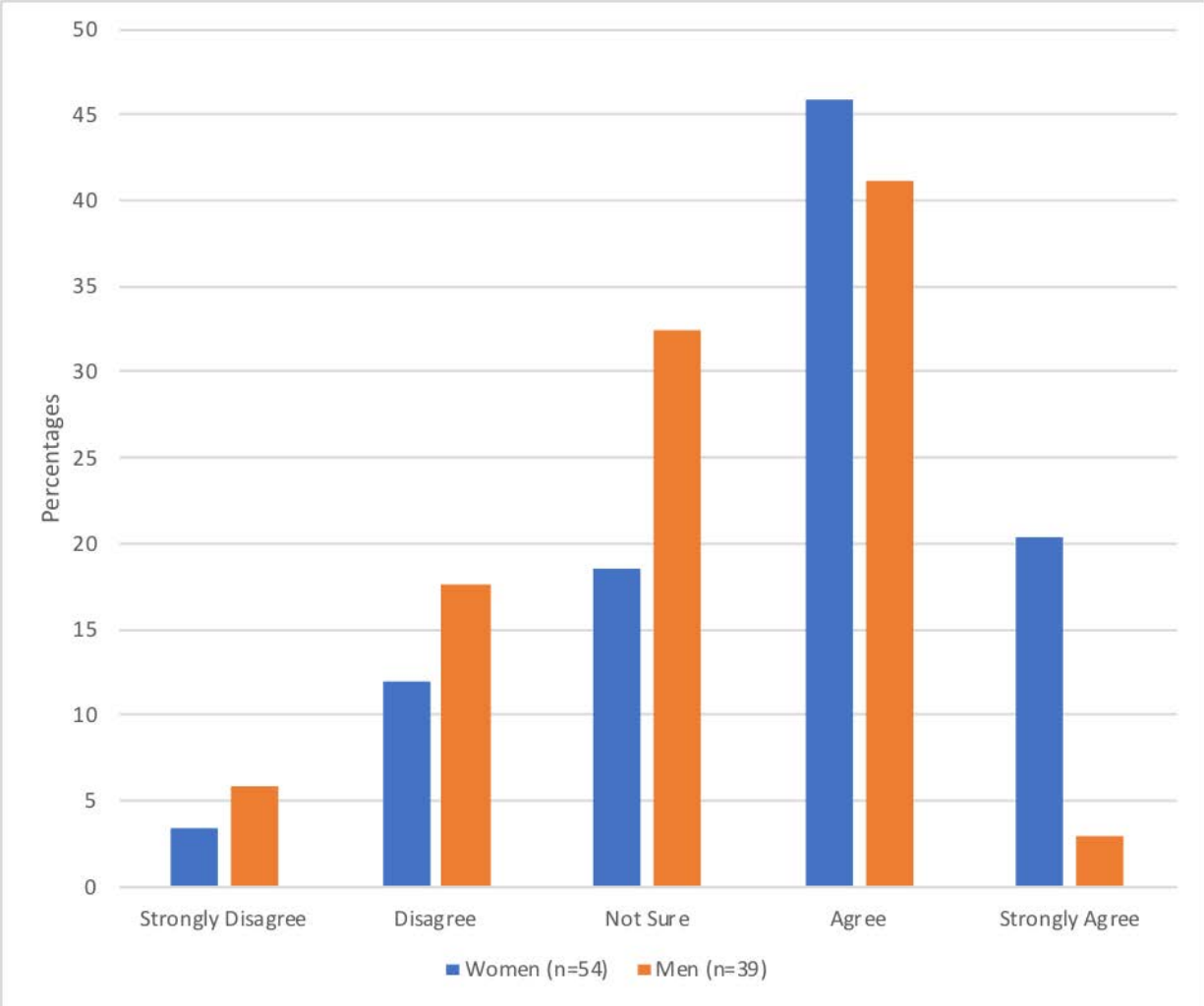


Figure 19. Belief statement: Men recruit men over women.



*Figure 20. Belief statement: Men do not get gender equity is still an issue.*

---

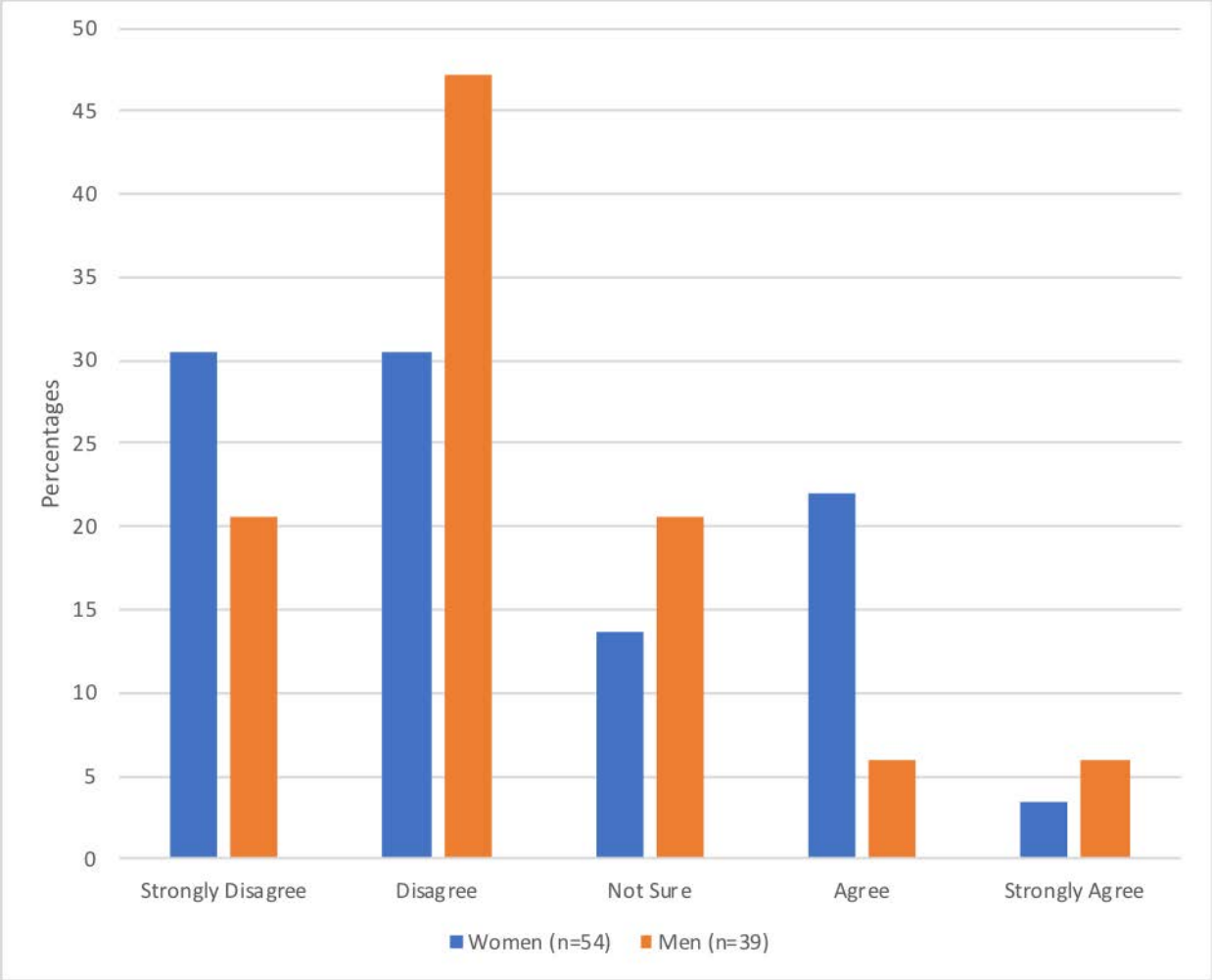


Figure 21. Belief statement: Women lack role models.



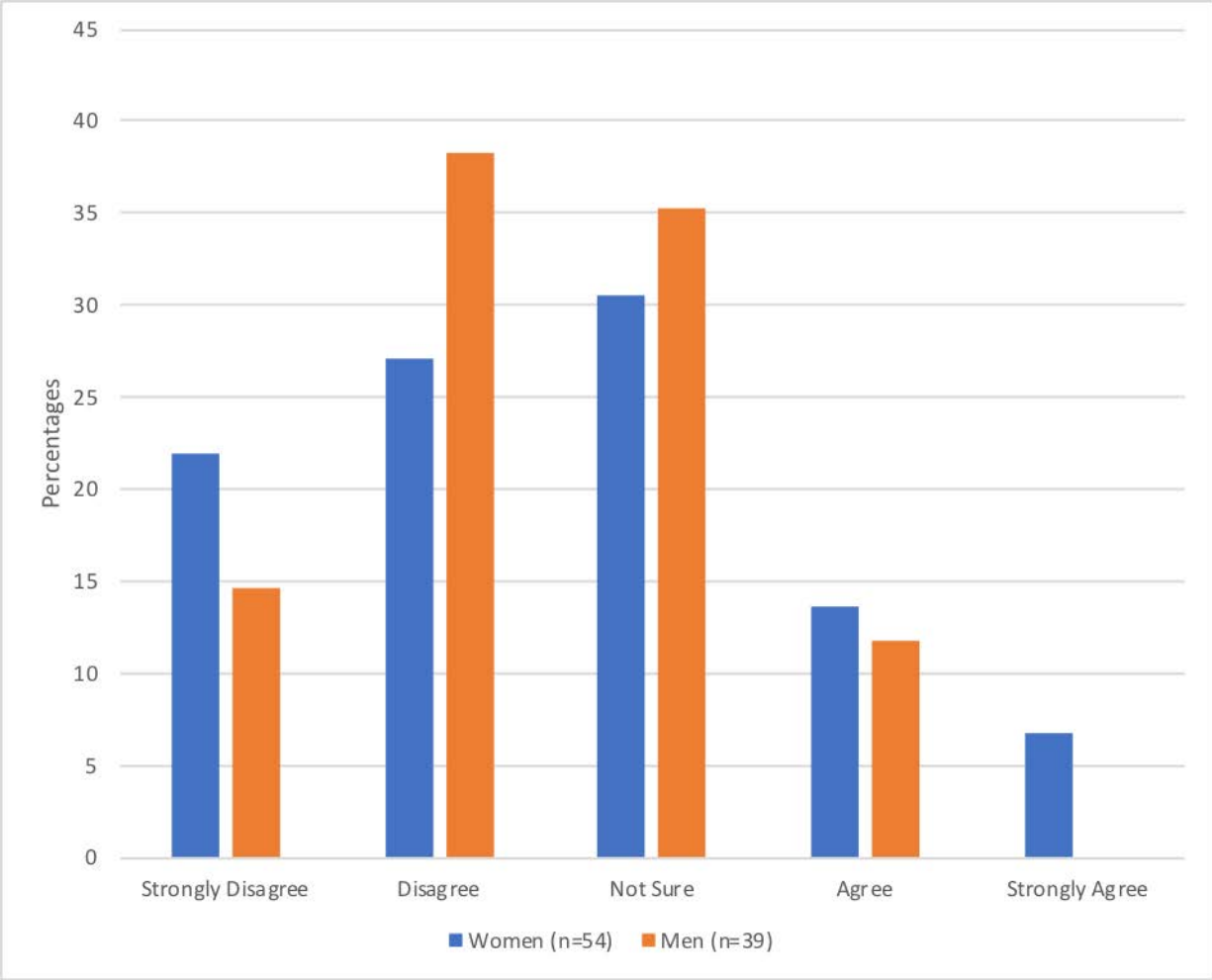


Figure 22. Belief statement: Women do not receive mentoring.

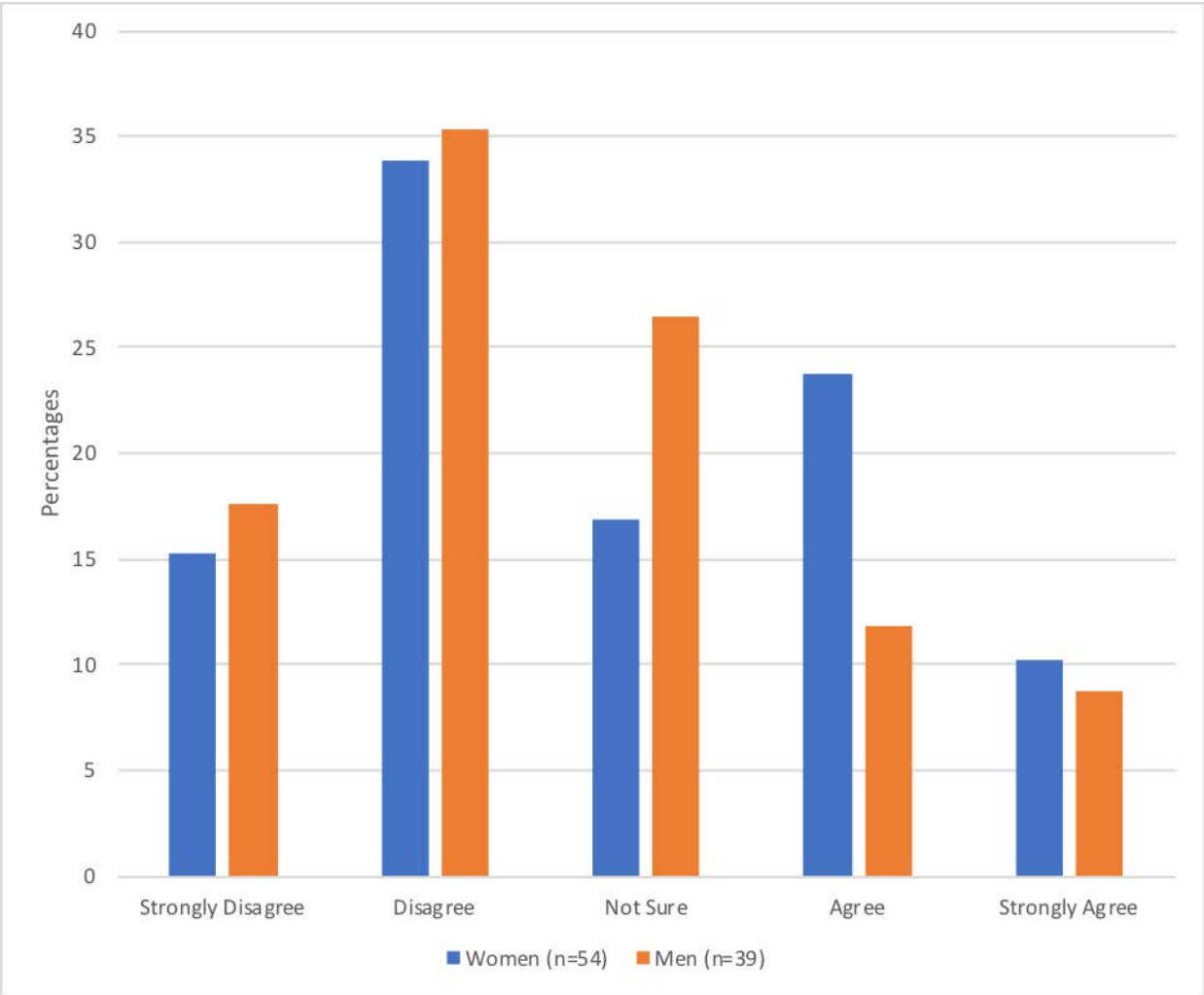


Figure 23. Belief statement: Women have less power.

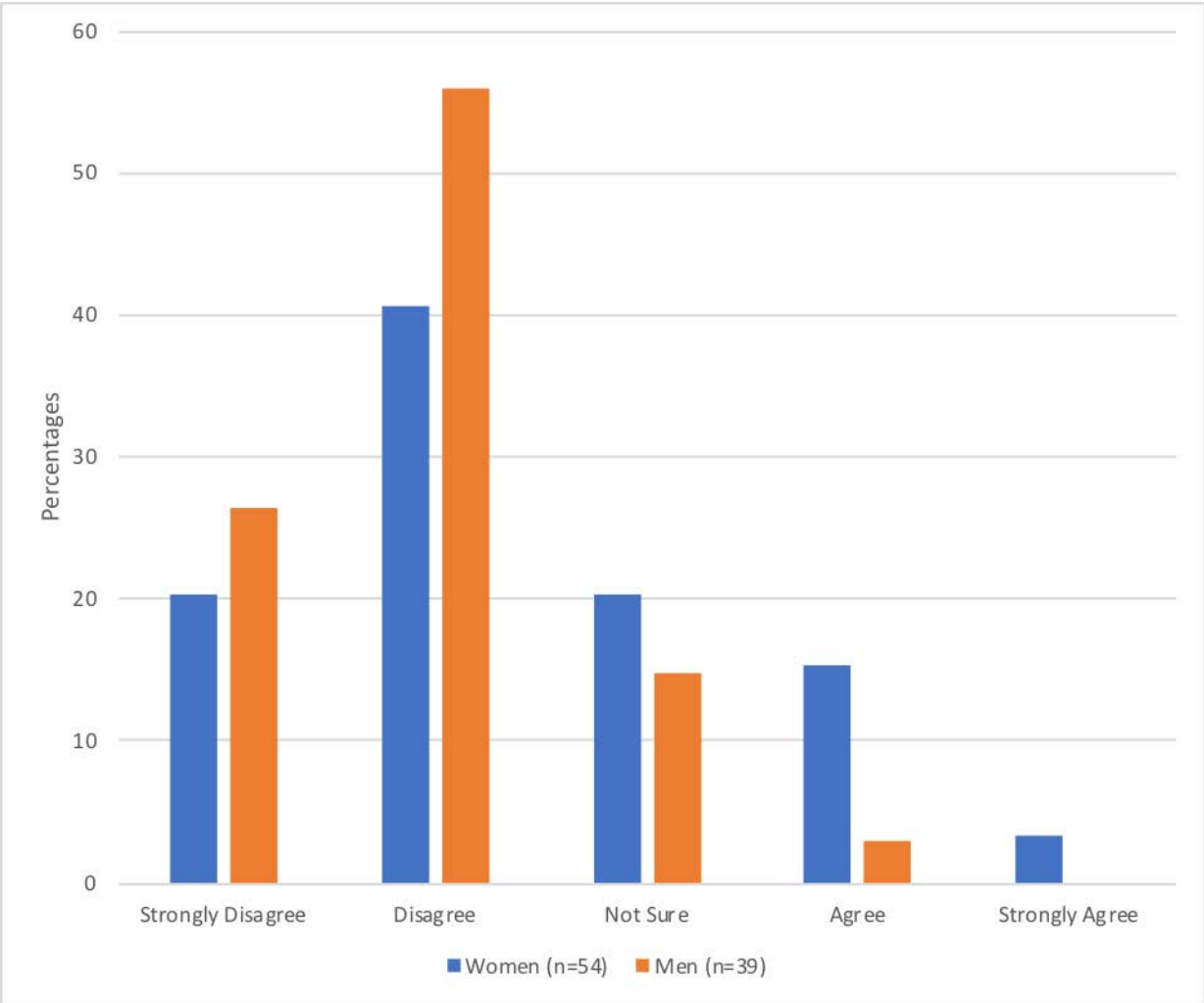


Figure 24. Belief statement: Women are unable to put in extra hours.

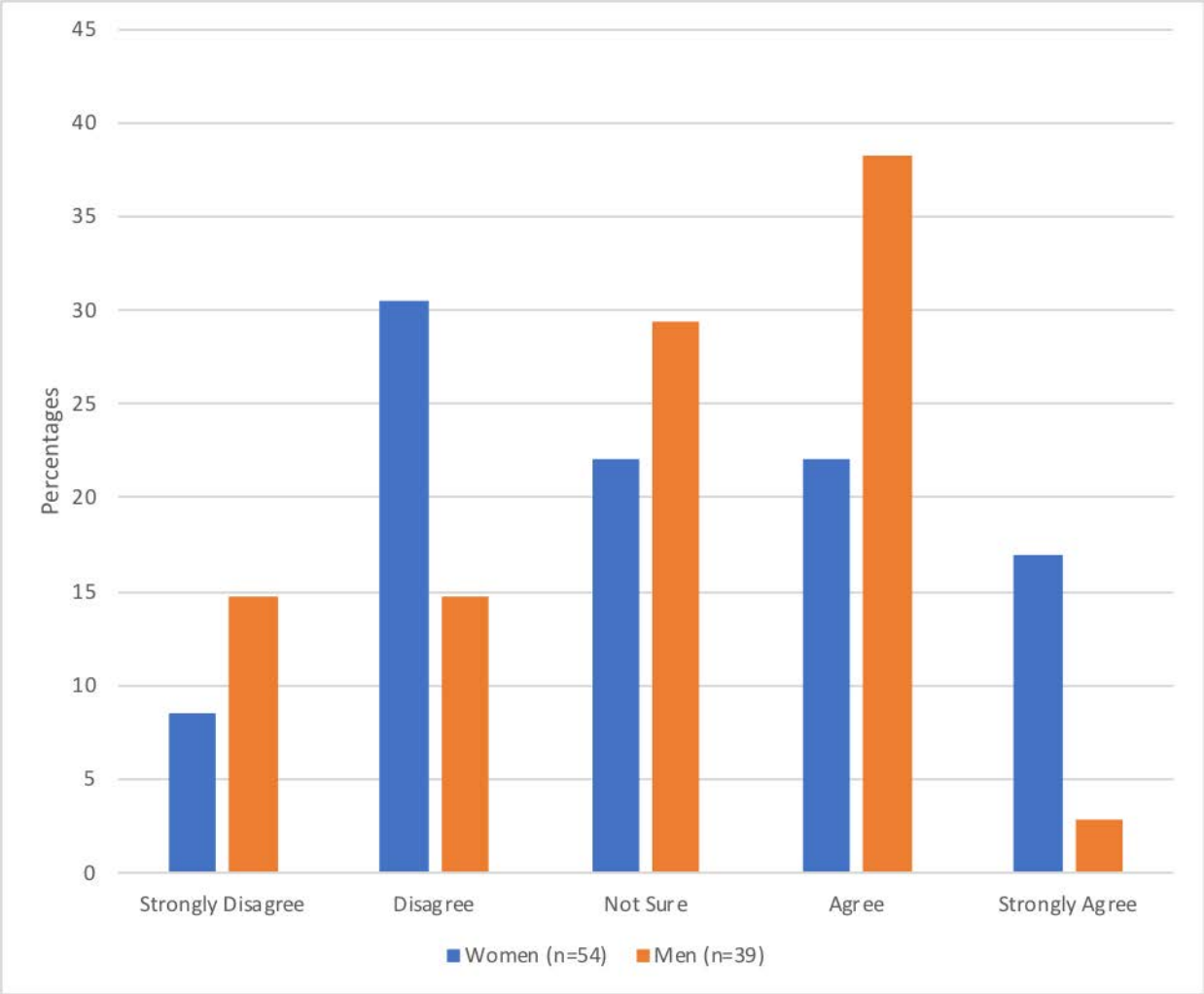
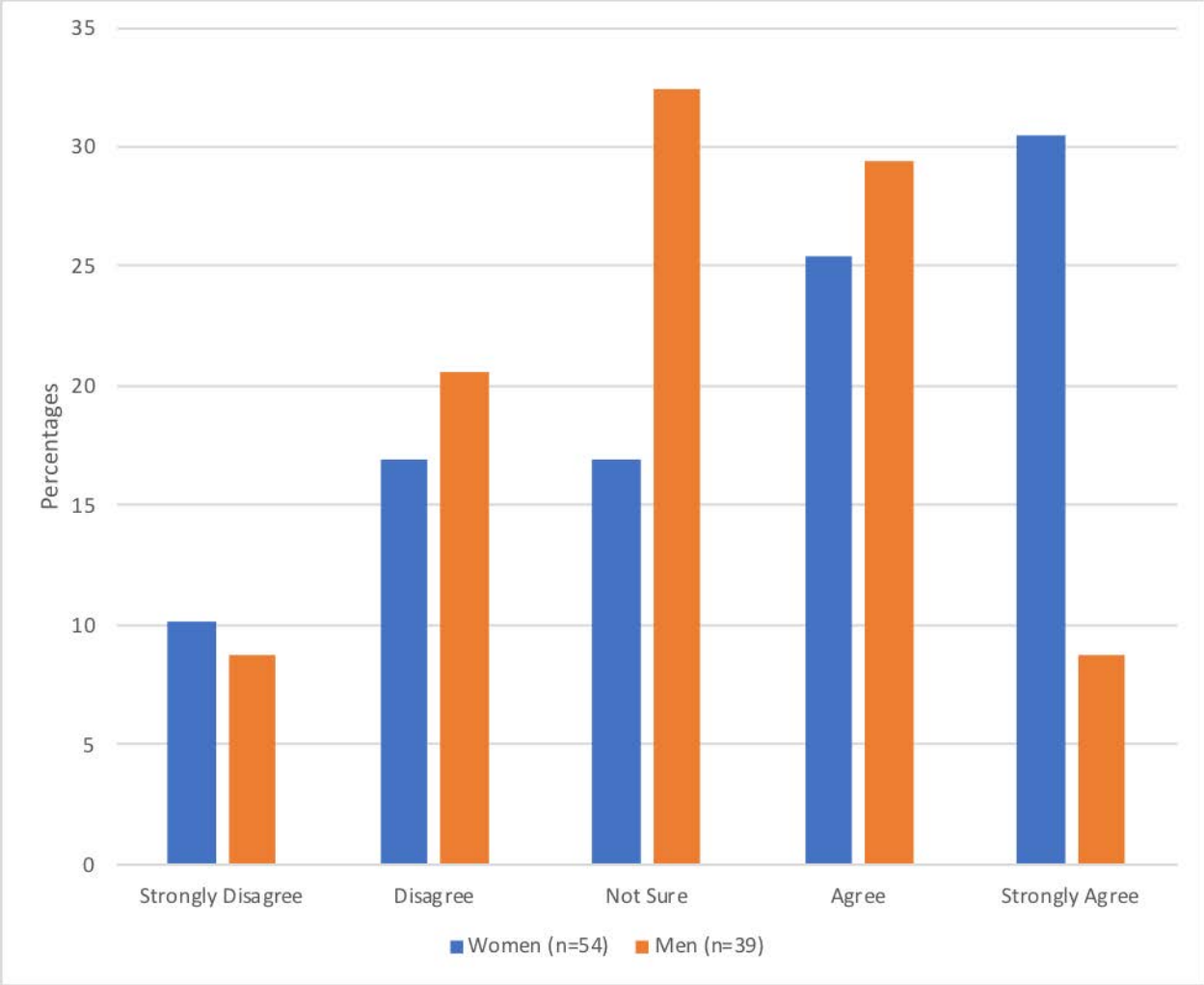


Figure 25. Belief statement: Women must work harder than men.



*Figure 26. Belief statement: Women are responsible for childcare.*

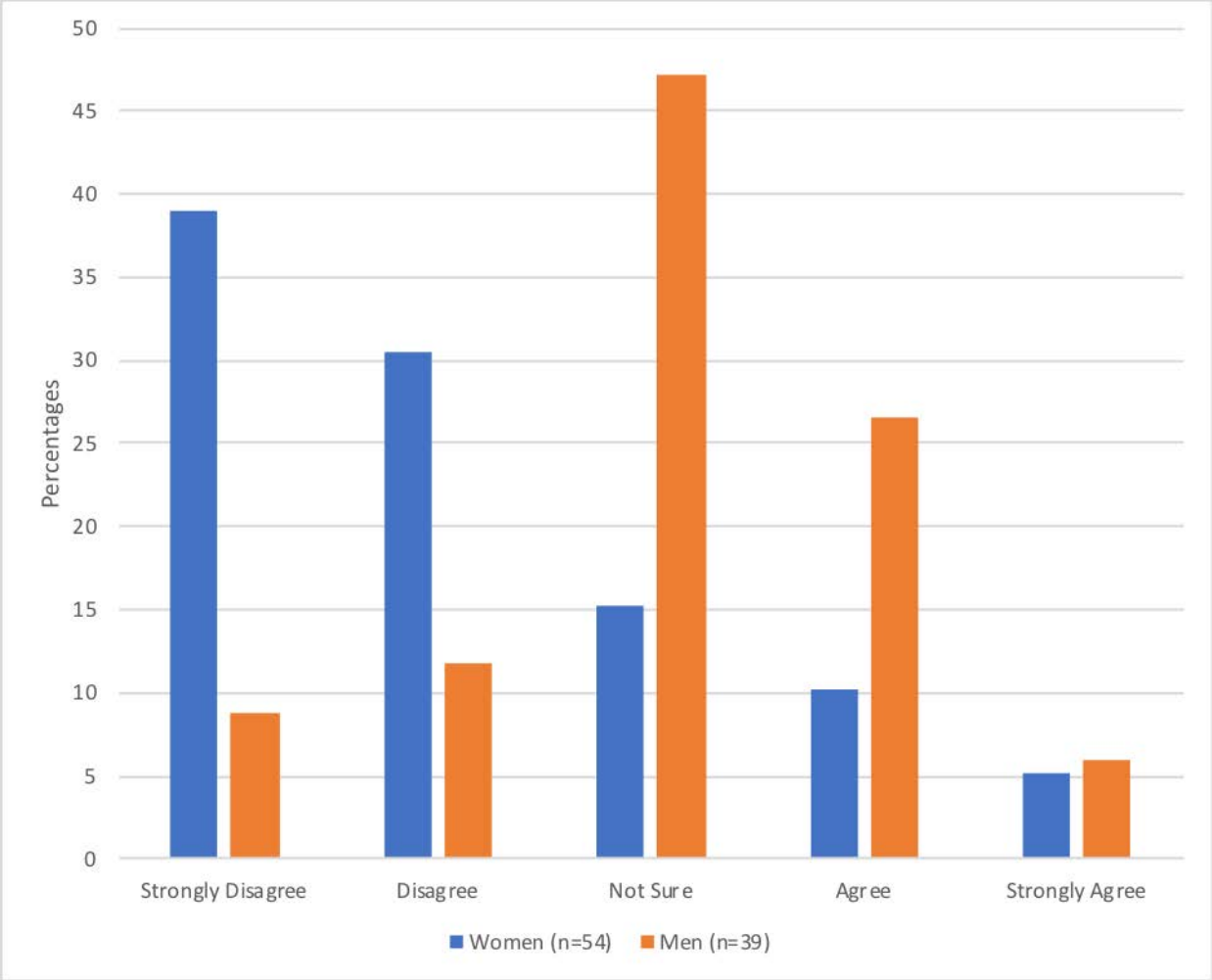


Figure 27. Belief statement: Women regularly care for a relative.

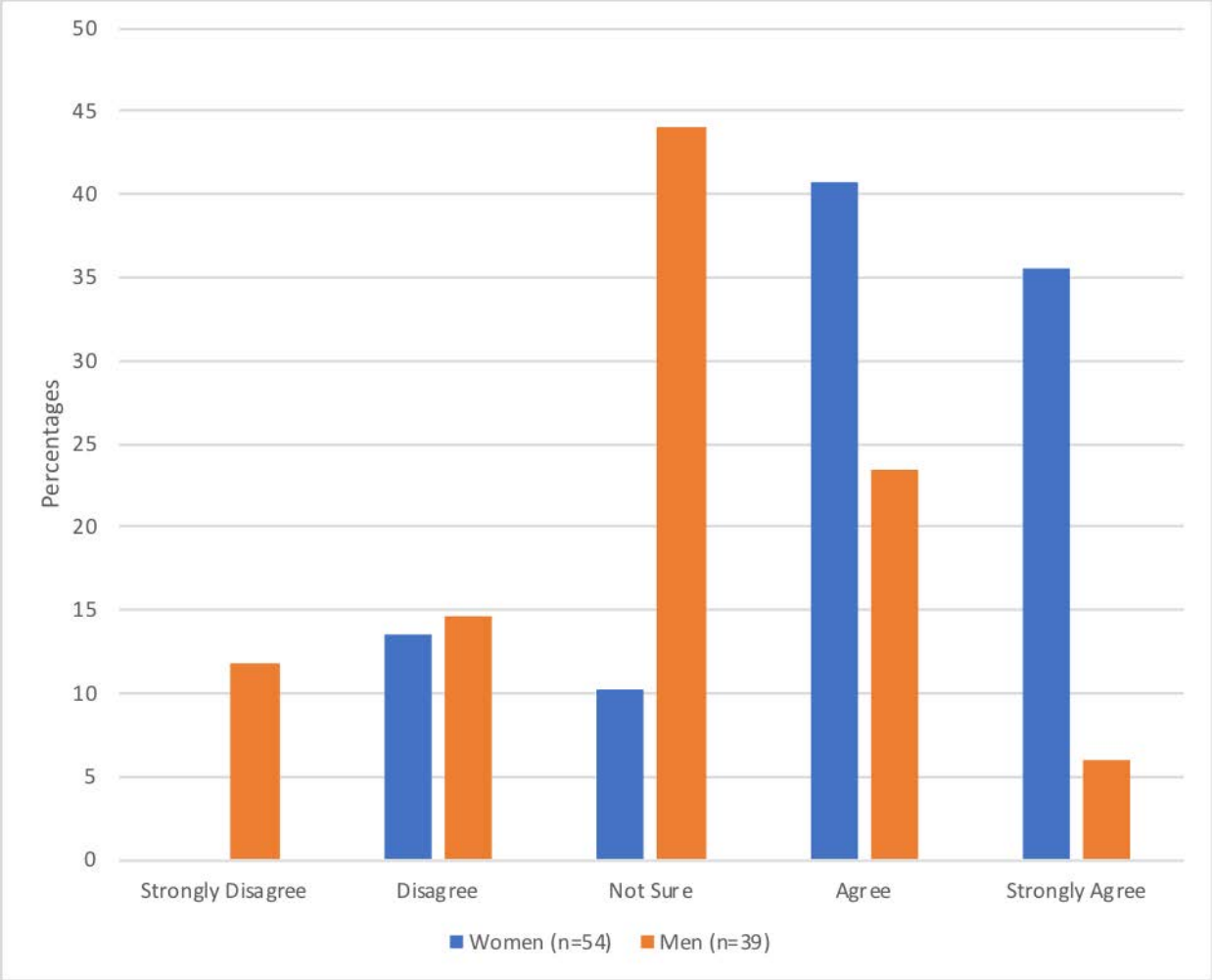


Figure 28. Belief statement: Women have the main responsibility of household chores.

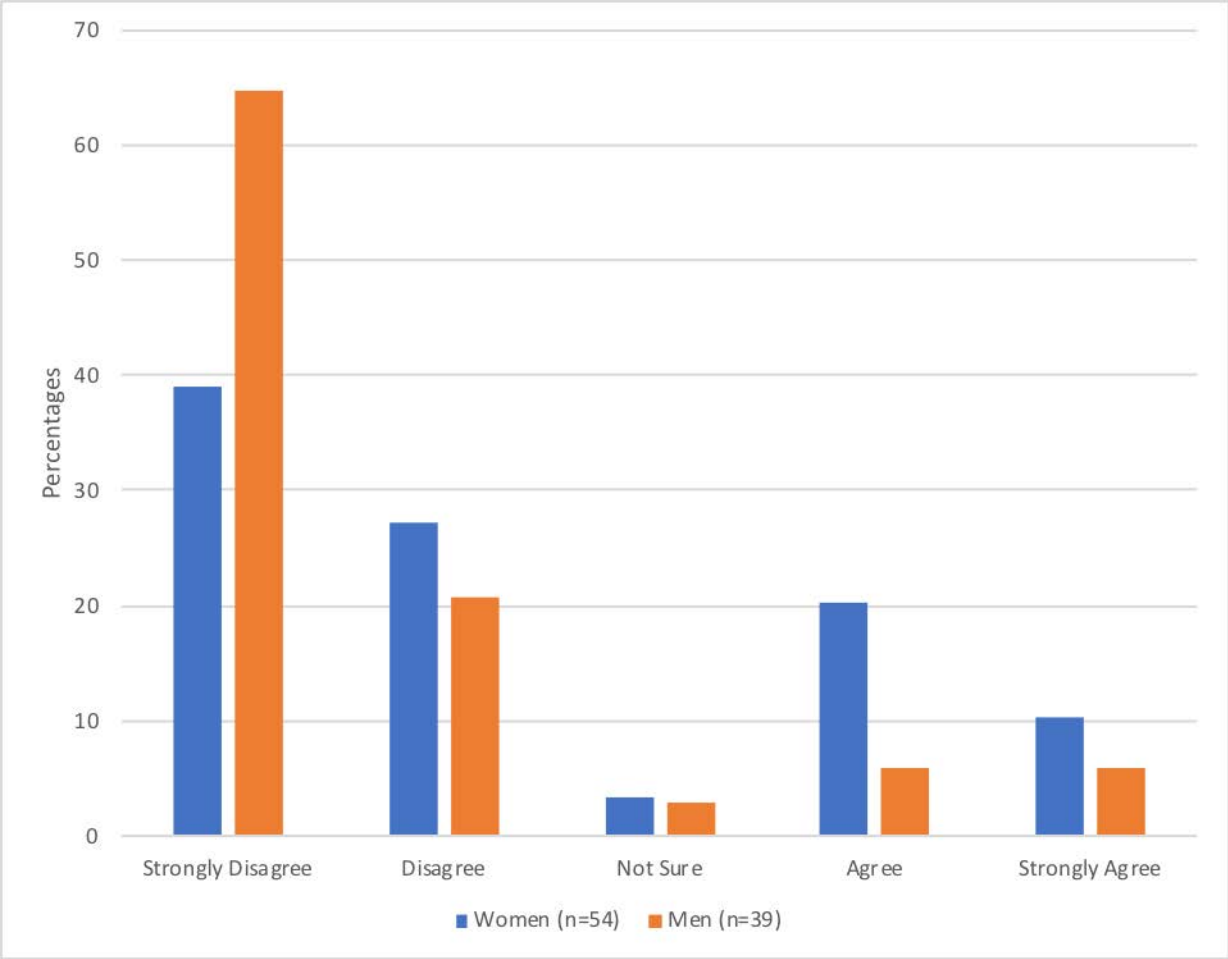
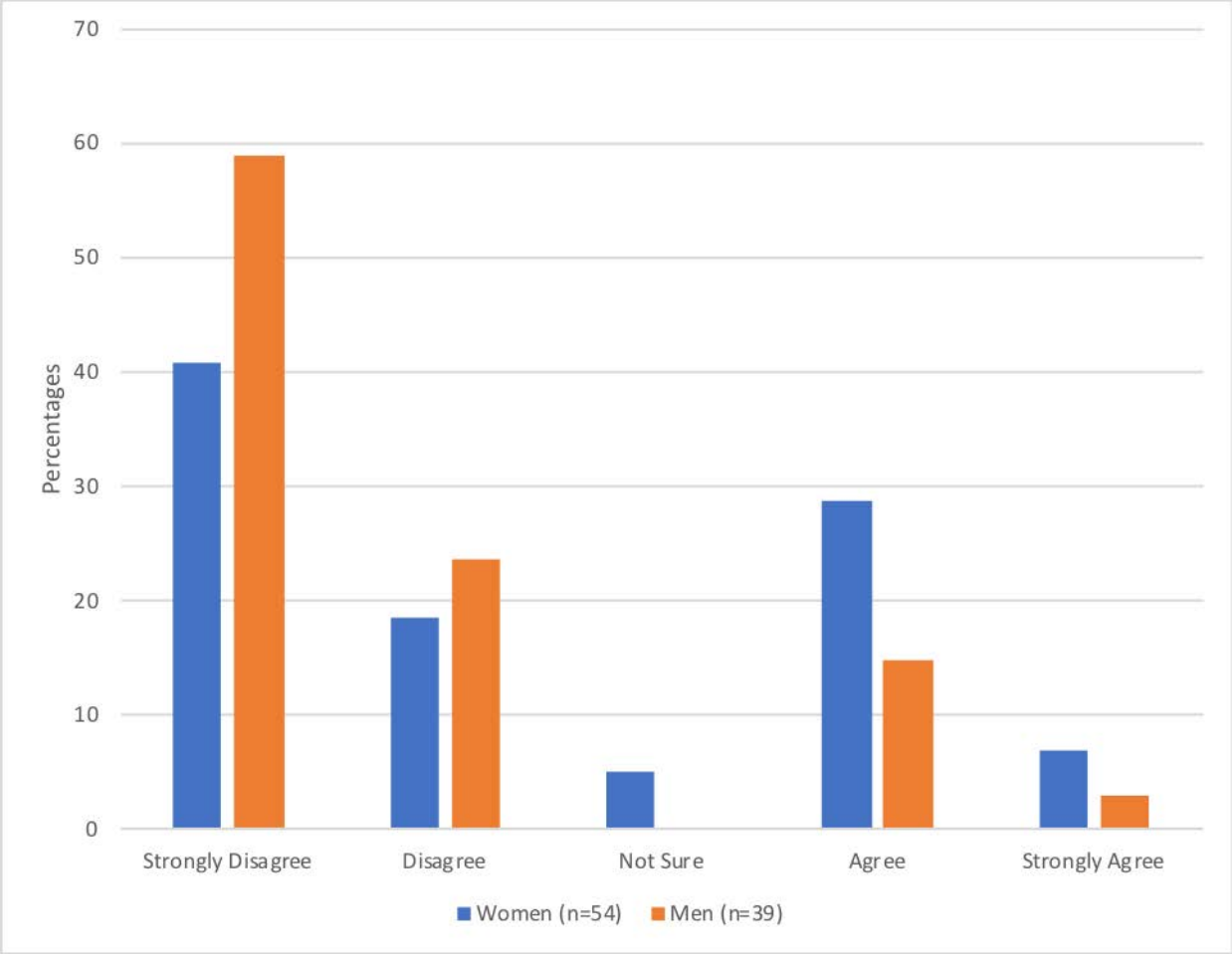


Figure 29. Belief statement: Have been sexually harassed at work.





*Figure 30.* Belief statement: Have witnessed women being sexually harassed.

Figure 8 illustrates the perceptions of men and women about whether or not women felt unconscious discrimination occurred within their institution. Upon analysis no significant differences were found. As indicated by the analysis of data, 58.8% of men either agreed or strongly agreed if women were excluded and 72.9% of women either agreed or strongly agreed there was unconscious discrimination within their institution.

Figure 9 illustrates the perceptions of men and women about whether or not women felt traditional gender roles prevented women from being viewed as leaders. Upon analysis a statistical significance was found between how men and women viewed this belief statements. As indicated by the data, 35.3% of men either agreed or strongly agreed this statement pertained to women and 52.6% of women either agreed or strongly agreed traditional gender roles prevented them from being viewed as a leader.

Figure 10 illustrates the perceptions of men and women about whether or not women felt sexual harassment continued to be an issue in higher education. Upon analysis no significant differences were found. As indicated by the analysis of data, 41.2% of men either agreed or strongly agreed that sexual harassment continues to be an issue and 54.1% of women either agreed or strongly agreed it is an issue.

Figure 11 illustrates the perceptions of men and women and if they felt if changes were slow to occur even though the “oldboys” were retiring. Upon analysis a statistical significance was found between how men and women viewed this belief statements. As indicated by the analysis, 47.1% of men either agreed or strongly agreed this statement pertained to women and 67.7% of women agreed or strongly agreed changes were slow to occur within their institution.

Figure 12 illustrates the perceptions of men and women and if they felt women do not desire to move into administrative roles. Upon analysis a statistical significance was found

between how men and women viewed this belief statements. As indicated by the analysis, no men either agreed or strongly agreed if this statement pertained to women and 42.3% of women either agreed or strongly agreed women do not desire to move into administrative roles.

Figure 13 illustrates the perceptions of men and women in whether or not women had adequate formal networks at their institution. Upon analysis a statistical significance was found between how men and women viewed this belief statements. As indicated by the analysis of data indicated 5.8% of men either agreed or strongly agreed if this statement pertained to women and 25.4% of women either agreed or strongly agreed women felt they do not have adequate formal networks.

Figure 14 illustrates the perceptions of men and women in whether or not they felt women had adequate informal networks at their institution. Upon analysis a statistical significance was found between how men and women viewed this belief statements. As indicated by the analysis of data, 2.9% of men either agreed or strongly agreed this statement pertained to women and 18.7% of women either agreed or strongly agreed women felt they did not have adequate informal networks.

Figure 15 illustrates the perceptions of men and women in how they felt if gender equity issues had not been adequately addressed at their institution. Upon analysis no significant differences were found. As indicated by the analysis of data indicated 35.3% of men either agreed or strongly agreed if this statement pertained to women and 54.2% of women either agreed or strongly agreed equity issues had not been adequately addressed.

Figure 16 illustrates the perceptions of men and women in how they felt in whether or not women had experienced a glass ceiling in higher education. Upon analysis no significant differences were found. As indicated by the analysis of data, 26.4% of men either agreed or

strongly agreed if this statement pertained to women and 28.8% of women either agreed or strongly agreed if women had experienced a glass ceiling.

Figure 17 illustrates the perceptions of men and women in if women do not desire to have an administrative role. Upon analysis no significant differences were found. As indicated by the analysis of data, 20.5% of men either agreed or strongly agreed if this statement pertained to women and 33.9% of women either agreed or strongly agreed if women did not want to have an administrative role.

Figure 18 illustrates the perceptions of men and women in if their institutions had not implemented policies that help employees, especially women. Upon analysis a statistical significance was found between how men and women viewed this belief statements. As indicated by the analysis of data, 35.3% of men either agreed or strongly agreed if this statement pertained to women and 52.5% of women either agreed or strongly agreed their institution had not implemented policies that would help women.

Figure 19 illustrates the perceptions of men and women in whether or not men prefer to work with other men and recruit men over women. Upon analysis a statistical significance was found between how men and women viewed this belief statements. As indicated by the analysis of data, 8.8% of men either agreed or strongly agreed if this statement pertained to women and 36.3% of women either agreed or strongly agreed men chose to work with and recruit men over women.

Figure 20 illustrates the perceptions of men and women if men do not “get” gender equity remained an issue to be addressed. Upon analysis a statistical significance was found between how men and women viewed this belief statements. As indicated by the analysis of data, 44.1% of men either agreed or strongly agreed if this statement pertained to women and 6.1% of

women either agreed or strongly agreed that men do not “get” gender equity remained an issue to be addressed.

Figure 21 illustrates the perceptions of men and women in whether or not women lack good role models in higher education. Upon analysis no significant differences were found. As indicated by the analysis of data, 11.8% of men either agreed or strongly agreed if this statement pertained to women and 25.4% of women either agreed or strongly agreed women lack good role models.

Figure 22 illustrates the perceptions of men and women if women did not receive the same mentoring as men in higher education. Upon analysis no significant differences were found. As indicated by the analysis of data, 11.8% of men either agreed or strongly agreed this statement pertained to women and 20.4% of women either agreed or strongly agreed women did not receive the same mentoring as men.

Figure 23 illustrates the perceptions of men and women in if women had less influence and power at their institution. Upon analysis no significant differences were found. As indicated by the analysis of data, 20.9% of men either agreed or strongly agreed this statement pertained to women and 33.9% of women either agreed or strongly agreed women have less influence and power.

Figure 24 illustrates the perceptions of men and women if women were unable to put in extra hours required to get promoted or to move into administration. Upon analysis a statistical significance was found between how men and women viewed this belief statements. As indicated by the analysis of data, 2.9% of men either agreed or strongly agreed this statement pertained to women and 18.7% of women either agreed or strongly agreed women were unable to put in the extra hours.

Figure 25 illustrates the perceptions of men and women in if women had to work harder than male colleagues to advance or get promoted. Upon analysis no significant differences were found. As indicated by the analysis of data, 41.1% of men either agreed or strongly agreed this statement pertained to women and 38.9% of women also either agreed or strongly agreed women had to work harder than men.

Figure 26 illustrates the perceptions of men and women if women were responsible for childcare. Upon analysis a statistical significance was found between how men and women viewed this belief statements. As indicated by he analysis of data, 38.2% of men either agreed or strongly agreed this statement pertained to women and 55.9% of women either agreed or strongly agreed women was responsible for childcare.

Figure 27 illustrates the perceptions of men and women if women were responsible for regular care for an older or disabled adult. Upon analysis a statistical significance was found between how men and women viewed this belief statements. As indicated by the analysis of data, 32.4% of men either agreed or strongly agreed if this statement pertained to women and 15.2% of women either agreed or strongly agreed women were responsible for caring for a relative.

Figure 28 illustrates the perceptions of men and women if women were mainly responsible for seeing household chores get completed. Upon analysis a statistical significance was found between how men and women viewed this belief statements. As indicated by the analysis of data, 29.4% of men either agreed or strongly agreed this statement pertained to women and 76.3% of women either agreed or strongly agreed women were responsible for making sure household chores were completed.

Figure 29 illustrates the perceptions of men and women if they were sexually harassed at work. While this statement was statistically significant, each gender was speaking about their

own experiences. As indicated by the analysis of data, 11.8% of men either agreed or strongly agreed this statement pertained to themselves and 30.5% of women either agreed or strongly agreed they had been sexually harassed at work.

Figure 30 illustrates the perceptions of men and women if they had witnessed a woman being sexually harassed at work. Upon analysis a statistical significance was found between how men and women viewed this belief statements. As indicated by the analysis of data, 17.6% of men either agreed or strongly agreed this statement pertained to their experiences and 35.6% of women either strongly agreed or agreed they had witnessed a woman being sexually harassed.

In summary, a descriptive analysis of mean responses was used to analyze 25 belief statements that hinder career development for women faculty in the PRTM field. When the descriptive analysis was run, a total number of surveys of 93 (Women n=59, Men n=34) were used for this research question. This analysis found there are 24 out of 25 belief statements that women either agreed or strongly agreed with more than men.

## **Research Question #2**

*In what ways do men and women faculty view these specific belief statements that hinder career development for women?*

H<sub>10</sub>: There is no significant difference between men and women faculty in how they view belief statements that hinder career development for women.

H<sub>1a</sub>: There is a significant difference between men and women faculty in how they view belief statements that hinder career development for women.

Fourteen out of 25 belief statements were found to be statistically significant, see Table 6. Out of the fourteen belief statements, five were organizational belief statements: Oldboys, FormalNet, InformalNet, Policies and MenRecruit; five were individual belief statements:

MoveAdmin, UnableHrs, ChildCare, RelativeCare and Chores; and four were societal belief statements: Roles, Mendonotget, SexHarass and WitnessSH. One out of the 14 statistically significant belief statements, RelativeCare, found that men (32.4%) either agreed or strongly agree more than women (15.2%). The other 11 belief statements had women either agree or strongly agree more than men and were not statistically significant.

### **Validity and Reliability of the Data**

This quantitative study was based on the instrument, A Conceptual Model of a Woman's Career Development Applied to Higher Education, which was developed and validated ( $\alpha = .86$ ) by Henderson et al. (2011). The original Henderson et al.'s (2011) survey contained eighteen belief statements and seven separate questions. The researcher modified the seven questions to read as belief statements, totaling twenty-five belief statements. A reliability test was run on all 25 belief statements, providing a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .88. Two out of the three constraint categories, organizational and societal, had high levels of internal reliability, which was determined by Cronbach's alpha. The organizational category indicated a coefficient of .86 and the societal category indicated a coefficient of .81. The coefficient for the individual category, which is considered moderately strong, indicated a coefficient of .61. This study investigated three out of the five constraint indicators that were originally in Henderson et al. (2011). The questions related to the two indicators, *current position* and *career patterns* were omitted because they were not relevant to the research questions in this study. Therefore, the original survey had 60 questions and this study had 28 questions.

An alpha level of .05 determined statistical significance. The demographic characteristics of the study sample were analyzed by mean, standard deviation, and range for continuous scaled variables, and frequency and percent for scaled variables. To test the internal consistency and



reliability of the independent and dependent variables within the study, Cronbach's alpha was used (Pallant, 2016). The questions on the survey measured how much an individual agrees with each of the 25 belief statements that were developed by Henderson et al. (2011).

An independent t-test compared the belief statements by gender. Table 6 shows there was a significant difference in 14 out of the 25 belief statements; thus, the null hypothesis was rejected. Levene's test for homogeneity of variances was used to test the variances of means. When looking to find if equal variances are assumed, the *t*-value will be less than .05. If it is larger than .05, the Sig. (2-tailed) value is used to show whether or not equal variances are not assumed. The *t*-value is used to show there is a significant difference between the two groups if the value is less than .05, (Pallant, 2016).

In summary, there were 14 out of 25 belief statements found to be statistically significant, which included five organizational belief statements, five individual belief statements and four societal belief statements. There was only one out of the 14 statistically significant belief statements, RelativeCare, where men (32.4%) either agreed or strongly agree more than women (15.2%). The other 11 belief statements were not statistically significant.

### **Research Question #3**

*In what ways do men and women faculty view the constraint categories differently?*

H<sub>20</sub>: There is no significant difference in how men and women faculty view constraint categories.

H<sub>2a</sub>: There is a significant difference in how men and women faculty view constraint categories.

## **Assumptions**

Prior to running the statistical tests to address the research question, an examination of the statistical assumptions was conducted. It was important to look at the strength of the intercorrelations among the belief statements. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) recommended when looking at a correlation matrix, the coefficients must be larger than .3. Bartlett's test of sphericity and the Kaiser-Meyer-Okin (KMO) were the two statistical measures used to measure the adequacy of the sample. Bartlett's test should have a significance of  $p < .05$  and the KMO should have a minimum value of .6 in order for a reliable factor analysis to occur (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), which was conducted for research question #3. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) recommend having at least 300 cases to perform a factor analysis. While this study is well below with a sample size of  $n=93$ , Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) also stated a smaller sample size, less than 150, may be acceptable if there are "several high loading marker variables (above .80)" (p. 613).

## **Dimension Reduction by Factor Analysis**

A principle component analysis with Varimax rotation was run on the 25 belief statements. This was done without any limitations and resulted a correlations matrix, communalities, Eigenvalues, scree plot and factor loadings. There are two main concerns in determining if a data set is suitable for factor analysis: the size of the sample and the strength of relationship between the belief statement variables (Pallant, 2016). Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) recommend the larger a sample size the better, but if there is a sample less than 150, the loading marker variables should be above .8. Variables that do not significantly load onto a factor are cut, resulting in data reduction. Mundfrom, Shaw and Ke (2005) stated a sample size of 75-100 was acceptable for three factors. This study had a sample size of 93.

The initial analysis revealed seven factors. The KMO value was .80, and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity revealed a significance of  $p=.001$ . The eigenvalues explained a total of 69.3% of the variance. The changes in the screeplot, specifically at the "bend in the elbow" (Pallant, 2016, p. 192) revealed there was a difference between the first and second components. The component matrix and the varimax rotated component matrix of the seven components were also reviewed. Pallant (2016) reported "the interpretation and the use you put it to is up to your judgement rather than any hard and fast statistical rules" (p. 192). Therefore, the belief statement, RelativeCare, was deleted since it loaded poorly, see Table 7.

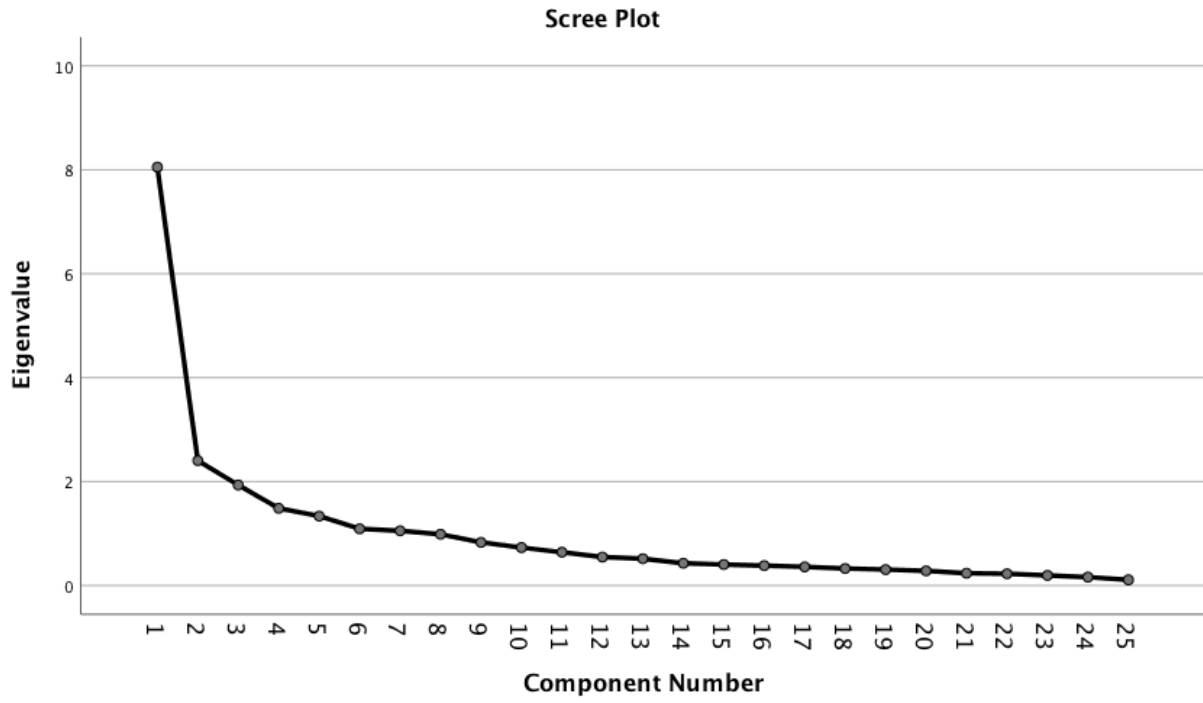
With the removal of RelativeCare, the remaining 24 of the 25 original belief statements were forced into 3, 4, 5 and 6 factors by using factor analysis. In reviewing the total variance explained, eigenvalues (see Table 7); scree plot (see Figure 31), and the rotated component matrix (see Table 7), it was decided to keep the analysis to three factors. The ultimate goal was for each variable to have a loading of at least .8. Mundfrom et al. (2005) stated if there is a seven-to-one ratio of variables to factors, a smaller sample size is acceptable. This was displayed in two out of the three factors, see Table 7. Velicer and Fava (1998) stated it is crucial to have a minimum of three variables per factor; if not, that factor is commonly seen as weak and unstable (Costello & Osborne, 2005). The third factor included four variables, see Table 7.

The KMO value was .80, and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity showed a significance of  $p=.01$ , see Table 8. In looking at the initial eigenvalues, the three factors explained a total of 49.5% of the variance, Table 7. If a factor has four or more variables with loadings above .60, "The pattern may be interpreted regardless of the sample size" (Guadagnoli & Velicer, 1988, p. 274). The three constraint factors were renamed as Discrimination & Lack of Equity (organizational), Relationships (individual), and Harassment (societal). The constraint, Harassment, had three

Table 7

*Rotated Component Matrix Loadings of 24 Belief Statements when Forced to 3 Factors*

Belief statement	New Factors			
	Discrimination & Lack of Equity	Relationships	Harassment	Communalities
Eigenvalue (% of variance)	8.05(32.20%)	2.40(9.6%)	1.93(7.73%)	
Excluded	.698			.59
ConsDiscrim	.657			.59
UnconDiscrim	.751			.61
Roles	.695			.60
Oldboys	.701			.55
EquityIss	.652			.63
GlassCeil	.636			.42
MenRecruit	.535			.39
Mendonotget	.591			.54
LackRoleMod	.689			.56
NoMentoring	.746			.55
LessPower	.750			.58
WorkHarder	.701			.51
MoveAdmin		.446		.20
FormalNet		.605		.56
InformalNet		.644		.55
DontAspire		.543		.31
UnableHrs		.638		.48
ChildCare		.661		.45
Chores		.553		.35
Harass			.630	.61
Policies			.471	.46
Sex Harass			.728	.54
WitnessSH			.739	.56



*Figure 31.* Scree plot of 24 belief statements when forced to 3 factors.

---

variable loadings higher than .60 and the fourth variable, Policies, denoted a communality value of .47, see Table 8. As this study had a low sample size, communality of the items became important. Pallant (2016) stated a communality value below .3 is considered low and does not fit well with other variables. The communality value of Policies was higher than .3, at .47, therefore, it was not removed from that variable.

A reliability test was run on the new factors. The Discrimination & Lack of Equity factor indicated a reliability of .91, Relationships indicated a reliability of .71, and the Harassment factor indicated a .74 reliability. A t-test was then performed, which indicated the factors Relationships,  $p=.01$  and Harassment,  $p=.04$  were found to be statistically significantly under equal variances not assumed. There was not a significant difference between men and women in the Discrimination and Lack of Equity factor, see Table 9. As two out of the three factors were found to be statistically significant, the null hypothesis was rejected.

In summary, a dimension reduction by factor analysis was run for research question #3. After a preliminary analysis was run without any limitations, a correlations matrix, communalities, Eigenvalues, scree plot and factor loadings were produced from the 25 belief statements. It was decided, based on the findings, to create three new factors, Discrimination and Lack of Equity, Relationships and Harassment. It was found there was a statistical difference between men and women for the Relationships and Harassment factors, whereas the Discrimination and Lack of Equity factor found there was no statistical difference.

#### **Research Question #4**

*How do women faculty view each constraint category and its effect on women at each career stage?*

Table 8

*KMO and Barlett's Tests for 3 Factors*

---

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.80
Barlett's Test of Sphericity	Approximate Chi-Squared	1138.15
	df	300
	Sig.	.01

---

Table 9

*Means, Standard Deviations, Reliability and t-Test Results on New Factors by Gender*

Factor	Cronbach's Alpha	Gender				T-test for Equality of Means		
		Men (n=34)		Women (n=59)		t	df	Sig.
		M	SD	M	SD			
Discrimination & Lack of Equity	.91	3.19	.76	2.89	.81	1.72	91	.62
Relationships	.71	3.49	.61	2.96	.75	3.64	91	.00* <sup>E</sup>
Harassment	.74	3.61	.71	3.08	.97	2.75	91	.04*

*Note.* (n=93),  $p < .05$ ; \*statistically significant; <sup>E</sup> equal variances not assumed.



H3<sub>0</sub>: There is no significant difference between each constraint category and its effect on women at each career stage.

H3<sub>a</sub>: There is no significant difference within each constraint category and its effect on women at each career stage.

The belief statements were grouped into the constraint category relative to the current literature (Bondestam & Lundqvist, 2020; Eddy & Ward, 2015; Ezzedeen, Budworth, & Baker, 2018; Flippin, 2017; Heilman and Caleo, 2018; Henderson et al., 2013; Shepherd, 2017; Smith et al., 2012; Subbaye & Vithal, 2016) see Table 10, to create three new constraint variables; organizational, individual and societal. A Cronbach's Alpha reliability test was run on the new variables. The organizational variable indicated a coefficient of .83, the societal variable indicated a coefficient of .82, and the coefficient for the individual variable was .41. The interstatement correlation reported that by taking out the belief statement, RelativeCare within the individual variable, the coefficient would increase to .48. While there are disagreements about how useful a Cronbach's Alpha test is, Pallant (2016) stated the reliability score should be at least .7 but if the number of variables were less than 10, it was acceptable to report the mean inter-item correlation, which should be between .2 and .4. As the individual variable contained less than 10 variables, the mean inter-item correlation was examined. The individual constraint variable was found to be .15, which proved to not be reliable for this particular study.

An ANOVA test was used to compare the means between different groups (Pallant, 2016), only using the data from female respondents, as this research question focused specifically on women. ANOVA tests were run on the organizational and societal constraint category variables against the three career stages. Jawlik (2016) stated there is not a minimum sample size when running a One-way ANOVA and suggested the groups being tested should "be

roughly normal in their distributions and their variances should be roughly similar. ANOVA is fairly tolerant in terms of what is considered normal enough or having similar enough variances” (p. 34). The groups within each career stage were equally distributed (Early, n=18; Middle, n=16; Advanced, n=28). As indicated in Table 10, there was not a statistical significant between the two constraint variables at each career stage. Overall, the constraint categories were not statistically significant at each career stage, therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted.

In summary, the 25 belief statements were put into one of the three constraint categories, organizational, individual or societal, based on the current literature, and new variables were created. Reliability tests were run on the three constraint variables and found the individual variable was not deemed reliable. An ANOVA was run on the organizational and societal constraint variables against the three career stages. Both of these constraint variables were not found to be statistically significant.

### **Summary**

The purpose of this study was to identify constraints that hinder career development for women faculty within PRTM departments at NC higher education institutions, discover if men and women view these constraints differently and reveal if constraints impact women differently at three different career stages. This study had four research questions:

1. What are the specific belief statements that hinder career development for women faculty in PRTM fields at NC higher education institutions?
2. In what ways do men and women faculty view these specific belief statements differently that hinder career development for women?
3. In what ways do men and women faculty view the constraint categories differently?

Table 10

*Means, Standard Deviations, and ANVOA Results for How Women View Constraint Categories at Each Career Stage*

Constraint	Cronbach's Alpha	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Organizational (n=60)	.83	1.50	2	0.75	1.41	.25
Individual (n=61)	.48	2.32	2	1.16	2.29	.11
Societal (n=62)	.82	0.71	2	0.35	0.49	.61

*Note.*  $p < .05$ ; Career Stages (Early,  $n=18$ ; Middle,  $n=16$ ; & Advanced,  $n=28$ ).

4. How do women faculty view each constraint category and its effect on women at each career stage?

The significance of this study lies in its hope to raise the perception of the profession and awareness of women faculty in the PRTM field. In this study, three different types of constraints, organizational, individual, and societal, were examined to understand which constraint or constraints impacted women faculty the most in their career development.

This study confirmed there are fourteen belief statements that showed there was a difference in how men and women view these constraints and if those beliefs hindered women in their career development. It was also found that men and women view three constraint categories, organizational, individual and societal, differently in how they impact women in their career development. Finally, this study found women do not view the constraint categories differently regardless of the career stage.

## CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to identify constraints that hinder career development for women faculty within PRTM field at NC higher education institutions, discover if men and women view these constraints differently and reveal if constraints impact women differently at three different career stages. The significance of this study was to raise the perception of the professional and awareness for women faculty in the PRTM field at NC higher education institutions. The study stemmed from Henderson et al.'s 2011 study, which examined women and the constraints they may encounter during their career development. The social role theory (Eagly, 1987) framed the research questions. The following sections will outline this chapter; (a) summary of findings, (b) discussion of findings, (c) academic implications, (d) practical implications, (e) limitations, (f) recommendations for future research followed by a conclusion.

### Summary of Findings

This study confirmed there were constraints in each category, organizational, individual and societal constraints, that hinder career development for women faculty in the PRTM fields. There were fourteen specific belief statements that showed there was a statistical difference in how men and women viewed the constraints. There was representation from each constraint category. This revealed there were constraints that men viewed the constraints differently than women in what can impact a woman's career development. It was also found women do not view each constraint category differently, regardless of career stage.

Three hypotheses developed for this study and two out of the three were rejected.

- 1. What are the specific belief statements that hinder career development for women faculty in PRTM fields?*

2. *In what ways do men and women faculty view these specific belief statements differently that hinder career development for women?*
  - H1<sub>0</sub>: There is no significant difference between men and women faculty in how they view belief statements that hinder career development for women.
  - H1<sub>a</sub>: There is a significant different between men and women faculty in how they view belief statements that hinder career development for women.
3. *In what ways do men and women faculty view the constraint categories differently?*
  - H2<sub>0</sub>: There is no significant difference in how men and women faculty view constraint categories.
  - H2<sub>a</sub>: There is a significant difference in how men and women faculty view constraint categories.
4. *Do women faculty in varying career stages view the constraint categories differently?*
  - H3<sub>0</sub>: There is no significant difference between each constraint category and its effect on women at each career stage.
  - H3<sub>a</sub>: There is no significant difference between each constraint category and its effect on women at each career stage.

The findings from this study were discussed and were compared to the literature review.

## **Discussion of Findings**

### **Research Question #1**

*What are the specific belief statements that hinder career development for women faculty in PRTM fields?* This study determined there were twenty-five belief statements women faculty in the PRTM field at NC higher education institutions agreed were impacting their career development. The current literature states while there has been growth in leadership positions

within institutions, the essential changes such as professional culture and practices remain a challenge for women at many levels (Smith, 2017). The growth in the amount of women in leadership positions have occurred in spite of the many constraints. To support women in leadership positions, organizational policies that address the constraints are important for women to be successful. Women working within the PRTM fields were able to be successful in their job and raising a family if the policies within the organization were supportive (Smith et al., 2012).

### **Research Question #2**

*In what ways do men and women faculty view these specific belief statements differently that hinder career development for women?*

The analysis determined there were fourteen out of twenty-five belief statements that were statistically significant between men and women. There were five organizational, five individual and four societal belief statements. Each category will be discussed separately.

There were five organizational belief statements found to be statistically significant between men and women. Those five belief statements include: Oldboys (changes are slow even though “oldboys” are retiring), FormalNet (women do not have formal networks at their institution), InformalNet (women do not have informal networks at their institution), Policies (universities have not implemented enough policies to help employees, especially women) and MenRecruit (men prefer working with other men and will often recruit men over women).

Less women in this study agreed that the belief statements, FormalNet, InformalNet and MenRecruit, in comparison to Henderson et al.’s (2011) study. Henderson (1992) and Walters (2018) stated having networks could help support women in their career development. In order to support women’s career goals and the development of the PRTM industry, it is crucial women create networks that allow them to both give and receive support. Another way to support

women in their career goals is by helping them to identify and become members with specific networks. “Networks can come in a range of forms, including social networks, mixed-gender networks, female only networks, informal and formal networks, discipline specific networks or those created for females in a geographical area, networks that have a range of seniority levels, or those networks where the participants are at similar levels” (Redmond et al., 2017, p. 335). A quarter of the female respondents for this study stated there were no adequate formal networks and just under a quarter of the female respondents stated there were no adequate informal networks within their university. Even though the number of women who feel they do not have enough adequate formal or informal networks have decreased by more than 15% since Henderson et al.’s (2011) study, the results indicated there needs to be more networks for women at higher education institutions, as almost a quarter of the women that responded to this study either agreed or strongly agreed there were not enough networks.

Over half of the respondents for Henderson et al.’s (2011) study agreed that men prefer working with other men and will often recruit men over women, while this study indicated just over a third of the respondents agreed with this statement. Even though women reported this belief statement was less of a constraint than almost ten years ago, the perception of discrimination still exists. This could indicate that men feel that working with other men or recruiting men over women is not an issue or they are not aware this could be an issue for women.

Over half of the female respondents agreed or strongly agreed with the belief statements, Policies and OldBoys, that there are not enough policies at their institution that support women and changes are not occurring fast enough even though the “oldboys” are retiring. Henderson et al.’s (2011) study had the same results ten years ago. Heilman and Caleo (2018) found an



organization can limit its production if they do not put policies into place that reinforce that gender is not an issue. Like many other education systems, higher education institutions can create resources and programs, which can make a substantial difference to specifically support women in their desire to gain leadership roles (Redmond et al., 2017). This supports how women felt that changes are slow to occur even though the “oldboys” are retiring. Even though there is new leadership at higher education institutions, the emphasis does not seem to be on creating policies that support women in the PRTM fields at NC higher education institutions.

Five individual belief statements were found to be statistically significant between men and women. Those five statements include: MoveAdmin (women do not desire to move into administrative positions), UnableHrs (women are unable to put in the extra hours required to get a promotion or move into administration), ChildCare (women have the main responsibility for childcare), RelativeCare (women regularly have the main responsibility to care for older or disabled relatives) and Chores (women have the main responsibility for seeing household chores get done). This suggests that Women in PRTM fields can be successful at balancing work and home, but they must receive support during their journey (Ezzedeen et al., 2018).

The respondents of the study perceived that the belief statements, MoveAdmin and UnableHrs, support Henderson et al.’s (2011) findings as well as the current literature. Women who do focus on their careers and sacrifice time with their families are often criticized (Ezzedeen et al., 2018; Shapiro et al., 2008) which could be a reason why women do not desire to move into administrative roles. Even if a woman desired to move into an administrative role, she might not have the needed hours available to dedicate to the process due to her role within her family.

While women faculty in PRTM field have made gains, their presence is still limited, especially

within higher academic ranks and tenured faculty, which can be attributed to the length of time it takes to reach upper administration (Subbaye & Vithal, 2016; Sussman & Yssad, 2005).

The belief statement, Childcare, can not be compared to Henderson et al.'s (2011) study as that study looked at the number of children within a household, not whether or not women are responsible of childcare. The current literature (Henderson, 1992; Kalysh et al., 2016) supports the finding that over half of the women respondents either agreed or strongly agreed they were responsible for childcare. Although both men and women can be impacted by the balance between work and home, the majority of women who are in the work force choose not to sacrifice their role within their families, and therefore, their careers are either put on hold or do not progress to leadership positions.

The respondents of this study perceived the belief statement, Chores, does not support Henderson et al.'s (2011) findings. In this study, more than a quarter of the women either agreed or strongly agreed they have the main responsibility of household chores. The current findings support the current literature, that women who think they can manage and balance responsibilities between home and work will inevitably add stress to their lives (Henderson, 1992; Mazerolle & Barrett, 2018). This stress of managing household chores not only affects them directly but also affects their performances at both home and work.

The respondents of this study perceived that the belief statement, RelativeCare, supported the current literature as well as supported Henderson et al.'s (2011) findings with both studies indicating slightly over a quarter of the female respondents agreeing they were responsible for an older or disabled relative. Mazerolle and Barrett (2018) stated higher education institutions can offer flexible work hours and can promote the support of work-life balance for women faculty,

but that does not mean that maintaining that balance is easy. This was the only statement where the men respondents either agreed or strongly agreed more than women in this study.

Four societal belief statements were found to be statistically significant between men and women. Those four statements include: Roles (traditional gender roles prevent women from being viewed as leaders), Mendonotget (men to do not “get” that gender equity remains an issue that needs to be addressed), SexHarass (women have been sexually harassed) and WitnessSH (person witnessed a woman being sexually harassed at work).

The respondents of this study perceived the belief statement, Roles, supports Henderson et al.’s (2011) study as well as the current literature. Work/life balance was difficult for women due to the defined gender roles and societal expectations that once women marry, they are expected to stay home but this viewpoint changed in the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century (Pessin, 2018, p. 25). There has been an upward turn at the beginning of the 21<sup>st</sup> century “as institutions and families start adapting to women’s new roles outside the household” (Pessin, 2018, p. 25). Understanding a woman’s social role at both home and work is important to a woman’s success. Social roles had developed over a long period of time and are unlikely to dissolve quickly, but organizations can be an influence to their further evolution (Heilman & Caleo, 2018). The nature of behaviors men and women enact decides where each individual works in the workplace, including the PRTM field.

The respondents of this study perceived the belief statements, Mendonotget and SexHarass, do not support Henderson et al.’s (2011) study but they do support the current literature. Both belief statements, Mendonotget and SexHarass, had a quarter less of women respondents to agree with these statements as compared to the women in Henderson et al.’s (2011) study finding that gender equity and sexual harassment remain issues in higher education.

Walters states that within the PRTM field, “in terms of making progress in achieving gender equality in our discipline area, the ongoing transparent monitoring of academic conferences on a (perhaps) biennial basis may help to provide the necessary impetus for measurable improvement” (2018, p. 30).

The belief statement, WitnessSH, was not part of Henderson et al.’s (2011) study but there was a significant difference between men and women who responded to this study. Slightly over a quarter of men either agreed or strongly agreed they had witnessed a woman being sexually harassed as compared to slightly over a third of the women who agreed to this belief statement in this study. This could indicate that men may not want to admit they had witnessed it a woman being sexually harassed.

In summary, fourteen out of twenty-five belief statements were statistically significant between men and women. Five of the belief statements were individual, five were organizational and four were societal. These fourteen belief statements were compared to Henderson et al.’s (2011) study as well as either supporting or contradicting the current literature.

### **Research Question #3**

*In what ways do men and women faculty view the constraint categories differently?*

Dimension reduction by factor analysis was used to create three new constraint factors from the 25 belief statements. The three constraint factors were renamed Discrimination & Lack of Equity (organizational), Relationships (individual), and Harassment (societal). The constraint factors Relationships and Harassment were found to be statistically significantly between men and women. There was not a significant difference between men and women in the Discrimination and Lack of Equity factor.

This study found men and women faculty within the PRTM field feel there are differences in constraints related to individual relationships such as childcare and overall household chores. Other belief statements that made up the Relationships factor included not having the aspirations to move into a leadership position due to other non-work roles or they are unable to put in the hours. The personal relationships women have outside of work, such as being a mother, could be a constraint that keep women from their career development goals.

The current literature speaks out about women and the constraints they encounter in their career development, there is no literature in how men view the constraints that women encounter. These findings from this study contribute to starting a literature base for men's perceptions of the constraints women in the PRTM field at NC higher education institutions encounter in their career development. This study also found that women more than men feel there is a difference in constraints related to harassment and sexual harassment. The current literature states gender harassment and sexual harassment is still common and occurs in all subjects in higher education (Bondestam & Lundqvist, 2020). This could be because even though leadership is changing, individuals aren't being held accountable for their actions or policies aren't being enforced. Individuals who have been harassed or sexually harassed might not feel supported by their administration if they were to speak out about their situation. The person who had been harassed could also be afraid to speak out if their promotion, tenure or salary increase could be impacted (Pryal, 2018).

#### **Research Question #4**

*Do women faculty in varying career stages view the constraint categories differently?* An ANOVA test was used to compare the means between different groups (Pallant, 2016), only using the data from female respondents as this research question focused specifically on women.

An ANOVA test was run on the three constraint category variables against the three career stages. As indicated in Table 10, there was not a statistical significance between any of the constraint variables at each career stage. This shows women who labeled themselves at the beginning of their career do not feel any differently from the women in the middle or advanced career stages for any of the constraint categories. This does not support Henderson et al.'s (2011) study in any of the constraint categories as there was a statistical difference between the different ranks. Henderson et al.'s (2011) study looked at the difference between ranks among women faculty in PRTM fields in the organizational category only but this study focused on the different career stages the respondents put themselves in based on a description.

The results from this study could possibly be impacted due to the low sample size or looking at the different career stages instead of comparing between the ranks as Henderson et al.'s (2011) study reported. Henderson et al.'s (2011) study labeled women in the early stage of their careers as instructors or assistant professors, in the middle stage of their careers as associate professors and in the advanced stage of their careers as full professors. Each career stage was distributed similarly in both studies showing Henderson et al.'s (2011) study as (Beginning or instructor/assistant professor,  $n=19$ ; Middle or associate professor,  $n=16$ ; and Advanced or full professor,  $n=22$ ) as compared to this study (Early,  $n=18$ ; Middle,  $n=16$ ; Advanced,  $n=28$ ). Allowing the respondents to choose their career stage instead of selecting it for them, as Henderson et al. (2011) did, could be as reason there was no statistical significance within the constraint categories.

### **Implications**

This study compared how men and women faculty perceived constraints that hinder career development for women, whereas Henderson et al.'s (2011) study only focused on

women's perceptions. While there was a significant amount of literature in how constraints impact women in their career development (Carvalho et al., 2018; Eddy & Ward, 2015; Flippin, 2017; Subbaye & Vithal, 2016), there is no literature to support how men view constraints that impact women and their career development. LaPan et al. (2013) wrote that constraints, such as discrimination and demands outside of the workplace, was not exclusive to women; some literature addresses constraints that may limit women as well as men of color.

Based on this study, more women faculty than men in North Carolina in the PRTM field responded to this survey. In order to retain these women in academia, women must be supported not only by other women but by men as well. The demands of teaching loads and research can be strenuous if they have additional responsibilities outside of the workplace. If women faculty are caregivers of children or a disabled or older relative, providing access to childcare or flexible schedules would be supportive. It would allow women faculty to focus their time and energy on their teaching and research. This will allow women faculty to focus on research topics that compliment their teaching responsibilities. Another way to support women faculty is by providing a graduate or teaching assistant to help with research needs and grading.

It is interesting to note that only one belief statement, RelativeCare, reported 32.4% of men either strongly agree or agree as compared to women at 15.2%. In this statement, women were asked if they regularly cared for an older or disabled relative, whereas men were asked if women had the main responsibility of caring for an older or disabled relative. Research shows that 57%-81% of women are caregivers to an older or disabled relative (Sharma, Chakrabarti, & Grover, 2016). The findings from this current study do not support the current literature reporting that more men than women feel that women have more responsibility. If men understand or are

aware of these constraints, they can help provide support to women would need to overcome these constraints.

This study supports the current literature with regard to constraints and how they exist for women in higher education in the PRTM field. Higher Education institutions need to be able to provide resources for women which could include creating formal support groups. Formal support groups, both within the institution and professional associations, may not only bring men and women together but could be able create relationships that allow mentors and mentees to seek out each one another as well as working on changing policies that support women. While many institutions and professional associations have established support groups specifically for women, the appropriate type of support women faculty need may not be available. Paterson and Chicola (2017) state the type of support needed today includes “ephemeral, spiritual and emotional support that we now understand is a critical ingredient of women supporting women” (p. 35). These groups could focus on the “meaning of good mentorship, with increased awareness of the support mentoring can offer, different types of mentorship, and how to be a better mentor” (Koontz, Walters, & Edkin, 2019, p. 110).

One way to support women is through women resource centers (WRC). WRC's provide support by creating new opportunities for dialogue in what is needed specifically at that institution. A suggestion is for both men and women to continue to work in providing opportunities instead of waiting for them to happen. It would be positive if currently faculty be good stewards for new women faculty in showing them there are resources and support out there to help them climb the leadership ladder, if they chose to do so. Women and gender offices or centers could also be used as a starting point to create informal support groups or future programs that are focused on supporting women faculty.



## Limitations

There were five main limitations within this study. First, was the time of year the survey was sent to faculty. As it was sent out at the beginning of the summer, faculty likely did not respond because they may have not been working during the summer. Sending out the survey at either the beginning or end of the fall or spring semester is suggested. As the response rate was lower than 30-30% as Creswell (2008) suggested, the data could have been cleaned differently. Instead of removing any survey that was not fully completed, the researcher could have retained this data if the respondent answered the twenty-five belief statements. This would have allowed for a larger sample size which would help in data findings for research questions #2, #3 and #4.

Second, there was a limitation in how the choices were labeled for the twenty-five belief statements. There were high percentages of respondents that chose “unsure” as a response when asked how strongly they agreed or disagreed about the twenty-five belief statements. The belief statements could be changed to a six-point scale to offer the following choices: strongly disagree, disagree, slightly disagree, slightly agree, agree and strongly agree. This could provide data that would be more accurate due to forcing an either/or response.

A third limitation was how the belief statements were worded. The wording in the belief statements contained many negatives. For example, the belief statement, *I do not desire to move into administrative positions in higher education* would be changed to *I do desire to move into administrative positions in higher education*. In the future it may be helpful to change all of the belief statements to be positive or affirming statements as it would not only be easier for the respondent to understand but for the researcher to decipher and report the findings.

The fourth limitation was in how separate questions from the survey were combined with the belief statements. There were originally 19 specific belief statements on Henderson et al.’s

(2011) survey that asked how much of a degree each one impacted their career development. Six questions that were separate questions on Henderson et al.'s (2011) survey, were combined with the original 19 belief statements to create the twenty-five belief statements used for this study. If this study was to be duplicated, it is recommended to either use the original 19 belief statements, as Henderson et al.'s (2011) reported those statements reliable or to reword the six additional belief statements. If the statements were to be reworded, conducting a pilot test would be recommended to be sure the scale was reliable, as the individual belief statements were found to be the most problematic. As mentioned in research question #2, there is no literature in how men view constraints that limit women, therefore, this research would be a contribution to the literature.

The fifth limitation for was the strength of the individual constraint statements, along with a low sample size. Pallant (2016) stated the reliability score should be at least .7 but if the number of variables is less than 10, it is acceptable to report the mean inter-item correlation, which should be between .2 and .4. While the reliability score for the organizational constraint was .83 and for the social constraint was .82, the individual constraint only reported a reliability score of .48 even though one belief statement, RelativeCare, was taken out. With the individual constraint reporting so low, the mean inter-item correlation was viewed and was .15, which is still too low for Pallant's standards. Similar to research question #3, since the individual statements were not considered strong, the statements need to be reevaluated to see how they could have a stronger correlation. Mainiero and Gibson (2018) found that women in the middle of their career had the strongest issues in regard to constraints. Unfortunately, this study was not able to support or disagree with the literature.

## **Recommendations for Future Research**

The findings for this study support the current literature and adds to the lack of literature on men's perceptions, as there is no current literature in how men perceive constraints that may limit women in the PRTM field at NC higher education. Future research should be conducted to examine how both men and women view constraints to women's desired advancement in higher education to continue to support the current literature in women's views but to also begin to build the foundation of how men view the constraints. This study stands as the first to ask how men view the constraints women encounter in their climb to leadership roles in the PRTM field in higher education. It is important to study men's views as their support in helping to break down constraints for women is likely necessary to reduce the impacts of constraints on women.

If this study was to be replicated, a larger sample size is recommended. Surveying several states or a region would allow departments to be narrowed down specifically, such as Recreation Management or Leisure Studies, instead of having a wide range of areas of study and research, as this study was forced to do. This could still prove to be difficult, as each institution has different types of areas in their department, unlike an English or Biology department where there is only one main topic. Another way to increase sample size would be to include adjunct instructors. There could be adjuncts interested in career development but might be confronted with constraints different than full-time faculty.

It is also recommended another instrument be found or developed to provide results without restrictions. Beginning with a pilot test to establish reliability would provide useful before sending it out to a larger sample. This could eliminate the issue of strength of the constraints or beliefs statements within the survey.

## **Conclusions**

The significance of this study lies in its hope to raise the perception of the profession and awareness of constraints facing women faculty in the PRTM field. Researchers should try to understand the constraints women faculty in the PRTM field encounter in their career development within higher education. In this study, three different types of constraints, organizational, individual, and societal, were examined to understand which constraint or constraints impacted women faculty the most in their career development.

It found there were currently twenty-five belief statements that hinder career development for women faculty in the PRTM fields. Out of the twenty-five belief statements, fourteen showed there was a difference in how men and women view these belief statements and if they hindered women in their career development. It was also found that men and women view all three constraint categories, organizational, individual and societal, differently in how they impact women in their career development. Finally, this study found that women do not view the constraint categories differently regardless of the career stage.

## REFERENCES

- Acker, J. (1988). Women and work in the social sciences. In A. H. Stromberg, & S. Harkess (Eds.), *Women working: Theories and facts in perspective*. California: Mayfield Publishing Company.
- Andersen, M. L., & Witham, D. L. (2011). *Thinking about women: Sociological perspectives on sex and gender* (9<sup>th</sup> ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Anderson, D. A., & Shiner, K. J. (2001). A national examination of gender equity in public parks and recreation. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 33(4), 470-491.
- Arini, S., Collings, L., Conner, K., McPherson, B. M., & Wilson, C. (2011). Learning to be leaders in higher education: What helps or hinders women's advancement as leaders in universities. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 39(1), 44-62.
- Ballakrishnen, S., Fielding-Singh, P., & Magliozzi, D. (2019). Intentional invisibility: Professional women and the navigation of workplace constraints. *Sociological Perspectives*, 62(1), 23-41.
- Ballenger, J. (2010). Women's access to higher education leadership: Cultural and structural barriers. *The Forum on Public Policy*, 1-20.
- Bem, S. L. (1974). The measurement of psychological androgyny. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 42(2), 155-162.
- Bem, S. L. (1975). Sex role adaptability: One consequence of psychological androgyny. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 31(4), 634-643.
- Bialeschki, M. D., & Henderson, K. A. (2000). Gender issues and recreation management. In M. T. Allison & I. E. Schnieder (Eds.), *Diversity and the recreation profession* (pp. 73-97). State College, PA: Venture.

- Bingham, T., & Nix, S. J. (2010). Women faculty in higher education: A case study on gender bias. *The Forum on Public Policy*.
- Bondestam, F., & Lundqvist, M. (2020). Sexual harassment in higher education-a systematic review. *European Journal of Higher Education*.  
doi:<https://doi.org/10.1080/21568235.2020.1729833>
- Bricker, K., Schwab, K., Brownlee, M., & Dustin, D. (2019). Shattering stereotypes and glass ceilings alike. *Journal of Parks and Recreation Administration*, 37(1), 146-149.
- Broadbridge, A. (2007). Dominated by women: Managed by men? the career development process of retail managers. *International Journal of Retail and Distribution Management*, 35(12), 956-974.
- Carvalho, I., Costa, C., Lykke, N., Torres, A., & Wahl, A. (2018). Women at the top of tourism organizations: Views from the glass roof. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism*, 17(4), 397-422.
- Clevenger, L., & Singh, N. (2013). Exploring barriers that lead to the glass ceiling effect for women in the U.S. hospitality industry. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism*, 12(4), 367-399.
- Collinson, D. L., Knights, D., & Collinson, M. (1990). *Managing to discriminate*. London: Routledge.
- Corbett, D. (2016). Mentoring the next generation of higher education professionals. *Quest*, 68(3), 316-323.
- Costello, A. B., & Osborne, J. W. (2005). Best practices in exploratory factor analysis: Four recommendations for getting the most from your analysis. *Practical Assessment Research & Evaluation*, 10(7).

- Creswell, J. W. (2005). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Merrill Prentice Hall.
- Creswell, J. W. (2008). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education.
- Cundiff, J. L., Danube, C. L., Zawadzki, J. L., & Shields, S. A. (2018). Testing an intervention for recognizing and reporting subtle gender bias in promotion and tenure decisions. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 89(5), 611-636.
- Diamond, E. E. (1987). Theories of career development and the reality of women at work. In Gutek, B. A., & Larwood, L. (Eds.), *Women's career development*. California: Sage Publications.
- Diehl, A. B. (2014). Making meaning of barriers and adversity: Experiences of women leaders in higher education. *Advancing Women in Leadership*, 34, 54-63. Retrieved from <http://jproxy.lib.ecu.edu/login?url=http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=ehh&AN=101774549&site=ehost-live>
- Donnelly, K., & Twenge, J. M. (2017). Masculine and feminine traits on the Bem sex-role inventory, 1993-2012: A cross-temporal meta-analysis. *Sex Roles*, 76, 556-656.
- Eagly, A. H. (1987). *Sex differences in social behavior: A social-role interpretation*. Hillsdale, NJ: L. Erlbaum Associates.
- Eagly, A. H., & Johannesen-Schmidt, M. C. (2001). The leadership styles of women and men. *Journal of Social Issues*, 57(4), 781-797.
- Eagly, A. H., Makhijani, M. G., & Klonsky, B. G. (1992). Gender and the evaluation of leaders: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 111, 3-22.

- Eagly, A. H., Nater, C., Miller, D. I., & Kaufmann, M., & Sczesny, S. (2019). Gender stereotypes have changed: A cross-temporal meta-analysis of U.S. public opinion polls from 1946 to 2018. *American Psychologist*. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/amp0000494>
- Eagly, A. H., & Sczesny, S. (2019). Editorial: Gender roles in the future? theoretical foundations and future research directions. *Frontiers in Psychology, 10*, 1-3.
- Eagly, A. H., & Wood, W. (1999). The origins of sex differences in human behavior: Evolved dispositions versus social roles. *American Psychologist, 54*(6), 408-423.  
doi:10.1037/0003-066X.54.6.408
- Eagly, A. H., Wood, W., & Diekmann, A. B. (2000). Social role theory of sex differences and similarities: A current appraisal. In T. Eckes & H. M. Trautner (Eds.), *The developmental social psychology of gender* (pp. 123-174). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Eddy, P. L., & Ward, K. (2015). Lean in or opt out: Career pathways of academic women. *Change: The Magazine of Higher Learning, 47*(2), 6-13.
- Ezzedeen, S. R., Budworth, M., & Baker, S. D. (2018). Can I have it all? emerging adult women's positions on balancing career and family. *Equality, Diversity and Inclusion: An International Journal, 37*(6), 566-581.
- Ferber, M. A. (2003). Women's uneven progress in academia: Problems and solutions. In L. S. Horning (Ed.), *Equal rites, unequal outcomes: Women in american research universities* (pp. 281-308). Amherst, NY: Kluwer Academic/Plenum Publishers.
- Flippin, C. S. (2017). The glass ceiling is breaking, now what? *Journal of the American Society on Aging, 41*(3), 34-42.



- Freysinger, V. J., Shaw, S. M., Henderson, K. A., & Bialeschki, M. D. (2013a). Introduction: Constructing a framework. In V. J. Freysinger, S. M. Shaw, K. A. Henderson, & M. D. Bialeschki (Eds.), *Leisure, women, and gender* (pp. 3-20). State College, PA: Venture Publishing, Inc.
- Freysinger, V. J., Shaw, S. M., Henderson, K. A., & Bialeschki, M. D. (2013b). Reflections on leisure, women, and gender. In V. J. Freysinger, S. M. Shaw, K. A. Henderson, & M. D. Bialeschki (Eds.), *Leisure, women, and gender* (pp. 541-560). State College, PA: Venture Publishing, Inc.
- Frisby, W., & Brown, B. (1991). The balancing act: Women leisure service managers. *Journal of Applied Recreation Research, 16*(4), 297-321.
- Frisby, W. (1992). Women in leisure service management: Alternative definitions of career success. *Society and Leisure, 15*(1), 155-174.
- Guadagnoli, E., & Velicer, W. F. (1988). Relation of sample size to the stability of component patterns. *Psychological Bulletin, 103*(265-275).
- Gutek, B. A., & Larwood, L. (1987). Women's careers are important and different. In B. A. Gutek, & L. Larwood (Eds.), *Women's career development* (pp. 7-14). California: Sage Publications.
- Heilman, M. E. (2001). Description and prescription: How gender stereotypes prevent women's ascent up the organizational ladder. *Journal of Social Issues, 57*(4), 657-674.
- Heilman, M. E., & Caleo, S. (2018). Combatting gender discrimination: A lack of fit framework. *Group Processes & Intergroup Relations, 21*(5), 725-744.
- Henderson, K. A. (1992). Being female in the park and recreation profession in the 1990s: Issues and challenges. *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration, 10*(2), 15-29.

- Henderson, K. A. (1993). A feminist analysis of selected professional recreation literature about Girls/Women from 1907-1990. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 25(2), 165-181.
- Henderson, K. A. (2018). Leisure studies as a calling. *World Leisure Journal*, 60(3), 181-190.
- Henderson, K. A., & Bialeschki, M. D. (1990). The feminization of the leisure services profession: Possible explanations and implications. *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration*, 8(3), 1-12.
- Henderson, K. A., & Bialeschki, M. D. (1995). Career development and women in the leisure service profession. *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration*, 13, 26-42.
- Henderson, K. A., Bialeschki, M. D., & Sessoms, H. D. (1990). Occupational segregation? women and the leisure service. *Journal of Physical Education, Recreation & Dance*, 61(8), 25-28.
- Henderson, K. A., Bialeschki, D., Shaw, S. M., & Freysinger, V. J. (1996). *Both gains and gaps: Feminist perspectives on women's leisure*. State College, PA: Venture Publishing, Inc.
- Henderson, K. A., Grappendorf, H., Bruton, C., & Tomas, S. (2013). The status of women in the parks and recreation profession in the united states. *World Leisure Journal*, 55(1), 58-71.
- Henderson, K. A., Harrolle, M., Rich, S., & Moretz, J. (2011). Women faculty, higher education, and the Recreation/Leisure field. *A Journal of Leisure Studies and Recreation Education*, 26(2), 14-27.
- Ibarra, H., Ely, R., & Kolb, D. (2013). Women rising: The unseen barriers. *Harvard Business Review*, September, 62-66.
- Jawlik, A. A. (2016). *Statistics from A to Z: Confusing concepts clarified* (1<sup>st</sup> ed.). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons, Incorporated.

- Johnson, H. L. (2016). *Pipelines, pathways, and institutional leadership: An update on the status of women in higher education*. Washington, DC: American Council on Education.
- Retrieved from <https://www.acenet.edu/Documents/Higher-Ed-Spotlight-Pipelines-Pathways-and-Institutional-Leadership-Status-of-Women.pdf>
- June, A. W. (2015). *Despite progress, only 1 in 4 college presidents are women*. Retrieved from [www.chronicle.com/article/Despite-Progress-Only-1-in-4/228473](http://www.chronicle.com/article/Despite-Progress-Only-1-in-4/228473)
- Kalysh, K., Kulik, C. T., & Perera, S. (2016). Help or hindrance? Work–life practices and women in management. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 27, 504-518.
- Kamioner, T. (2014). *Women's history month: Unsung heroes*. Retrieved from <http://columbiaspectator.com/2014/03/06/womens-history-month-unsung-heroes>
- Koontz, A., Walters, L., & Edkin, S. (2019). Positively supporting women faculty in the academy through a novel mentoring community model. *Journal of Applied Research in Higher Education*, 11(1), 102-117.
- LaPan, C., Hodge, C., Peroff, D., & Henderson, K. A. (2013). Female faculty in higher education: The politics of hope. *Journal of Leisure Studies and Recreation Education*, 2, 1-15.
- Lepine, I. (1992). Making their way in the organization: Women managers in Quebec. *Women in Management Review*, 7(3), 17-21.
- Levinson, D. J. (1996). *The seasons of a woman's life*. New York, NY: Knopf.
- Madsen, S. R. (2012). Women and leadership in higher education: Learning and advancement in leadership programs. *Advances in Human Resources*, 14(1), 3-10.

- Mainiero, L. A., & Gibson, D. E. (2018). The kaleidoscope career model revisited: How midcareer men and women diverge on authenticity, balance, and challenge. *Journal of Career Development, 45*(4), 361-377.
- Mainiero, L. A., & Sullivan, S. E. (2005). Kaleidoscope careers: An alternate explanation for the opt-out revolution. *Academy of Management Executive, 19*, 106-123.
- Mas-Machuca, M., Berbegal-Mirabent, J., & Alegre, I. (2016). Work-life balance and its relationship with organizational pride and job satisfaction. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 31*(2), 586-602.
- Mazerolle, S. M., & Barrett, J. L. (2018). Work-life balance in higher education for women: Perspectives of athletic training faculty. *Athletic Training Education Journal, 13*(3), 248-258.
- Morris, L. (2019). The conundrum of work-life balance. *Innovative Higher Education, 44*, 247-248.
- Morrison, A. M., White, R. P., & Van Velsor, E. (1982). *Breaking the glass ceiling: Can women reach the top of America's largest corporations?* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Inc.
- Mundfrom, D. J., Shaw, D. G., & Ke, T. L. (2005). Minimum sample size recommendations for conducting factor analyses. *International Journal of Testing, 5*(2), 159-168.
- O'Neil, D. A., & Bilimoria, D. (2005). Women's career development phases: Idealism, endurance, and reinvention. *Career Development International, 10*(3), 168-189.
- O'Neil, D. A., Hopkins, M. M., & Bilimoria, D. (2008). Women's careers at the start of the 21st century: Patterns and paradoxes. *Journal of Business Ethics, 80*, 727-743.

- O'Neil, D. A., Hopkins, M. M., & Bilimoria, D. (2013). Sprinters, marathoners and relay runners: Profiles of women's career development over time. In S. Vinnicombe, R. J. Burke, S. Blake-Beard, & L. L. Moore (Eds.), *Handbook of research on promoting women's careers* (pp. 87-105). Northampton, MA: Edward Elgar Publishing Limited.
- O'Neil, D. A., Hopkins, M. M., & Bilimoria, D. (2015). A framework for developing women leaders: Applications to executive coaching. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, *51*(2), 253–276.
- Pallant, J. (2016). *SPSS survival manual: A step by step guide to data analysis using IBM SPSS* (6<sup>th</sup> ed.). New York, NY: Open University Press.
- Patel, D., & Biswas, U. N. (2016). Stereotyping of effective male and female leaders" A conomitant of gendered workplaces. *Journal of the Indian Academy of Applied Psychology*, *42*(1), 53-62.
- Paterson, W. A., & Chicola, N. A. (2017). Wine and whine: A case study on mentoring support for women in higher education administration. *College and University*, *92*(3), 33-38.
- Pessin, L. (2018). Changing gender norms and marriage dynamics in the united states. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, *80*, 25-41.
- Pindek, S., & Spector, P. (2016). Organizational constraints: A meta-analysis of a major stressor. *An International Journal of Work, Health & Organizations*, *30*(1), 7-25.
- Powell, G. N. (1988). *Women and men in management*. London: Sage Publications.
- Pryal, K. R. (2018). Sexual harassment in higher ed. *Women in Higher Education*, *27*(1), 6-7.
- Redmond, P., Gutke, H., Galligan, L., Howard, A., & Newman, T. (2017). Becoming a female leader in higher education: Investigations from a regional university. *Gender & Education*, *29*(3), 332-351.

- Remington, J., & Kitterlin-Lynch, M. (2018). Still pounding on the glass ceiling: A study of female leaders in hospitality, travel, and tourism management. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism, 17*(1), 22-37.
- Rogelberg, S. G., & Rogelberg, S. L. (2017). In S. G. Rogelberg (Ed.), *The SAGE encyclopedia of industrial and organizational psychology* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.
- Rose, S., & Larwood, L. (1988). Charting women's careers: Current issues and research. In S. Rose & L. Larwood (Eds.), *Women's careers: Pathways and pitfalls* (pp. 3-21). New York, NY: Praeger Publishers.
- Rosenkrantz, P. S., Vogel, S. R., Bee, H., Broverman, I. K., & Broverman, D. M. (1968). Sex-role stereotypes and self-concepts in college students. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 32*, 287-295.
- Saucier, S. (2019). *The continued importance of women's resource centers*. Retrieved from <https://www.wihe.com/article-details/119/the-continued-importance-of-women-s-resource-centers/>
- Schien, E. H. (1978). *Career dynamics: Matching individual and organizational needs*. Reading, MA: Addison Wesley.
- Shapiro, M., Ingols, C., & Blake-Beard, S. (2008). Confronting career double binds: Implications for women, organizations, and career practitioners. *Journal of Career Development, 34*, 309-333.
- Sharma, N., Chakrabarti, S., & Grover, S. (2016). Gender differences in caregiving among family-caregivers of people with mental illnesses. *World Journal of Psychiatry, 6*(1), 7-17.

- Sheehy, G. (1995). *New passages: Mapping your life across time*. New York, NY: Ballantine Books.
- Shepherd, S. (2017). Why are there so few female leaders in higher education: A case of structure or agency? *Management in Education, 31*(2), 82-87.
- Smith, C., Santucci, D., Xu, S., Cox, A., & Henderson, K. A. (2012). "I love my job, but...." A narrative analysis of women's perceptions of their careers in parks and recreation. *A Journal of Leisure Research, 44*(1), 52-69.
- Smith, D. G. (2017). Progress and paradox for women in U.S. higher education. *Studies in Higher Education, 42*(4), 812-822.
- Sokoloff, N. J. (1988). Contributions of Marxism and feminism to the sociology of women and work. In A. H. Stromberg, & S. Harkess (Eds.), *Women working: Theories and facts in perspective*. California: Mayfield Publishing.
- Solomon, B. M. (1985). *In the company of educated women*. New Haven and London: Yale University Press.
- Spence, J. T., Helmreich, R., & Stapp, J. (1974). The personal attributes questionnaire: A measure of sex role stereotypes and masculinity-femininity. *JSAS Catalog of Selected Documents in Psychology, 4*(43), 1-40.
- Spence, J. T., Helmreich, R., & Stapp, J. (1975). Ratings of self and peers on sex role attributes and their relation to self-esteem and conceptions of masculinity and femininity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 32*(1), 29-39.
- Stevens, C. A., Murphy, J. F., Allen, L. R., & Sheffield, E. A. (2010). *A career with meaning: Recreation, parks, sport management, hospitality, and tourism* Sagamore Publishing, LLC.

- Subbaye, R., & Vithal, R. (2016). Gender, teaching and academic promotions in higher education. *Gender & Education, 29*(7), 926-951.
- Sussman, D., & Yssaad, L. (2005). The rising profile of women in academics. *Perspectives, February*, 6-19.
- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2007). In S. Hartman (Ed.), *Using multivariate statistics* (5<sup>th</sup> ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson Education, Inc.
- The White House Project. (2009). *The white house project: Benchmarking women's leadership*. Retrieved from [http://www.in.gov/icw/files/benchmark\\_wom\\_leadership.pdf](http://www.in.gov/icw/files/benchmark_wom_leadership.pdf)
- Velicer, W. F., & Fava, J. L. (1998). Effects of variable and subject sampling on factor pattern recovery. *Psychological Methods, 3*, 231-251.
- Walters, T. (2018). Gender equality in academic tourism, hospitality, leisure and events conferences. *Journal of Policy Research in Tourism, Leisure and Events, 10*(1), 17-32.
- Warren, K., & Loeffler, T. A. (2006). Factors that influence women's technical skill development in outdoor adventure. *Journal of Adventure Education and Outdoor Learning, 6*(2), 107-120.
- Webber, K. L., & Rogers, S. M. (2018). Gender differences in faculty member job satisfaction: Equity forestalled? *Research in Higher Education, 59*(8), 1,105-1,132.
- Wicker, P., Cunningham, G., & Fields, D. (2019). Head coach changes in women's college soccer: An investigation of women coaches through the lenses of gender stereotypes and the glass cliff. *Sex Roles, 81*, 797-807.
- Williams, J. (2004). Hitting the maternal wall. *Academe, 90*(6), 16-20.
- Wilson, S. J. (1991). *Women, families, and work*. Toronto: McGraw-Hill Ryerson Ltd.



Witt, P. A. (1987). Women in recreation management: A man's perspective on understanding and change. *Parks and Recreation*, 22, 42-44.

## APPENDIX A: INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL



**EAST CAROLINA UNIVERSITY**  
University & Medical Center Institutional Review Board Office  
4N-70 Brody Medical Sciences Building · Mail Stop 682  
600 Moye Boulevard · Greenville, NC 27834  
Office 252-744-2914 · Fax 252-744-2284 · [www.ecu.edu/irb](http://www.ecu.edu/irb)

Notification of Initial Approval: Expedited

From: Social/Behavioral IRB  
To: Students Name  
CC: Chairs Name  
Date: Date  
Re: UMCIRB 16-001329  
Title of Dissertation

I am pleased to inform you that your Expedited Application was approved. Approval of the study and any consent form(s) is for the period of 10/23/2016 to 10/22/2017. The research study is eligible for review under expedited category # 6, 7. The Chairperson (or designee) deemed this study no more than minimal risk.

Changes to this approved research may not be initiated without UMCIRB review except when necessary to eliminate an apparent immediate hazard to the participant. All unanticipated problems involving risks to participants and others must be promptly reported to the UMCIRB. The investigator must submit a continuing review/closure application to the UMCIRB prior to the date of study expiration. The Investigator must adhere to all reporting requirements for this study.

Approved consent documents with the IRB approval date stamped on the document should be used to consent participants (consent documents with the IRB approval date stamp are found under the Documents tab in the study workspace).

The approval includes the following items:

Name	Description
Cover Letter - Study Invite KMRA 7-5-16. docx	Recruitment Documents/Scripts
Dissertation Proposal - K. Ramsey Arnold. docx	Study Protocol or Grant Application
Informed Consent KMRA 10-5-16. doc	Consent Forms
Semi-Structured Interview Questions. docx	Interview/Focus Group Scripts/Questions

The Chairperson (or designee) does not have a potential for conflict of interest on this study.

---

IRB00000705 East Carolina U IRB #1 (Biomedical) IORG0000418  
IRB00003781 East Carolina U IRB #2 (Behavioral/SS) IORG0000418

## APPENDIX B: SURVEY SENT OUT VIA EMAIL THROUGH QUALTRICS

1. Please select your gender.
  - a. Male
  - b. Female
  
2. What is your current academic rank?
  - a. Full Professor
  - b. Associate Professor
  - c. Assistant Professor
  - d. Full-time Instructor, Lecturer, Research Associate, Post-doc
  
3. Does your appointment include titled administrative duties such as Department Chair, Director of Graduate Studies, or another designated university administration function (e.g., Associate Dean, Dean, Provost)?
  - a. No
  - b. Yes
  
4. What stage in your career do you consider yourself in based on these classifications?
  - a. Beginning/Idealism
  - b. Middle/Endurance
  - c. Advanced/Reinvention
  
5. What is your tenure-track designation?
  - a. Tenured
  - b. Tenure Track
  - c. Non-tenure Track
  
6. Would your university be classified as a private or public institution?
  - a. Public
  - b. Private
  
7. Please indicate all the degree programs that are awarded by your Departmental unit. (Check as many as apply).
  - a. Associate
  - b. Bachelors
  - c. Professional Masters
  - d. MA/MS Degree
  - e. Ph.D/Ed.D
  
8. How satisfied are you with your current position? ~~Why do you feel this way?~~
  - a. Very dissatisfied
  - b. Dissatisfied
  - c. Neither satisfied or dissatisfied

- d. Satisfied
  - e. Very Satisfied
9. Please rate the following below as based on your current positions in whether or not you agree or disagree.: Choices: Strongly agree, Agree, Not Sure, Disagree, Strongly disagree
- a. I have responsibility in my current position.
  - b. Leadership is required in my current position.
  - c. I have independence in my job.
  - d. I have flexible time in my current position.
  - e. I have opportunities to collaborate with colleagues in my current job.
  - f. I have variety in my current job.
  - g. I have feelings of empowerment in my current position.
  - h. I have opportunities for paid or unpaid leave (i.e. what is typically known as sabbatical).
  - i. I have opportunities to “stop the tenure clock” for parental or other family or personal related reasons.
10. Looking back over your career in higher education, indicate the extent to which your expectations have been met in the following areas:
- Choices: Not expected at all, Less than expected, Neither, Met my expectations, Exceeded my expectations
- a. Salary
  - b. Opportunities to develop new skills
  - c. Responsibility
  - d. Job Challenge
  - e. Time available for family
  - f. Time available to pursue personal interests
  - g. Flexibility of schedule
  - h. Status/prestige of being a faculty member
  - i. Influence in departmental unit
  - j. Stress level
  - k. Hours required
  - l. Compatibility with colleagues
  - m. Support/mentorship from male colleagues
  - n. Support/mentorship from female colleagues
  - o. Benefits and perks
  - p. Career advancement opportunities
  - q. Respect within the university
  - r. Respect in the profession
  - s. Support of supervisors
  - t. Opportunities for collaborations
  - u. Grant opportunities

v. Chancellor/upper administration direction

11. We are interested in finding out if women aspire to be in leadership positions. Can you please explain why or why not?
12. What have been the greatest challenges to you as a woman in higher education? **Women only**
13. The following explanations have been given as issues that may impact women in professional positions. Please indicate the extent to which you disagree or agree with each of these statements as they relate to YOUR experiences in higher education in your current career stage (beginning, middle, advanced):  
Choices: Strongly disagree, Disagree, Not sure, Agree, Strongly Agree **Women Only**
- a. I am excluded from informal male networks
  - b. Conscious discrimination against women occurs in higher education
  - c. Unconscious discrimination against women occurs in higher education
  - d. The idea of traditional gender roles prevents women from being viewed as leaders
  - e. Sexual harassment continues to be an issue in higher education
  - f. Changes are slow to occur even though the “old boys” are retiring
  - g. I do not desire to move into administrative positions in higher education
  - h. I do not have adequate formal networks in the university
  - i. I do not have adequate informal networks in the university
  - j. Gender equity issues have not been adequately addressed in universities
  - k. I experience a glass ceiling in higher education
  - l. I don't aspire to become full professors or assume administrative positions in the field because of multiple non-work roles (e.g. mother, partner/spouse, caregiver, community volunteer)
  - m. Universities have not implemented enough policies that help their employees, and especially women (e.g. flex time, child care)
  - n. Men prefer working with other men and will often recruit and select them over women

- o. Many men do not “get” that gender equity remains an issue that needs to be addressed
- p. I lack good role models in higher education
- q. I do not receive the same mentoring as men in higher education
- r. I have less influence and power in the university
- s. I am unable to put in the extra hours required to get promotion or to move into administration
- t. I believe I have to work harder than your male colleagues to advance or get promoted
- u. I have the main responsibility for day to day arrangements for child care
- v. I regularly care (in or outside your home) for an older or disabled relative
- w. I have the main responsibility for seeing that household chores (cleaning, cooking etc.) get done
- x. I have been sexually harassed at work
- y. I have witnessed a woman being sexually harassed at work

14. The following explanations have been given as issues that may impact women in professional positions. Please indicate the extent to which you disagree or agree with each of these statements as they relate to YOUR experiences in higher education in your current career stage (beginning, middle, advanced): Choices: Strongly disagree, Disagree, Not sure, Agree, Strongly Agree **Men Only**

- a. Women are excluded from informal male networks
- b. Conscious discrimination against women occurs in higher education
- c. Unconscious discrimination against women occurs in higher education
- d. The idea of traditional gender roles prevents women from being viewed as leaders
- e. Sexual harassment continues to be an issue in higher education
- f. Changes are slow to occur even though the “old boys” are retiring
- g. Women do not desire to move into administrative positions in higher education
- h. Women do not have adequate formal networks in the university
- i. Women do not have adequate informal networks in the university

- j. Gender equity issues have not been adequately addressed in universities
- k. Women experience a glass ceiling in higher education
- l. Women are not able to become full professors or assume administrative positions in the field because of multiple non-work roles (e.g. mother, partner/spouse, caregiver, community volunteer)
- m. Universities have not implemented enough policies that help their employees, and especially women (e. g. flex time, child care)
- n. Men prefer working with other men and will often recruit and select them over women
- o. Many men do not “get” that gender equity remains an issue that needs to be addressed
- p. Women lack good role models in higher education
- q. Women do not receive the same mentoring as men in higher education
- r. Women have less influence and power in the university
- s. Women are unable to put in the extra hours required to get promotion or to move into administration
- t. Women have to work harder
- u. Women have the main responsibility of child care
- v. Women regularly have the main responsibility to care (in or outside of the home) for an older or disabled relative
- w. Women have the main responsibility for seeing that household chores (cleaning, cooking, etc.) get done
- x. I have been sexually harassed at work
- y. I have witnessed a woman being sexually harassed at work

15. How many service roles do you typically have within an academic year?

16. If you are an assistant or associate professor, on a scale of 1-10 (1 being the lowest and 10 being the highest), do you aspire to become a full professor?

17. On a scale of 1-10, do you aspire to be in an administrative position (e.g., department head, associate dean etc.) in higher education?

18. If you do not aspire to be in administration or have an administrative position, please state your level of agreement. Choices: Strongly agree, agree, not sure, disagree, strongly disagree
- a. Too much family stress
  - b. Too much work stress
  - c. Lack of family support
  - d. Too much time commitment
  - e. Lack of self-confidence
  - f. Lack of support from colleagues
  - g. Satisfied with current position
  - h. Lack of skills/ability/education
  - i. Perception that discrimination/glass ceiling will exist
  - j. Other-please specify
19. Have you ever experienced discrimination in higher education for any of the following reasons? (Please check all that apply)
- a. Being overweight
  - b. Being underweight
  - c. Ethnicity
  - d. Gender
  - e. Motherhood/Parenthood
  - f. NOT being a mother
  - g. Physical disability
  - h. Race
  - i. Religion
  - j. Sexual identity
  - k. Other
  - l. Have not experienced
20. In thinking of the women in your department, have you ever witnessed discrimination in higher education for any of the following reasons? (Please check all that apply)
- a. Being overweight
  - b. Being underweight
  - c. Ethnicity
  - d. Gender
  - e. Motherhood/Parenthood



- f. NOT being a mother
- g. Physical disability
- h. Race
- i. Religion
- j. Sexual identity
- k. Other
- l. Have not experienced

21. Please indicate how much these statements effect you in relation to your job:

Choices: Strongly agree, agree, not sure, disagree, strongly disagree

- a. I feel I have more to do than I can handle comfortably
- b. I do not feel I have a good balance between my job, family and leisure
- c. I wish I had more time to do things with my family and friends
- d. I feel guilty not spending more time at work
- e. I feel guilty not spending more time at home
- f. I feel physically drained when I get home from work
- g. I feel emotionally drained when I get home from work
- h. I do university related work on weekends
- i. I feel I have to rush to get everything done each day
- j. I feel I need to take work/concerns about work home with me
- k. The stress of work affects my ability to relax/sleep

22. How often have you thought about leaving higher education?

- a. Never
- b. Sometimes
- c. Occasionally
- d. Frequently
- e. All the time

23. How would you describe your ethnic/racial background?

- a. African American
- b. American Indian/Native American/First Nation
- c. Asian American
- d. Bi-racial
- e. Hispanic/Latino Black
- f. Hispanic/Latino White
- g. Pacific Islander or Native Alaskan
- h. White
- i. Other-please specific

24. How old are you?

- a. 22-30

- b. 31-40
- c. 41-50
- d. 51-60
- e. 60+

25. What is your current relationship status?

- a. Single
- b. Married or living with partner
- c. Widowed
- d. Separated/divorced

26. What was your yearly salary in 2018?

- a. Less than \$39,999
- b. \$40,000-49,999
- c. \$50,000-59,999
- d. \$60,000-69,999
- e. \$70,000-79,999
- f. \$80,000-89,999
- g. \$90,000-99,999
- h. More than \$100,000

27. How much do you contribute to your household's total income?

- a. All
- b. More than half
- c. About half
- d. Less than half

## APPENDIX C: INITIAL EMAIL SENT ON JUNE 4, 2019

Dear Faculty Member:

I am a doctoral student in the Educational Leadership department at East Carolina University. I am interested in researching constraints women faculty encounter during their career development in the parks, recreation and tourism fields at NC higher education institutions, as well as how men view these constraints. You have been selected to receive this email since you are listed on your university's website as a faculty member within the parks, recreation and tourism management field.

You are not guaranteed any personal benefits from being in this study but my hope is this information will be useful to women in various areas of higher education. Please be aware that many of the questions are work related and include your perception about sexual harassment and discrimination. I encourage you to complete this survey in a private area and close your browser if you have to leave your computer while completing this survey.

By completing this survey link, which will only take up 10-15 minutes of your time, you are giving your permission to have your data aggregated with data from other women to complete my doctoral dissertation, as well as produce presentations and publications. If you at any time have questions about your participation, do not hesitate to contact me, Beth Bengala, 252-328-4051 or bengalae@ecu.edu. Please click on this link to take the survey:  
[https://ecu.az1.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV\\_3mcMErOU8DZ0aUd](https://ecu.az1.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_3mcMErOU8DZ0aUd).

This information will be kept confidential and your information will not be associated with your name. Thank you so much for your involvement in this important study.

Beth Bengala  
Doctoral Candidate, Educational Leadership  
East Carolina University

My pronouns are she/her/hers

**APPENDIX D: INITIAL EMAIL SENT ON JUNE 7, 9, AND 26, 2019**  
**WITH ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE**

Dear Faculty Member:

I am a doctoral student in the Educational Leadership department at East Carolina University. I am interested in researching constraints women faculty encounter during their career development in the parks, recreation, tourism, sports management, exercise science and related fields at NC higher education institutions, as well as how men view these constraints. You have been selected to receive this email since you are listed on your university's website as a faculty member within one of these fields.

You are not guaranteed any personal benefits from being in this study but my hope this information will be useful to both women and men in various areas of higher education. Please be aware that many of the questions are work related and include your perception about sexual harassment and discrimination. I encourage you to complete this survey in a private area and close your browser if you have to leave your computer while completing this survey.

By completing this survey link, which will only take up 10-15 minutes of your time, you are giving your permission to have your data aggregated with data from other women to complete my doctoral dissertation, as well as produce presentations and publications. If you at any time have questions about your participation, do not hesitate to contact me, Beth Bengala, 252-328-4051 or bengalae@ecu.edu. Please click on this link to take the survey:  
[https://ecu.az1.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV\\_3mcMErOU8DZ0aUd](https://ecu.az1.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_3mcMErOU8DZ0aUd)

This information will be kept confidential and your information will not be associated with your name. Thank you so much for your involvement in this important study.

Beth Bengala  
Doctoral Candidate, Educational Leadership  
East Carolina University

My pronouns are she/her/hers

