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Effect of Women's Management Levels in Higher Education Institutions on Multi-Dimensional Ingroup Disidentification

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This is to certify that the doctoral study by

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Walden University
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Abstract

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by

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MBA, University of Maryland Global Campus, 2009

BA, University of Maryland, College Park, 2006

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

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Abstract

Many of the barriers women face in achieving senior leadership positions in higher education institutions are the result of ingroup disidentification. The problem that was addressed in this study is the low gender identification of women managers in higher education. The purpose of this study was to investigate the difference in detachment, dissatisfaction, and dissimilarity scores as measured with the Three-Component Measure of Disidentification (TCMOD) between low, mid, and senior-level women managers in higher education institutions. The theoretical foundation for this study was social identity theory because gender group identification is a key element of social identity. A causal-comparative approach used the independent variable of women's self-identified management level in higher education institutions (low, mid, senior) and the dependent variables participants' scores for detachment, dissatisfaction, and dissimilarity. All women in management positions were invited through Facebook, LinkedIn, and the Walden University participant pool. The convenience sample was $N = 153$ participants ($n = 51$ for each group). A one-way multivariate analysis of variance showed no statistically significant difference for the management levels on the three combined dependent variables, $F(6, 296) = 1.095$, $p = .365$; Wilks' $\Lambda = .957$; partial $\eta^2 = .022$. Only 2.2% of the variability in TCMOD scores could be accounted for based on management level. These results contradict findings from other studies that senior women managers in higher education experience greater gender disidentification. This study can lead to positive social change because it suggests that organizational barriers, rather than individual barriers, must be further explored by decision-makers who seek to increase the representation of women in senior leadership positions.

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Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my amazing family. My life took several unexpected turns while I walked this path. The support of those closest to me gave me the strength to persevere. My parents, grandparents, aunts, uncles, and cousins celebrated every milestone with me, no matter how small. Even when I thought it was a minor victory, they made it feel major. To my children, Alaina, Cameron, and Chloe, I want you to always remember that you can do hard things. And that the hard things are often the most rewarding things.

Acknowledgments

I would like to thank my committee members for their support throughout this entire process. Dr. Amy Peterson and Dr. Richard Hammett had positive words of encouragement each step of the way. They were always willing and helpful to guide me with their valuable feedback.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Women managers in academia must overcome barriers at the individual, organizational, and societal levels, including their complex relationships with other women (Diehl & Dubinski, 2017). Lack of mentoring, lack of sponsorship, lack of support, queen bee effect, and tokenism are examples of the organizational barriers related to women's workplace relationships (Diehl & Dubinski, 2017). Much of these barriers can be attributed to the consequences of ingroup disidentification (Veldman et al., 2021). Ingroup disidentification is a psychological state characterized by active separation, disengagement, or distancing from one's ingroup (Becker & Tausch, 2014b). As members of a marginalized group, women often distance themselves from other women as a coping mechanism in the workplace (Veldman et al., 2021). The incidence of ingroup disidentification is higher among women in senior management positions (Faniko et al., 2020). This study was conducted so that the manifestation of ingroup disidentification among women managers in higher education could be better understood.

The lack of female representation at the senior level of higher education institutions must be remedied to promote greater opportunities for growth. Only one third of university presidents are women, yet at those institutions women were better represented than at universities with male presidents (Fuesting et al., 2022). As organizations seek to increase female representation, it is critical to understand how marginalized groups, such as women, are coping in the workplace. If women across management levels are exhibiting the same dimensions of ingroup disidentification to the same degree, organizational changes could have a far-reaching positive effect. However,

if women at different management levels are exhibiting different dimensions of ingroup disidentification to different degrees, organizational changes or interventions may need to be tailored to better fit the target group. The results of this study could lead to more informed decision-making on the part of organizations.

This chapter includes a background of the research literature relevant to this study, an overview of the research problem and purpose of the study, and the research question along with null and alternative hypotheses. Additionally, social identity theory is identified as the theoretical framework for the study. Lastly, the nature of the study, necessary definitions, relevant assumptions, the study's scope and delimitations, limitations, and significance are discussed followed by a chapter summary.

Background

Women are underrepresented in senior management roles in higher education institutions across faculty, administration, and governing boards (Surna, 2018). Although there is no shortage of women qualified to hold such positions, the gap between men and women in management positions in academia persists (Johnson, 2017; Surna, 2018). There is a lack of upward mobility for women who remain with the same institution when compared with men (Samuelson et al., 2019). The experiences of women as they seek career advancement, particularly management roles, are hindered by a number of barriers (Diehl & Dubinski, 2017). Though these barriers may occur at the individual, organizational, or societal level, it is those barriers at the organizational level that are most closely related to women's relationships with each other (Diehl & Dubinski, 2017).

Women's workplace relationships have the potential to help both individuals and

organizations. Positive workplace relationships among women in academia provide solidarity, friendship, and peer validation in an otherwise challenging environment (Kaeppel et al., 2020). Workplace friendships are even more critical for members of marginalized groups (Pillemer & Rothbard, 2018). These relationships are also advantageous for organizations who benefit from the collaboration on teaching, research projects, and cross-disciplinary work among women (Kaeppel et al., 2020).

Negative workplace relationships among women may be characterized by a number of harmful behaviors that hinder career advancement. Queen bee behavior is seen in women who achieve career success but do not help other women achieve success (Faniko et al., 2020). They may perceive the career commitment of men as being higher than women even with no evidence to support that perception (Faniko et al., 2020). Additionally, covert mistreatment in the form of incivility has been found to occur more frequently among women and overt mistreatment in the form of relational aggression has been experienced by women in higher education (Allen & Flood, 2018; Smith et al., 2021).

Social identity threat is a concept that emerged from the theoretical framework of social identity theory. It refers to the threat that occurs when a person is devalued based on their membership in a certain group. Predetermined membership in a non-preferred group (e.g. gender) may have negative connotations (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). As a member of a devalued group, women may use self-group distancing as a coping mechanism (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). When reconciling conflicting identities (e.g., a woman holding a senior position), individuals are most likely to conform to the norms of

the highest status group of which they are a member (Chipeaux et al., 2017). Maintaining distance from the devalued ingroup is a way for women to protect their own achievement potential (Veldman et al., 2021). However, this has negative ramifications for both well-being and motivation (Veldman et al., 2021). It also serves to maintain and reinforce the existing social hierarchy (van Veelen et al., 2020).

Low gender identification is of particular importance to the ingroup disidentification of women from other women. Women with low gender identification are unlikely to show preferential attention to their ingroup (Domen et al., 2020). However, this may be mitigated in situations where women are underrepresented (Domen et al., 2020). Ingroup disidentification can occur along three different dimensions: detachment, dissatisfaction, and dissimilarity (Becker & Tausch, 2014b). Disidentified group members have been shown to harm or actively undermine the ingroup (Becker & Tausch, 2014b). Ingroup disidentification has also been associated with a preference for negative information about the ingroup and low motivational investment in one's own group (de Vreeze & Matschke, 2019; Hackel et al., 2017). The gap in practice that was addressed in this study was to identify which dimensions of ingroup disidentification women managers in higher education are most likely to exhibit. It was needed so future interventions can be better informed.

Problem Statement

The problem that was addressed in this study is the low gender identification of women managers in higher education. As part of a low-status or non-preferred group, women are more likely to disidentify from their ingroup (de Vreeze & Matschke, 2019;

van Veelen et al., 2020). This is especially true when the level of social identity threat is higher (Veldman et al., 2021). Members of marginalized groups often attempt to reconcile the cognitive dissonance that occurs when they hold positions of power through self-group distancing (Chipeaux et al., 2017; Schmader & Sedikides, 2018; van Veelen et al., 2020). For women, maintaining distance from the devalued ingroup is a way for them to protect their own achievement potential in a male-dominated field (Veldman et al., 2021). Self-group distancing and low gender identification are associated with negative workplace behaviors (Domen et al., 2020). Since women are underrepresented in higher education, they often exhibit negative workplace behaviors such as relational aggression and queen bee behavior (Allen & Flood, 2018; Faniko et al., 2020). Consequently, the effects of these behaviors on women's workplace relationships have been found to negatively affect their career and management experiences (Allen & Flood, 2018; Davidson, 2018; Faniko et al., 2017; Gabriel et al., 2018; Harvey, 2018; O'Neil et al., 2018). Though disidentification can occur along three dimensions (detachment, dissatisfaction, and dissimilarity), researchers had yet to explore which dimensions women managers in higher education are most likely to exhibit.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this causal-comparative quantitative study was to investigate the difference in the detachment, dissatisfaction, and dissimilarity scores as measured with the Three-component Measure of Disidentification (TCMOD) between low, mid, and senior-level women managers in higher education institutions. The focus was to determine if difference exists between the categorical independent variable of

management level (low, mid, or senior) and the continuous dependent variables of ingroup disidentification (detachment, dissatisfaction, and dissimilarity).

Research Question and Hypotheses

This study was a quantitative causal-comparative design with the following research question: What is the difference in the detachment, dissatisfaction, and dissimilarity TCMOD scores between the women's self-identified management levels (low, mid, or senior) in higher education institutions?

H_0: There is no significant difference in the detachment, dissatisfaction, and dissimilarity TCMOD scores between the women's self-identified management levels (low, mid, or senior) in higher education institutions.

H_a: There is a significant difference in the detachment, dissatisfaction, and dissimilarity TCMOD scores between the women's self-identified management levels (low, mid, or senior) in higher education institutions.

The independent variable was women's self-reported management levels in higher education institutions. It was a categorical measure from 1 to 3 (1 = low, 2 = mid, 3 = senior). The dependent variables were participants' detachment, dissatisfaction, and dissimilarity scores as measured with Becker and Tausch's (2014a) TCMOD.

Theoretical Foundation

The guiding theoretical foundation for this study was social identity theory. Social identity theory was introduced by psychologists Tajfel and Turner (1979). The basic tenet of social identity theory is that individuals strive toward a positive self-concept comprised of two components: personal identity and social identity. Gender group

identification is a key element of social identity. When individuals are members of a marginalized group and subsequently devalued, they may experience social identity threat. Social identity theory emphasizes the importance of a positive self-concept. However, membership in a marginalized group is a threat to that positive self-concept. To reconcile the disconnect between holding a position of power and being a woman, ingroup disidentification often occurs (Becker & Tausch, 2014b).

The logical connection between the theoretical framework presented and this study is that gender group identification comprises a significant part of an individual's social identity. When that social identity is unsatisfactory, self-group distancing may be used as a coping mechanism. Though self-group distancing may help marginalized individuals achieve upward mobility and ease cognitive dissonance, it also serves to maintain and reinforce the existing social hierarchy (van Veelen et al., 2020). Examining ingroup disidentification across three different management levels (low, mid, and senior) and three different dimensions (detachment, dissatisfaction, and dissimilarity) provided further insight regarding how women manage social identity threat as their careers advance. Chapter 2 will further explore the concepts of self-group distancing and low gender identification.

Nature of the Study

The design for this study was quantitative and causal-comparative in nature. A web-based survey was advertised to potential participants. This made a larger, more geographically dispersed sample of potential participants possible (Burkholder et al., 2016). The survey included all 11 items of the TCMOD (Becker & Tausch, 2014a).

Additionally, a short number of demographic questions were included at the start of the survey. The independent variable in this study was women's self-identified management level in higher education institutions (1 = low, 2 = mid, 3 = senior). The dependent variables were the detachment, dissatisfaction, and dissimilarity scores as measured with Becker and Tausch's (2014a) TCMOD.

The target population for this study was women managers working in higher education institutions. Data were collected through an online survey using Survey Monkey and advertised on LinkedIn, Facebook Survey Exchange, other Facebook pages, Instagram pages, and the Walden University participant pool. Once collected, data were analyzed by conducting a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS).

Definitions

Detachment: A dimension of disidentification characterized by active separation from one's ingroup (Becker & Tausch, 2014b).

Disidentification: A psychological state characterized by active separation, disengagement, or distancing from one's ingroup (Becker & Tausch, 2014b).

Dissatisfaction: A dimension of disidentification characterized by unhappiness about one's group membership (Becker & Tausch, 2014b).

Dissimilarity: A dimension of disidentification characterized by the extent to which an individual perceives themselves as different from other group members (Becker & Tausch, 2014b).

Ingroup: A group that an individual identifies with and feels attached to (McFeeters, 2021).

Low-level manager: Managers who typically manage a process and/or team of employees (Ross, 2020).

Mid-level manager: Department-level managers who typically supervise low-level managers (Ross, 2020).

Nonidentification: A neutral psychological state lacking identification or disidentification with one's ingroup (Becker & Tausch, 2014b).

Outgroup: A group that an individual does not identify with and feels opposed to (McFeeters, 2021).

Senior-level manager: Top-level managers making critical decisions and reporting to heads of an institution (Ross, 2020)

Assumptions

Two assumptions were made as part of this study. The first was that participants would carefully read and understand the survey items. The second is that participants would answer all questions honestly.

Scope and Delimitations

The scope of this study was to examine ingroup disidentification of women managers in higher education institutions as measured with the TCMOD (Becker & Tausch, 2014a). This study was limited to women who hold management positions in higher education institutions. It excluded women holding non-management positions or those working in K-12 or other non-postsecondary education institutions.

Limitations

Internal validity was threatened by the selection of participants in this study. It was possible that women with a greater tendency to disidentify from other women as well as women in senior management roles will be less likely to participate. It was also possible that participants did not accurately select the management level of their role. The survey contained descriptions of each management level with examples of position titles to mitigate this. Additionally, response bias was considered as a limitation for this study. However, the anonymity of survey responses helped to address this limitation.

Significance

The results of this study are important because it provides more information about the association between the specific dimensions of ingroup disidentification and how they vary based on women's management levels in higher education institutions. Although previous research established that women often disidentify from other women and the factors contributing to ingroup disidentification, less was known about which dimensions (detachment, dissatisfaction, and dissimilarity) of ingroup disidentification are more prevalent, particularly in the context of employment within higher education institutions.

The findings of this study have implications for improving working relationships among women in higher education institutions. It also provides valuable data to higher education institutions seeking to increase the representation of women in management roles. Interventions can be better focused on the dimensions of ingroup disidentification most negatively affecting gender group identification. The potential for positive social change from this study is greater diversity in management within higher education

institutions.

Summary

The gender disparity within higher education management persists even though there is no shortage of women qualified to hold such positions (Johnson, 2017; Surna, 2018). Previous research on workplace relationships and ingroup disidentification established that women often disidentify from other women and the factors contributing to ingroup disidentification. To this point, little had been done to understand the specific dimensions along which women disidentify (detachment, dissatisfaction, and dissimilarity), particularly in the context of employment within higher education institutions. The purpose of this study was to investigate the differences in detachment, dissatisfaction, and dissimilarity scores on the TCMOD among women managers in higher education institutions. It helps to establish or refute an association between management level and ingroup disidentification.

Chapter 2 includes a summary of the literature relevant to this study. First, there is an overview of the current state of women in academia. This includes a discussion about their underrepresentation in management despite a robust pipeline of qualified women (Johnson, 2017). Next, the unique management experiences of women in academia are discussed with an emphasis on the barriers they often face (Diehl & Dubinski, 2017). Then, women's interpersonal relationships in the workplace are considered. This includes a discussion of individual and organizational benefits of positive workplace relationships (Davidson, 2018; Kaeppel et al., 2020). Following this is an overview of negative workplace behaviors affecting women's relationships including queen bee syndrome,

incivility, and relational aggression. Lastly, social identity threat and its impact on group membership, self-group distancing, low gender identification, and regulatory fit is discussed.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

The problem that was addressed in this study is the low gender identification of women managers in higher education. Women continue to be underrepresented in senior management roles in academia. A myriad of barriers have been identified as contributing factors to this underrepresentation including the glass ceiling, sticky floor, and labyrinth (Carli & Eagly, 2015). Systemic barriers are further compounded by the dynamics of women's interpersonal relationships in the workplace. As a member of a marginalized group, women often use coping mechanisms to reconcile the dissonance between that group membership and furthering their careers. Ingroup disidentification is a multi-dimensional method of coping which has negative ramifications for both the individual as well as the low-status group. The purpose of this causal-comparative quantitative study was to investigate the difference in the detachment, dissatisfaction, and dissimilarity scores as measured with Becker and Tausch's (2014a) TCMOD between low, mid, and senior-level women managers in higher education institutions. Further exploration into the different dimensions of ingroup disidentification can provide more precise information about how women are coping with social identity threat in the workplace as they advance their careers.

This literature review includes an overview of the status of women in academia and the systemic barriers they often face in management roles. The literature shows the complicated dynamics of women's workplace relationships and how they can help or hinder both individuals and organizations. Lastly, this literature review explores research related to social identity threat, marginalized group membership, and coping

mechanisms.

Literature Search Strategy

Several different databases were used in the collection of sources for this literature review from the Walden University library including the following: Academic Search Premier, Business Source Premier, PsycInfo, PsycArticles, ERIC, SAGE Journals, Science Direct, and Thoreau. Google Scholar was also used to identify relevant sources. Key terms searched for this literature review included the following: *queen bee syndrome, social identity threat, self-group distancing, individual mobility, career development, glass ceiling, microaggression, attributional ambiguity, disidentification, gender identification, incivility, relational aggression,* and *regulatory fit.* Most references are from the years 2016-2022; however, some older references are used as original references or to provide further context on a particular subject. The references are predominantly peer-reviewed academic journals with the occasional periodical reference used for societal context.

Theoretical Foundation

The theoretical framework that grounds this study is social identity theory. Social identity theory was introduced by Tajfel in 1978. The social categories an individual perceives themselves as belonging to comprises the aspect of their self-image referred to as social identity (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). These social categories provide individuals with a way to organize the world around them and serve as a self-reference by which to orient themselves within the world (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). The basic tenet of social identity theory is that individuals strive toward a positive self-concept comprised of two

components: personal identity and social identity (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Tajfel and Turner (1979) asserted that a positive social identity requires individuals to perceive their in-group as positively distinct from out-groups. Furthermore, individuals will attempt to leave the in-group when their social identity is unsatisfactory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). The logical connection between social identity theory and this study is that gender group identification comprises a significant part of an individual's social identity (Rodriguez, 2019). However, as members of a marginalized group, women must often choose to either maintain their identity as a woman or disidentify with women and assimilate into higher status groups.

Literature Review Related to Key Concepts and Variable

Women in Academia: The Pipeline

Though higher education is commonly thought of as liberal and progressive, the lack of female representation in senior management roles does not support this notion. The gender disparity can be seen across faculty, administration, and governing boards. The organizational layers within an institution have managers at the low, middle, and senior levels. The low level is characterized by technical or operational duties and employees in these positions typically supervise staff, students, programs, or processes (Selznick, 2020). The middle level is characterized by managerial or tactical duties and consists of positions such as, directors, assistant/associate deans, and other professional staff (Selznick, 2020). These are common in student services, academic support, and business services areas (Selznick, 2020). The senior level is characterized by strategic duties and consists of positions such as presidents, provosts, deans, and chief financial

officers (Selznick, 2020). The gender disparity at the senior level cannot be attributed to a lack of qualified women. There is a robust pipeline of women graduating with the necessary credentials to hold such positions (Johnson, 2017). Despite women comprising 59% of college undergraduates, they only represent 40% of vice-presidents/deans of enrollment management (Surna, 2018). Similarly, on the academic side of higher education, an increase in rank is mirrored by a decrease in the number of women (Johnson, 2017).

A robust pipeline alone is not sufficient to close the gender disparity. The pipeline theory rests on four presumptions: men and women with similar qualifications will ascend at a similar rate, there is no gender bias to hinder women's career advancement, organizational systems work equally well for both men and women, and over time women will achieve equal representation in senior positions (Kellerman & Rhode, 2017). Based on the continued underrepresentation of women in senior management roles in academia with each passing decade, it is clear that the pipeline is neither the problem nor the solution.

Leadership Experiences

Diehl and Dubinski (2017) identified 27 different types of gender-based leadership barriers that women face in higher education. They can occur at the micro (individual) level, meso (organizational) level, and macro (societal) level with the majority being at the meso (organizational) level (Diehl & Dubinski, 2017). Examples of meso barriers especially related to women's relationships with each other include lack of mentoring, lack of sponsorship, lack of support, queen bee effect, and tokenism (Diehl &

Dubinski, 2017).

The most used metaphors to describe the barriers faced by women managers include the glass ceiling, sticky floor, and labyrinth (Carli & Eagly, 2015). The glass ceiling effect implies there is a limit to how high a woman can advance in her career (Carli & Eagly, 2015). However, it does not consider the beginning and middle stages of a woman's career. Women who stay in entry-level or dead-end positions due to external obstacles may be experiencing the sticky floor phenomenon (Carli & Eagly, 2015).

The labyrinth is a fitting metaphor due to its complex nature (Carli & Eagly, 2015). It reflects the myriad of challenges women experience throughout their careers in contrast to the straight road that men are more likely to navigate (Carli & Eagly, 2015). Prior to achieving senior positions, women may opt to leave an organization entirely due to experiencing a sticky floor. Men are promoted internally at a faster rate than women which both magnifies the gender disparity at the senior management level and increases the chances of women exiting an organization (Samuelson et al., 2019). Token women who can achieve senior level positions are more likely to do so as an external hire rather than being internally promoted (Samuelson et al., 2019). Hiring more women, even at a greater rate than men, does not mitigate the lack of upward mobility (Samuelson et al., 2019).

Workplace Relationships: Advantages

Women's Interpersonal Relationships

In addition to systemic factors, women's workplace relationships with other women are also important to consider. Solidarity among women in the workplace plays

an important role in both career development as well as psychological well-being. Davidson (2018) identified several themes related to the benefits of women's interpersonal relationships at work including the following: mutuality/reciprocity, fun, continuity, validation, support and comfort, clarity of ideas/knowledge/perspective, safety to ask for help, strategizing/problem-solving, opportunity, and benefits to organization. Kaeppel et al. (2020) stated that the effects of workplace marginalization can be countered by women's friendships in academia. These types of affirming relationships can provide peer validation in a challenging work environment (Kaeppel et al., 2020). Women's friendships cultivate a supportive workplace that bolsters women's self-efficacy and self-esteem and aids in career advancement (Kaeppel et al., 2020).

An essential component in all friendships is perceived similarity (Pillemer & Rothbard, 2018). For members of marginalized groups (i.e., women), the elements of friendship tied to perceived similarity and self-disclosure are even more critical (Pillemer & Rothbard, 2018). Davidson (2018) said that women managers found their friendships with other women managers distinct in what they offered. Women often use the words "friend" and "colleague" interchangeably due to the absence of boundaries in their friendships with other women (Davidson, 2018).

Organizational Benefits of Women's Interpersonal Relationships

Women's friendships with other women help them meet their core needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Kaeppel et al., 2020). The friendships of women in fields such as academia leads to greater internal motivation as well as further collaboration on teaching, research projects, and cross-disciplinary work (Kaeppel et al.,

2020). A positive workplace characterized by meaningful relationships among women may contribute to greater personal satisfaction and higher quality work. Fragmented organizations with isolated employees put themselves at risk of poor employee performance and increased turnover.

Workplace Relationships: Disadvantages

While workplace friendships can be of benefit, the formality of organizational structures can hinder the development of friendships (Pillemer & Rothbard, 2018). Mentors can assist mentees with cultivating their desired identities (Warhurst & Black, 2019). However, the management role of the mentor and subservient role of the mentee can contribute to limited identities (Warhurst & Black, 2019). O'Neil et al. (2018) found that women at the junior and senior levels often had high expectations of each other regarding career assistance and career advancement behaviors that were unmet. The gendered organizational culture within higher education can lead to several negative coping mechanisms including queen bee syndrome, incivility, and relational aggression.

Queen Bee Syndrome

The "Queen Bee" is a concept first introduced by Staines (1974). It refers to women who achieve professional success, but do not help other women achieve that same success (Staines, 1974). In fact, they may actively hinder the success of other women. Harvey (2018) found that 70% of women ages 25-50 across a variety of industries in the United Kingdom reported having been bullied by their female boss. Queen bee behavior was found to be more prevalent among women who experienced gender discrimination at some point in their career (Derks et al., 2011). Napier et al. (2019) found that to perceive

the system as fair some women deny the existence of gender discrimination, which is associated with higher well-being.

Queen bee syndrome is a phenomenon that is caused, in part, by the gendered organizational culture found in male-dominated fields (Derks et al., 2016). This phenomenon can also influence the ways in which women perceive each other. Women in academics at an advanced career level also perceived women at an early career level as less committed than men at an early career level (Faniko et al., 2020). However, there was no evidence to support a difference between males and females regarding commitment early on in their academic careers (Faniko et al., 2020). The findings of Faniko et al. (2020) suggest that the persistence of queen bee behaviors in academia can be attributed to the organizational culture rather than a generational difference.

Incivility

Incivility in the workplace is a covert form of mistreatment often directed toward marginalized outgroups (Gabriel et al., 2017). While it is considered a low-intensity form of deviant behavior, incivility is associated with negative outcomes in the workplace (Gabriel et al., 2017). Women who experience high levels of female-instigated incivility had reduced job satisfaction (Gabriel et al., 2017). Incivility contributes to increased job stress and negatively affects employee relationships and cooperation (Cortina, 2008).

Gabriel et al. (2017) found that instances of female-instigated incivility in the workplace were reported at a higher rate among women. Ambiguous uncivil behaviors such as ignoring, silent treatment, and questioning judgement were more frequently used by women (Cortina, 2008). Women demonstrating agentic traits were also more likely to

experience female-instigated incivility than those demonstrating communal traits (Gabriel et al., 2017). Uncivil behavior is a low-grade, chronic stressor that has harmful consequences for the individual and organization long-term.

Relational Aggression

Aggression in any form is behavior intended to do harm to others (Crick & Grotpeter, 1995). There are various forms of aggression and marked gender differences in the type often chosen by the perpetrator (Crick & Grotpeter, 1995). Men are more likely to choose overt aggression such as physical or verbal attacks (Crick & Grotpeter, 1995). Women, however, are more likely to choose relational aggression as their tactic (Crick & Grotpeter, 1995). Relational aggression involves the use of manipulation by the perpetrator to negatively affect the victim's social relationships (Crick & Grotpeter, 1995). Because women place value on social interactions and close relationships, relational aggression is more likely to achieve the desired result (Crick & Grotpeter, 1995). Examples of relational aggression behaviors experienced by women working in higher education include the following: bullying, harassment, undermining, backstabbing, yelling, and taking over meetings/projects (Allen & Flood, 2018). Examples of responses to relational aggression by women working in higher education include the following: avoidance, retaliation, defiance, and self-blame (Allen & Flood, 2018). This is a more overt form of workplace aggression when compared to the subtleness of incivility.

Social Identity Threat

Social identity threat occurs when a person is devalued based on their membership in a certain group. This threat has the potential to destroy the fit between a

person and their environment (Schmader & Sedikides, 2018). A coping mechanism individuals may use if their social identity is unsatisfactory is to leave their existing group (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). While self-group distancing is a coping mechanism, it has negative ramifications. Well-being and motivation have both been shown to be lower when women distance themselves from other women (Veldman et al., 2021). Self-group distancing is a way for individuals to achieve upward mobility and ease cognitive dissonance, however, it maintains and even reinforces the existing social hierarchy (van Veelen et al., 2020).

Group Membership

Membership in a certain group can be predetermined (e.g., gender) or chosen (e.g., clubs or organizations). The type of membership is less significant than the group's status. Depending on the social status of certain groups, association may have positive or negative connotations (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Belonging to a non-preferred group has implications for both the individual and the group (Becker & Tausch, 2014b). Contemporary society allows a certain amount of social mobility. This can result in members of traditionally low status groups achieving high status professional positions (Chipeaux et al., 2017). The upward mobility on the part of a low status group member causes status-inconsistent identity configurations (Chipeaux et al., 2017). Memberships in various groups often requires individuals to take actions that may conform to the norms of one group yet deviate from another (Chipeaux et al., 2017). When reconciling conflicting identities, individuals are most likely to conform to the norms of the highest status group of which they are a member (Chipeaux et al., 2017). To achieve social

mobility, individuals assimilate with the high-status group and show negative attitudes toward the low status ingroup (Chipeaux et al., 2017). In fact, simply anticipating upward social mobility has been associated with a decrease in ingroup concern (Chipeaux et al., 2017). The possibility of individual mobility overrides any interest in collective action on the part of the low status ingroup (Chipeaux et al., 2017).

Self-Group Distancing

Group members of stigmatized ingroups dissociate themselves through an individual mobility response known as self-group distancing (van Veelen et al., 2020). Veldman et al. (2021) found that targets of negatively stereotyped groups actively use self-group distancing as a coping mechanism for identity threat rather than being passive recipients. They also found that the greater the level of identity threat the more women distanced themselves from other women (Veldman et al., 2021). Therefore, in a male-dominated field, women may be even more likely to distance themselves from other women than they would under normal circumstances. Maintaining distance from the devalued ingroup is a way for women to protect their own achievement potential (Veldman et al., 2021). Faniko et al. (2020) found that both men and women self-reported higher levels of masculinity and used more masculine self-descriptions in advanced career stages. While this increased masculinity does not create dissonance for men, it suggests increased self-group distancing by women as their career progresses (Faniko et al., 2020). The reaction of individual mobility to negative or threatened social identity is an individualistic approach (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). The individual distances themselves from the low status group to which they belong, and the low status group remains

unchanged (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Solidarity within the low status group is negatively impacted by individual mobility (Tajfel & Turner, 1979).

Low Gender Identification

High levels of gender identification at the start of women's careers have been shown to decrease the likelihood of them exhibiting queen bee behaviors (Derks et al., 2011). Although Domen et al., (2020) found that women and men were both likely to show preferential attention to their ingroup when compared with out group members, this was not true for men and women who did not identify strongly with their gender. However, in situations where women were underrepresented, regardless of their level of gender identification women showed preferential attention to their ingroup (Domen et al., 2020).

Ingroup disidentification from components of one's social identity can be categorized along three dimensions: detachment, dissatisfaction, and dissimilarity (Becker & Tausch, 2014b). Detachment occurs when a person remains a member of a group, objectively speaking, yet severs psychological ties (Becker & Tausch, 2014b). Dissatisfaction occurs when an individual is no longer satisfied with being a member of a particular group (Becker & Tausch, 2014b). Dissimilarity occurs when an individual views themselves as different from their ingroup (Becker & Tausch, 2014b). It is the third dimension, dissimilarity, which has been experienced by members of low-status groups who advance to high-status groups (Wright & Taylor, 1998).

When assigned to a non-preferred group, de Vreeze and Matschke (2019) found that individuals disidentified more than those assigned to a preferred group. Furthermore,

higher levels of ingroup disidentification has been shown to increase a preference for negative information about the ingroup (de Vreeze & Matschke, 2019). Disidentified group members have also been shown to harm or actively undermine the ingroup as well (Becker & Tausch, 2014b). One component of social identification includes investment in one's own group (motivational investment). Hackel et al. (2017) found that individuals with low motivational investment preferred rewards be given to an out-group member rather than an in-group member.

Regulatory Fit

The model of State Authenticity as Fit (SAFE) outlines three ways in which an environment may suit a person: self-concept fit, goal fit, and social fit (Schmader & Sedikides, 2018). A proper "fit" indicates that there is harmony between the core characteristics of an individual and the external characteristics of the environment (Schmader & Sedikides, 2018). Members of marginalized groups must choose between cognitive fluency (true self), motivational fluency (self-determined action), or interpersonal fluency (social acceptance) (Schmader & Sedikides, 2018).

The motivational fluency that accompanies the goal fit echoes regulatory fit theory. When individuals can pursue a goal in a way that aligns with their preferred strategy, it is referred to as regulatory fit (Hamstra et al., 2015). Regulatory fit has been shown to buffer against ingroup disidentification (Hamstra et al., 2015). Members of groups with an advantaged social identity are more likely to experience an environmental fit resulting in greater cognitive, motivational, and interpersonal fluency (Schmader & Sedikides, 2018). In contrast, members of groups with a devalued social identity are less

likely to experience an environmental fit resulting in decreased cognitive, motivational, and interpersonal fluency (Schmader & Sedikides, 2018).

Summary and Conclusions

The obstacles faced by women in academia include both systemic barriers and complicated relationship dynamics with other women. In navigating their own career paths to achieve success, women often must cope in ways that have negative implications for themselves, other women, and their organization. Addressing the social identity threat that occurs as women advance within organizations has positive implications for individual women, women as a group, and organizations. As institutions strive toward diversity amongst senior management, it is important to consider the role of workplace relationships as well as organizational culture. For example, implementing a mentor program to connect women to each other is a futile attempt at networking if other influences are not addressed.

The literature shows that women disidentify from other women and the factors that contribute to that ingroup disidentification. However, further research was needed to gain a deeper understanding of exactly how women disidentify. Becker and Tausch (2014b) identified three different dimensions along which ingroup disidentification from one's social identity can occur: detachment, dissatisfaction, and dissimilarity. Gathering information on which dimension(s) of ingroup disidentification are most prevalent can help inform future decision making for both individuals and organizations.

Chapter 3: Research Method

The purpose of this causal-comparative quantitative study was to investigate the difference in the detachment, dissatisfaction, and dissimilarity scores as measured with the TCMOD between low, mid, and senior-level women managers in higher education institutions. In this chapter, an overview of the research design and rationale is provided. There is also a detailed description of the methodology including the following: population, sampling and sampling procedures, procedures for recruitment, participation, and data collection, instrumentation and operationalization of constructs, and data analysis. Lastly, threats to validity and ethical procedures are discussed.

Research Design and Rationale

A quantitative causal-comparative approach was used for this study. The independent variable was women's self-identified management level in higher education institutions (1 = low, 2 = mid, 3 = senior). The dependent variables were participants' detachment, dissatisfaction, and dissimilarity scores as measured with Becker and Tausch's (2014a) TCMOD. There was a need to identify which dimensions of ingroup disidentification women managers in higher education are most likely to exhibit. It provides a point of comparison for future studies, especially those focused on interventions.

Methodology

Population Selection

The target population for this study was women managers working in higher education institutions. This role could either be in academics or administration. The

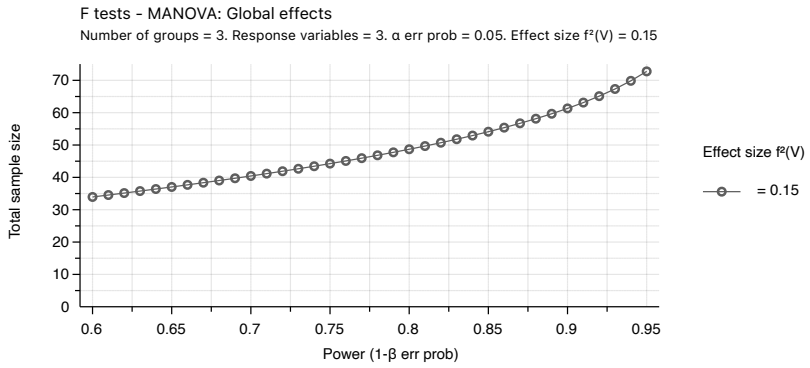
potential pool of participants was drawn from professional social media platforms including LinkedIn, Facebook Survey Exchange, other Facebook pages, and the Walden University participant pool.

Sampling and Sampling Procedures

The sampling strategies for this study were convenience and snowball sampling. Women in management positions in higher education institutions comprised the entire pool of participants. With this strategy, women were divided into three subgroups based on management level (low, middle, and senior). Of the acceptable survey responses for each subgroup, a random sample of $N = 51$ participants per group were used for data analysis. It is generally accepted that "…when N is 50 or more, the sampling distribution of the mean will be approximately normal regardless of the shape of the distribution" (Frankfort-Nachmias & Leon-Guerrero, 2016, p. 168). Additionally, a power analysis was conducted using G*Power 3.0 with the following parameters: effect size of 0.15, alpha level of 0.05, statistical power of 0.80, group number of three, and response variables of three (Faul et al., 2007). Results suggested a sample size of $N = 51$ participants per group. Figure 1 shows a power analysis plot indicating that a sample size over $N = 50$ participants meets the suggested statistical power of 0.80.

Figure 1

Power Analysis Plot



The sampling frame included potential participants from several social media platforms. The digital flyer was posted and advertised to women managers in higher education institutions. Because of the large number of members on LinkedIn, Facebook Survey Exchange, other Facebook pages, Instagram pages, and the Walden University participant pool, a response of more than 51 participants in each of the three subgroups was anticipated.

Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection

Participants were recruited through social media platforms. A digital flyer with a link to the survey was posted on various platforms. Upon opening the survey link, potential participants viewed the information, which included a brief explanation of the study, what to expect if participating, and the requirements to participate. It also invited respondents to forward the flyer to any other potential participants. After opening the link, respondents first viewed an introduction and consent page containing the following: study title, my contact information, volunteer parameters, study procedures, a sample

question, possible risks, privacy, use of participant responses, and contact information for Walden University's Research Participant Advocate. For participants who implied consent by clicking "next," they then answered the demographic questions (see Appendix B). If responses to the demographic questions satisfied the volunteer parameters, they then went on to answer the 11-question TCMOD (see Appendix A). On the final page in Survey Monkey after submitting their responses, participants were thanked for their participation. All responses remained anonymous.

The demographic questions were used to exclude any response not fitting the parameters of this study. Responses were only included for participants who identified as women, worked for a higher education institution, and held a management position at the low, middle, or senior level. All data were collected using Survey Monkey and exported to SPSS for analysis. The data will be stored on a password protected computer for 5 years and then destroyed.

Instrumentation and Operationalization of Constructs

Becker and Tausch (2014a) developed the TCMOD. The rating scale measure is comprised of 11 items: four for detachment, three for dissatisfaction, and three for dissimilarity. The developers of this measure indicate that "Test content may be reproduced and used for non-commercial research and educational purposes without written permission" (Becker & Tausch, 2014a, p. 1). Therefore, this measure was used in the current study without written permission by the developers.

A three-part study was conducted by Becker and Tausch (2014b) to develop the TCMOD. The first part of the study was meant to develop the scale (1a) and then to

cross-validate it for test-retest reliability in a different context regarding culture and language (1b). The second part of the study sought to establish that this scale better distinguishes between disidentification and nonidentification than previously used identification scales. The third part of the study explored correlates of disidentification such as emotions and behavioral intentions (3a) and their negative effects on in-group-directed behavioral intentions (3b).

During the first part of the study and initial development of the scale, Becker and Tausch (2014b) used a sample of students from a British University ($N = 168$). To cross-validate the scale in a different cultural and language context, a sample of students from a German University ($N = 215$) were used (Becker & Tausch, 2014b). Data were collected from British University students in study 1a on a number of different scales: inclusion-exclusion of ingroup from the self, disidentification, identification, stigma consciousness, public collective self-esteem, and personal self-esteem (Becker & Tausch, 2014b). Confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to ensure construct validity. Results supported that the 11-item model distinguishing between disidentification and identification fit the data well (Becker & Tausch, 2014b).

Reliability was tested with German University students in study 1b by attempting to replicate the results found in study 1a (Becker & Tausch, 2014b). Results showed that a model separating factors of disidentification and identification fit the model better (Becker & Tausch, 2014b). Results also showed that the 11-item three-factor model better fits the data than any other models (Becker & Tausch, 2014b). Additional reliability analyses were conducted to determine the Cronbach's alphas in the

British/German samples with the following results: detachment, .83/.75, dissimilarity, .84/.75, and dissatisfaction, .82/.84 (Becker & Tausch, 2014b). As a measure of internal consistency, a Cronbach's alpha value greater than .70 across all three components indicates reliability.

The developers of this rating scale took steps to establish reliability and validity within the study sample. Participants were asked if they disidentified from a group to which they belonged. For the British University student population, 59 participants indicated they did not disidentify from a group to which they belonged and were subsequently deleted from the sample. This left the remaining sample ($N = 59$) for study 1a. Among the German University student population, 215 participants indicated they did not disidentify from a group to which they belonged. They were subsequently deleted from the sample, leaving the remaining sample ($N = 215$). The following measures and validation scales were completed by participants: inclusion-exclusion of ingroup from the self, disidentification, identification, stigma consciousness, public collective self-esteem, and personal self-esteem (Becker & Tausch, 2014b). Counterbalancing the order for measures of disidentification and identification was one strategy used by the developers to establish reliability and validity (Becker & Tausch, 2014b). As an additional strategy, the developers randomized items for each scale (Becker & Tausch, 2014b).

The dependent variables were participants' detachment, dissatisfaction, and dissimilarity scores as measured with Becker and Tausch's (2014a) TCMOD. Each dependent variable was calculated as a participant's mean score on the Likert scale for the items that comprise that variable: four items for detachment, three for dissatisfaction,

and three for dissimilarity (Becker & Tausch, 2014a). The Likert scale was as follows: 1 = *strongly disagree*, 2 = *disagree*, 3 = *somewhat disagree*, 4 = *neither agree nor disagree*, 5 = *somewhat agree*, 6 = *agree*, 7 = *strongly agree*. On all three components of the measures of ingroup disidentification, a lower score represented less detachment, dissatisfaction, and dissimilarity from other women by participants. Conversely, on all three components of the measures of ingroup disidentification, a higher score represented more detachment, dissatisfaction, and dissimilarity from other women by participants.

Data Analysis Plan

Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to analyze the data. During the data cleaning process 170 responses were deleted for incompleteness or not fitting participant parameters. The data were tested for its statistical assumptions. The data were screened for any univariate or multivariate outliers by using a boxplot. The Quantile-Quantile (QQ) Plot was used to ensure multivariate normality. Multicollinearity was screened for moderate correlation among dependent variables by using the bivariate analysis. Equality of variances was tested using Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices. Homogeneity of variances was tested using Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances.

This study was a quantitative causal-comparative design with the following research question:

RQ: What is the difference in the detachment, dissatisfaction, and dissimilarity TCMOD scores between the women's self-identified management levels (low, mid, or senior) in higher education institutions?

H_0: There is no significant difference in the detachment, dissatisfaction, and dissimilarity TCMOD scores between the women's self-identified management levels (low, mid, or senior) in higher education institutions. H_a: There is a significant difference in the detachment, dissatisfaction, and dissimilarity TCMOD scores between the women's self-identified management levels (low, mid, or senior) in higher education institutions.

The statistical test that was used to test the three hypotheses in the current study was a *K* group multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). A *K* group MANOVA was the most fitting test given that there were three categorical independent variables and three dependent variables that were interval in nature (Salkind, 2010). One multilevel independent variable was analyzed across three different dependent variables to determine if differences existed among groups. MANOVA results with an alpha level of less than 0.05 were considered statistically significant. The between-subjects effects were examined using the partial eta squared to show any differences across the three groups (low, middle, and senior managers). This was used to identify any significant differences in scores on the dependent variables (detachment, dissatisfaction, and dissimilarity).

Threats to Validity

In developing this research design, the following types of validity were considered: internal, external, construct, and statistical conclusion. Internal validity is established when changes in a dependent variable can be attributed to an independent variable (Creswell, 2009). Selection was a possible threat to internal validity in this study. Women with a greater tendency to disidentify from other women may have been less

likely to participate in the survey. Women in senior management roles may have been less likely to participate in the survey. This threat was mitigated by randomly selecting *N* = 51 survey responses from each of the three subgroups (low, middle, and senior levels). Lastly, there is the potential for response bias posing a threat to internal validity. The independent variable of management level will be determined by respondents' self-reported management level. To mitigate this threat, a brief explanation of the duties that characterize low, middle, and senior-level management positions will be provided.

External validity is established when study results can be generalized to a larger population (Creswell, 2009). Because the culture at higher education institutions and women's individual experiences can both differ, generalizing the results of this study to all women managers in higher education institutions is difficult. However, the use of random sampling does help to enhance external validity (Creswell, 2009).

Construct validity is established when a tool measures the construct it intends to measure (Creswell, 2009). In developing their TCMOD, Becker and Tausch (2014b) excluded participants who did not disidentify from a group to which they belonged. They also had participants complete several measures and validation scales including the following: inclusion-exclusion of ingroup from the self, disidentification, identification, stigma consciousness, public collective self-esteem, and personal self-esteem (Becker & Tausch, 2014b). Additionally, Becker and Tausch (2014b) counterbalanced the order for measures of ingroup disidentification and identification and randomized items for each scale.

Statistical conclusion validity is established when conclusions about the

relationships among variables are reasonable (Creswell, 2009). Threats to statistical conclusion validity in quantitative research can be divided into Type I and Type II errors (Salkind, 2010). Using an alpha level of .05 will help to mitigate any Type I errors where a "true" null hypothesis is rejected (Salkind, 2010). Using a one-way MANOVA greatly reduces the probability of a Type II error where a false null hypothesis is not rejected (Salkind, 2010). This is due to its inherent statistical power and will be furthered by ensuring an adequate sample size.

Ethical Procedures

All necessary institutional permissions, including IRB approvals, were gathered prior to beginning research. This included copies of a social media flyer and survey materials. Ethical issues in this study were minimal. Participants were not part of a vulnerable population. Data were collected through a web-based survey that participants could complete in private. Responses were anonymous; therefore, informed consent was not necessary. The data will be stored on a password protected computer for 5 years at which time it will be destroyed. There were no concerns with conflicts of interest since participants were anonymous and did not come from the researcher's own work environment.

Summary

In this chapter, an overview of the research design and rationale was provided. It was a quantitative causal-comparative design intended to examine the relationship between the independent variable of management level (low, middle, and senior) and the dependent variables of participants' detachment, dissatisfaction, and dissimilarity scores

as measured with Becker and Tausch's (2014a) TCMOD. This will provide data gathered in a systematic way, which will advance knowledge of how different status groups vary in their tendency to disidentify.

This chapter also contained a detailed description of the methodology including the following: population, sampling and sampling procedures, procedures for recruitment, participation, and data collection, instrumentation and operationalization of constructs, and data analysis. The target population for this study was women managers working at higher education institutions. A sample size greater than $N = 50$ was collected for each management level subgroup (based on power analysis results). Data was collected through LinkedIn, Facebook Survey Exchange, other Facebook pages, and the Walden University participant pool. Becker and Tausch's (2014a) TCMOD was used with a independent variable of women's self-identified management level in higher education institutions (1 = low, 2 = mid, 3 = senior). The dependent variables were participants' scores on the three dimensions of ingroup disidentification (detachment, dissatisfaction, and dissimilarity), calculated as a participant's mean score on the Likert scale. A one-way MANOVA was used to analyze results for statistical significance, with appropriate post hoc testing to identify specific relationships between independent and dependent variables.

Lastly, threats to validity and ethical procedures were discussed in Chapter 3. Internal, external, construct, and statistical conclusion validity were all considered including any potential threats. Ethical considerations were minimal given the age of the target population and anonymity of responses. However, all necessary institutional

permissions, including IRB approvals, were gathered prior to beginning research.

Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this study was to investigate the difference in the detachment, dissatisfaction, and dissimilarity scores as measured with the TCMOD between low, mid, and senior-level women managers in higher education institutions (Becker & Tausch, 2014a). This study was a quantitative causal-comparative design with the following research question: What is the difference in the detachment, dissatisfaction, and dissimilarity TCMOD scores between the women's self-identified management levels (low, mid, or senior) in higher education institutions? In this chapter, a detailed description of the data collection process is provided. A comprehensive analysis of the study results is given including all appropriate statistical analyses. Lastly, a summary of the results with an answer to the research question is provided.

Data Collection

For this study, IRB approval was received on May 9, 2023. Convenience and snowball sampling were used to recruit the volunteer participants through Walden University's participant pool as well as Facebook and LinkedIn social media platforms. Data were collected from May 10, 2023 to June 3, 2023. After closing the survey, responses were screened to remove any incomplete surveys or responses that did not meet participant parameters. A total of 690 participants began the survey and 520 participants completed the survey, which was a completion rate of 75%. Table 1 displays the number of participants for each of the three management levels that completed the survey.

Table 1

Demographic Data

Management Level	*N*	%
Low	134	25.77
Middle	331	63.65
Senior	55	10.25

Data Analysis

My power analysis using G*Power suggested a minimum of $N = 51$ participants to avoid Type I and Type II errors. Therefore, I used SPSS's random sampling function to select 51 participants from each group. Table 2 presents the descriptive statistics for each management level subgroup by the three disidentification component measures.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics

Disidentification Component	Management Level	*M*	*SD*	*N*
Detachment	Low	2.9069	1.30188	51
	Middle	2.9020	1.18857	51
	Senior	2.9363	1.40787	51
	Total	2.9150	1.29402	153
Dissatisfaction	Low	1.9902	.93134	51
	Middle	2.0980	1.13256	51
	Senior	1.7794	.86984	51
	Total	1.9559	.98680	153
Dissimilarity	Low	2.9346	1.51440	51
	Middle	2.7255	1.30249	51
	Senior	2.6209	1.52026	51
	Total	2.7603	1.44563	153

Statistical Assumptions

Assumption 1

The first assumption for a one-way MANOVA is that there are two or more dependent variables measured on a continuous scale (Laerd Statistics, 2015). In this study, the dependent variables were participants' detachment, dissatisfaction, and dissimilarity TCMOD scores. Scores were calculated as a mean across the number of items for each. The detachment and dissatisfaction scores were each comprised of four items and the dissimilarity scores were comprised of three items.

Assumption 2

The second assumption for a one-way MANOVA is that there is one independent variable consisting of two or more categories (Laerd Statistics, 2015). In this study, the independent variable was women's self-identified management level (low, middle, or senior) in higher education institutions.

Assumption 3

The third assumption for a one-way MANOVA is independence of observations (Laerd Statistics, 2015). In this study, participants completed the survey anonymously. It is assumed that participants only completed the survey once and that there is no relationship between responses.

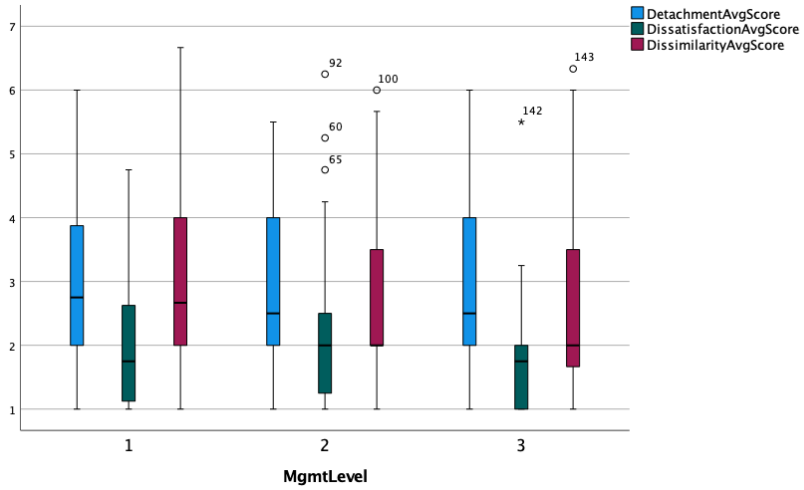
Assumption 4

The fourth assumption for a one-way MANOVA is that there should be no univariate or multivariate outliers (Laerd Statistics, 2015). Figure 2 displays a boxplot of the TCMOD scores for the three management level groups. There were univariate

outliers detected for both the dissatisfaction and dissimilarity scores. For the dissatisfaction scores, there were three outliers among middle level managers and one outlier among senior level managers. For the dissimilarity scores, there was one extreme point among middle level managers and one outlier among senior level managers. As recommended by Laerd Statistics (2015), the responses for all outliers were reviewed to ensure there were no data entry or measurement errors. Therefore, the scores were considered genuinely unusual values and were retained for data analysis (Laerd Statistics, 2015). They represent the individual perspectives of respondents and excluding them could result in falsely reporting statistically significant results (Laerd Statistics, 2015).

Figure 2

Boxplot With Middle and Senior Management Outliers



Assumption 5

The fifth assumption for a one-way MANOVA is that there needs to be multivariate normality (Laerd Statistics, 2015). Scores for detachment, dissatisfaction, and dissimilarity were normally distributed. When data fall near the linear diagonal line

when observed in a Q-Q plot with little or no curved dispersion, then they can be considered to have met the multivariate normality assumption (Laerd Statistics, 2015). Figures 3, 4, and 5 provide the Q-Q plots for each TCMOD measure. The extreme outlier score that was retained in my evaluation of the previous assumption is observed in Figure 4.

Figure 3

Detachment Q-Q Plot

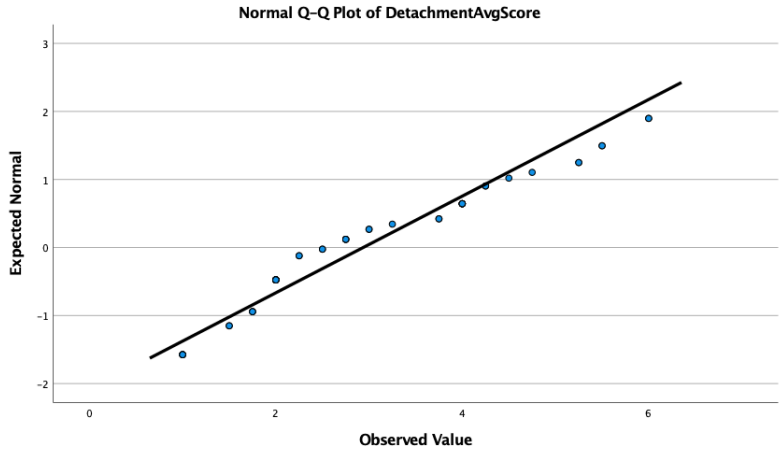


Figure 4

Dissatisfaction Q-Q Plot

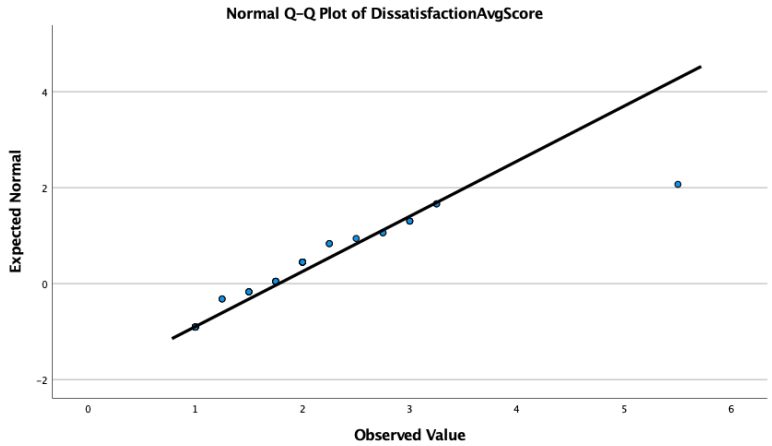
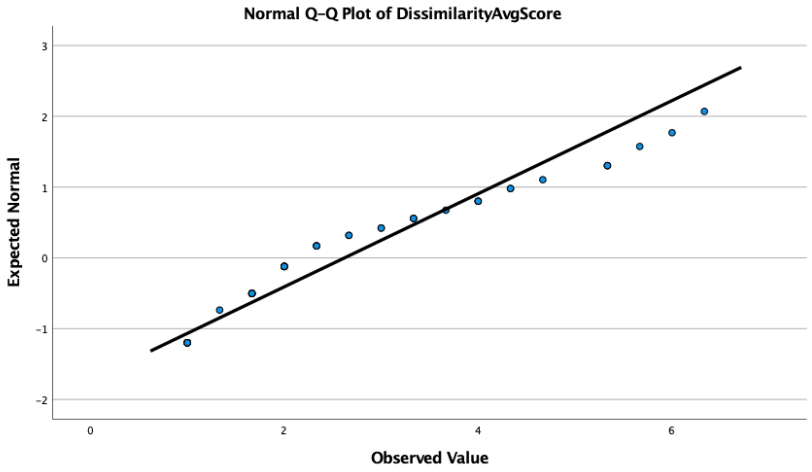


Figure 5

Dissimilarity Q-Q Plot



Assumption 6

The sixth assumption for a one-way MANOVA is that there should be no multicollinearity (Laerd Statistics, 2015). Dependent variables should be moderately correlated, but not with a Pearson correlation higher than $r = 0.9$. A bivariate analysis was run for each pair of dependent variables: detachment and dissatisfaction, detachment and dissimilarity, and dissatisfaction and dissimilarity. Figure 6 shows a Pearson correlation of $r = .590$ between detachment and dissatisfaction. Figure 7 shows a Pearson correlation of $r = .635$ between detachment and dissimilarity. Figure 8 shows a Pearson correlation of $r = .478$ between dissatisfaction and dissimilarity. Because all pair combinations of dependent variables show moderate correlation, this assumption was met (Laerd Statistics, 2015).

Table 3

Detachment/Dissatisfaction Correlation

		Detachment AvgScore	Dissatisfaction AvgScore
DetachmentAvgScore	Pearson Correlation	1	.590**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		<.001
	N	153	153
DissatisfactionAvgScore	Pearson Correlation	.590**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	
	N	153	153

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4

Detachment/Dissimilarity Correlation

		Detachment AvgScore	Dissimilarity AvgScore
DetachmentAvgScore	Pearson Correlation	1	.635**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		<.001
	N	153	153
DissimilarityAvgScore	Pearson Correlation	.635**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	
	N	153	153

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 5

Dissatisfaction/Dissimilarity Correlation

		Dissatisfaction AvgScore	Dissimilarity AvgScore
DissatisfactionAvgScore	Pearson Correlation	1	.478**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		<.001
	N	153	153
DissimilarityAvgScore	Pearson Correlation	.478**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	
	N	153	153

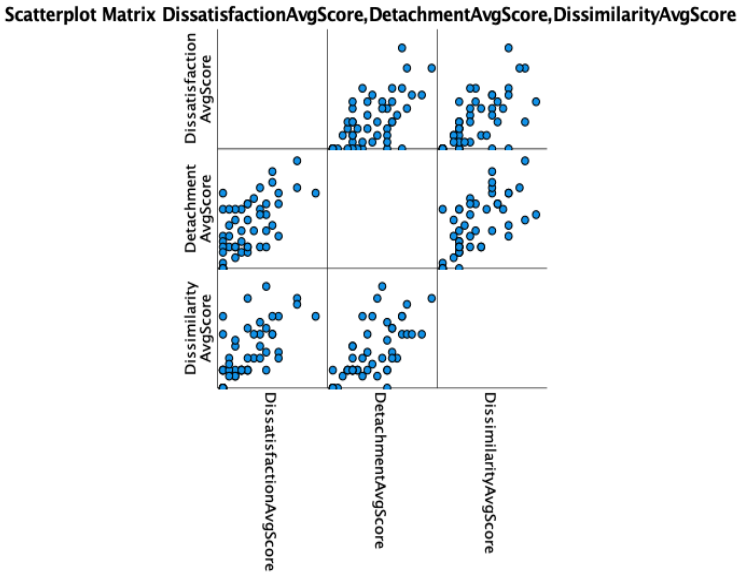
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Assumption 7

The seventh assumption for a one-way MANOVA is that there should be a linear relationship between the dependent variables for each group of the independent variable (Laerd Statistics, 2015). The scatterplot matrix provided in Figure 9 shows the linear relationship across all three dependent variables.

Figure 6

Scatterplot Matrix



Assumption 8

The eighth assumption for a one-way MANOVA is that there is an adequate sample size (Laerd Statistics, 2015). The sample was $N = 153$ with $n = 51$ for each of the three groups. This number satisfied the sample estimate for the study as determined by my G*Power sample estimate provided in Chapter 3.

Assumption 9

The ninth assumption for a one-way MANOVA is that there should be equality of variance as tested by the Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices (Laerd Statistics, 2015). The Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices tests the null hypothesis that the observed covariance matrices of the dependent variables are equal across the independent variable groups. As shown in Figure 10, the Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices was not significant ($p = .097$) and the equality of variance

assumption was evaluated as met.

Table 6

Box's Test of Equality

Box's M	19.210
F	1.554
df1	12
df2	109038.462
Sig.	.097

Assumption 10

The tenth assumption for a one-way MANOVA is that there should be homogeneity of variances (Laerd Statistics, 2015). The Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances tests the null hypothesis that error variance across the dependent variable is equal across the groups. As shown in Figure 11, the homogeneity of variances assumption was evaluated as met because the Levene's test results were not statistically significant for any of the TCMOD measures and the null hypothesis could not be rejected.

Table 7

Levene's Test of Equality

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Detachment AvgScore	Based on Mean	.730	2	150	.484
	Based on Median	.486	2	150	.616
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	.486	2	142.450	.616
	Based on trimmed mean	.648	2	150	.525
Dissatisfaction AvgScore	Based on Mean	.739	2	150	.479
	Based on Median	.482	2	150	.619
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	.482	2	132.342	.619
	Based on trimmed mean	.505	2	150	.604
Dissimilarity AvgScore	Based on Mean	1.032	2	150	.359
	Based on Median	.543	2	150	.582
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	.543	2	145.439	.582
	Based on trimmed mean	.933	2	150	.396

Results

The results of the one-way MANOVA are displayed in Figure 12. Observing the output row for Wilks' Lamda, the one-way MANOVA difference was not statistically significant for the management levels on the three combined dependent variables, $F(6, 296) = 1.095$, $p = .365$; Wilks' $\Lambda = .957$; partial $\eta 2 = .022$. Based on this test's results, only 2.2% of the variability in TCMOD scores can be related to the management level and the null hypothesis of no significant difference could not be rejected.

Table 8

One-way MANOVA Results

Effect		Value	F	Hypo-thesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.858	297.631[b]	3.000	148.000	<.001	.858
	Wilks' Lambda	.142	297.631[b]	3.000	148.000	<.001	.858
	Hotelling's Trace	6.033	297.631[b]	3.000	148.000	<.001	.858
	Roy's Largest Root	6.033	297.631[b]	3.000	148.000	<.001	.858
Mgmt Level	Pillai's Trace	.043	1.099	6.000	298.000	.363	.022
	Wilks' Lambda	.957	1.095[b]	6.000	296.000	.365	.022
	Hotelling's Trace	.045	1.091	6.000	294.000	.367	.022
	Roy's Largest Root	.034	1.704[c]	3.000	149.000	.169	.033

As suggested by Laerd Statistics (2015), if the Pearson correlation is suspected to exceed more than moderate levels across the dependent variable subscales, then researchers can test for nuanced differences using a one-way ANOVA. Because the Pearson correlations ranged from $r = .48$ (dissatisfaction & dissimilarity) to $r = .64$ (detachment & dissimilarity), I ran the one-way ANOVA to further test for nuanced differences between the management level subgroups on each of the three component measures of disidentification. Provided in Figure 13, the one-way ANOVA test results of no significance supported the initial findings of the one-way MANOVA. There were no statistically significant differences between the three groups on the TCMOD measures.

Table 9

One-way ANOVA Results

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	Detachment AvgScore	.035[a]	2	.018	.010	.990	.000
	Dissatisfaction AvgScore	2.679[b]	2	1.339	1.382	.254	.018
	Dissimilarity AvgScore	2.603[c]	2	1.301	.620	.540	.008
Intercept	Detachment AvgScore	1300.105	1	1300.105	766.314	<.001	.836
	Dissatisfaction AvgScore	585.298	1	585.298	604.082	<.001	.801
	Dissimilarity AvgScore	1165.787	1	1165.787	555.041	<.001	.787
Mgmt Level	Detachment AvgScore	.035	2	.018	.010	.990	.000
	Dissatisfaction AvgScore	2.679	2	1.339	1.382	.254	.018
	Dissimilarity AvgScore	2.603	2	1.301	.620	.540	.008
Error	Detachment AvgScore	254.485	150	1.697			
	Dissatisfaction AvgScore	145.336	150	.969			
	Dissimilarity AvgScore	315.054	150	2.100			
Total	Detachment AvgScore	1554.625	153				
	Dissatisfaction AvgScore	733.313	153				
	Dissimilarity AvgScore	1483.444	153				
Corrected Total	Detachment AvgScore	254.520	152				
	Dissatisfaction AvgScore	148.015	152				
	Dissimilarity AvgScore	317.657	152				

Summary

A one-way MANOVA was conducted to determine whether there was a statistical difference in the TCMOD scores between low, middle, and senior level women managers in higher education institutions. Data were collected through an anonymous survey and analyzed to determine whether the null hypothesis could be accepted or rejected.

The research question in this study sought to determine whether there were differences in the detachment, dissatisfaction, and dissimilarity TCMOD scores based on women's self-identified management levels (low, mid, or senior) in higher education institutions? The findings indicated no statistically significant difference in the TCMOD scores between low, middle, and senior level women managers in higher education institutions. The non-significant results of the one-way MANOVA were supported by follow-up testing using a one-way ANOVA. Therefore, the null hypothesis of no significant difference in the detachment, dissatisfaction, and dissimilarity TCMOD scores between the women's self-identified management levels (low, mid, or senior0 in higher education institutions could not be rejected. In Chapter 5, there will be further discussion regarding the interpretation of these findings, limitations of the study, recommendations for future research, and implications.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

The purpose of this causal-comparative quantitative study was to investigate the differences in the detachment, dissatisfaction, and dissimilarity scores as measured with the TCMOD between low, mid, and senior-level women managers in higher education institutions. A web-based survey was distributed to women managers working in higher education institutions through social media platforms and the Walden University participant pool and completed anonymously. It included all 11 items of the TCMOD (Becker & Tausch, 2014a) as well as three demographic questions where participants would self-identify their gender, employer, and management level. The target population was women managers working in higher education institutions. Survey results were analyzed with a one-way MANOVA using SPSS and a follow-up one-way ANOVA was used to confirm the findings of no statistical significance.

Interpretation of the Findings

Women's interpersonal relationships affect their experiences in the workplace. Career development and psychological well-being are positively affected by solidarity among women (Davidson, 2018). Especially in academia, women's friendships have been found to counter the effects of workplace marginalization (Kaeppel et al., 2020). Perceived similarity is a critical element of friendship for members of marginalized groups (Pillemer & Rothbard, 2018). The findings of this study indicate that the ingroup disidentification components of detachment, dissatisfaction, and dissimilarity do not differ among women managers in higher education institutions. This suggests that the perceived similarity that is critical to friendships within marginalized groups exists across

management levels for women managers in higher education institutions (see Pillemer & Rothbard, 2018).

Negative relationships can adversely affect women in the workplace as well. Self-group distancing and low gender identification are associated with negative workplace behaviors (Domen et al., 2020). Relational aggression and queen bee behavior have been exhibited by women in higher education (Allen & Flood, 2018; Faniko et al., 2020). These behaviors have been shown to negatively affect the career and management experiences of women (Allen & Flood, 2018; Davidson, 2018; Faniko et al., 2017; Gabriel et al., 2018; Harvey, 2018; O'Neil et al., 2018). The results of this study suggest that low gender identification is not higher among senior-level managers. Therefore, it disconfirms previous research that women are exhibiting negative workplace behaviors due to low gender identification.

The basic tenet of social identity theory is that individuals strive toward a positive self-concept (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). This self-concept is comprised of both personal identity and social identity (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Gender group identification is a key component of an individual's social identity (Rodriguez, 2019). However, when an individual is devalued based on their membership in a certain group, they may cope by distancing themselves (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Well-being and motivation are lower among women who distanced themselves from other women (Veldman et al., 2021). However, self-group distancing is a way for individuals to achieve upward mobility (Veelen et al., 2020). Because the social mobility of contemporary society may result in members of traditionally low-status groups achieving high-status professional positions,

individuals may experience conflicting identities (Chipeaux et al., 2017). To ease cognitive dissonance, individuals have been found to assimilate with the high-status group and show negative attitudes toward the low-status group. Additionally, members of marginalized groups have been found to use self-group distancing to reconcile the cognitive dissonance that occurs when they hold positions of power (Chipeaux et al., 2017; Schmader & Sedikides, 2018; van Veelen et al., 2020).

The findings of this study extend the knowledge in this area. There were no significant differences in the detachment, dissatisfaction, or dissimilarity TCMOD scores of low, middle, and senior level women managers in higher education institutions. For the component of detachment, the difference between low-level and senior-level women managers was $M = 2.9069$ and $M = 2.9363$, respectively. For the component of dissatisfaction, the difference between low-level and senior-level women managers was $M = 1.9902$ and $M = 1.7794$, respectively. For the component of dissimilarity, the difference between low-level and senior-level women managers was $M = 2.9346$ and $M = 2.6209$, respectively. This finding suggests that as women advance in their higher education careers, they do not distance themselves from other women, which is a positive finding for the support of advancement of women in higher education by their same-gender colleagues.

Social identity threat occurs when a person is devalued based on their membership in a certain group. Because women are underrepresented in academia and it is considered a male-dominated field, it poses a threat to women's social identity (Surna, 2018; Veldman et al., 2021). When there is a greater level of identity threat, women

distance themselves from other women (Veldman et al., 2021). However, in situations where women were underrepresented, they showed preferential attention to their ingroup (Domen et al., 2020). The incidence of ingroup disidentification has been found to be higher among women in senior management positions (Faniko et al., 2020). Advanced career stages have also been associated with higher levels of masculinity and increased self-group distancing by women (Faniko et al., 2020). This study disconfirms many of these findings since women at higher levels of management within higher education institutions did not score higher on the detachment, dissatisfaction, and dissimilarity TCMOD scores.

Limitations of the Study

Generalizability is one limitation of this study. Women's experiences can vary greatly among individuals and across higher education institutions. Additionally, confounding variables may have influenced the responses of study participants. For these reasons, it is not possible to generalize the results of this study to all women managers in higher education institutions.

Internal validity is another limitation of this study. Women in senior management positions represented only 10.25% of the responses collected. It is possible that they were less likely to complete the survey, which potentially affects internal validity. However, it is also possible that because there are fewer senior management positions overall, a smaller number of responses from this group can be expected. Response bias also poses a threat to the internal validity of this study. It is possible that respondents did not carefully read or understand the descriptions for each management level and selected an inaccurate

response.

Recommendations

The findings of this study revealed areas of potential for future research. One recommendation would be to explore the possible effects of covariates. Age, race, and socioeconomic status are independent variables that could influence participants' responses on the detachment, dissatisfaction, and dissimilarity TCMOD scores. Researchers could explore possible differences between women who are members of other marginalized groups compared to those who are not. Additionally, the type of higher education institution for which women managers work could be explored. There may be differences identified between 2-year and 4-year or public and private institutions. This type of research would help to establish systemic issues compared to individual experiences.

This study could also be replicated with a couple of variations. First, the addition of a mixed-methods approach would provide another layer of data. After collecting survey responses, any outliers could be further explored through interviews. This would give additional insight into how the individual experiences of women managers in higher education institutions may differ. This same study could also be replicated with men to examine potential gender differences between men and women managers in higher education institutions.

Implications

The results of this study are important because they provide more information about the differences between the specific dimensions of ingroup disidentification and

women's management levels in higher education institutions. Previous research found that women often disidentify from other women and the factors contributing to ingroup disidentification (Faniko et al., 2020; Veldman et al., 2021). However, these findings suggest that disidentification is not prevalent among women managers in higher education institutions. They also suggest that women are not distancing themselves from other women as they advance in their higher education careers. The findings of this study provide valuable data to higher education institutions seeking to increase the representation of women in management roles. The results contradict findings from other studies that senior women managers in higher education experience greater gender disidentification. It suggests that the lack of female representation at the senior level of leadership may not be attributed to individual barriers. This study might lead to positive social change because it suggests that organizational and societal barriers, rather than individual barriers, must be further explored by decision-makers who seek to increase the representation of women in senior leadership positions.

Conclusion

The underrepresentation of women in academia has been linked to a number of barriers (Diehl & Dubinski, 2017). The meso (organizational) barrier related to women's relationships with each other women is closely tied to gender group identification (Kaeppel et al., 2020; Pillemer & Rothbard, 2018). However, there is limited research on the ingroup disidentification of women managers, especially in higher education institutions. Inconsistent with previous research, the results of this study found no statistically significant differences in the detachment, dissatisfaction, and dissimilarity

TCMOD scores of women managers in higher education institutions. These results should be considered by decision makers in higher education institutions who seek to increase the number of women in senior leadership roles. It is important to look beyond micro-level barriers and consider the ways in which meso-level and macro-level barriers may be preventing women from advancing in their higher education careers.

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Appendix A: Three-Component Measure of Disidentification

PsycTESTS®

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Three-component Measure of Disidentification

Items

Detachment

I feel a distance between myself and this group. (Ich habe ein distanziertes Verhältnis zu dieser Gruppe.)

I feel detached from this group. (Ich fühle mich von dieser Gruppe abgesondert.)

I feel alienated from this group. (Ich fühle mich von dieser Gruppe entfremdet.)

I feel disloyal to this group. (Ich bin gegenüber dieser Gruppe nicht loyal. This item was excluded)

Dissatisfaction

I'm unhappy about being a member of this group. (Ich bin unglücklich darüber, dass ich dieser Gruppe angehöre.)

I regret that I belong to this group. (Ich bedaure, dass ich dieser Gruppe angehöre.)

I wish I had nothing to do with this group. (Ich wünschte, ich hätte mit dieser Gruppe nichts zu tun.)

Being in this group gives me a bad feeling. (In dieser Gruppe zu sein gibt mir ein schlechtes Gefühl.)

Dissimilarity

I have nothing in common with most members of this group. (Mit den meisten Personen aus dieser Gruppe habe ich nichts gemeinsam.)

I'm dissimilar to the average person of this group. (Ich bin der durchschnittlichen Person dieser Gruppe unähnlich.)

I'm completely different from other members of this group. (Ich bin ganz anders als die meisten Mitglieder dieser Gruppe.)

Note: Items are rated on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

Appendix B: Demographic Questions

1. Do you work for a higher education institution? ( ) Yes ( ) No
2. Do you hold a management position? ( ) Yes ( ) No
3. Which of the following best describes your management level within your institution? (*Please read descriptions*):

    - Low - characterized by technical or operational duties and typically supervise staff, students, programs or processes
    - Middle - characterized by managerial or tactical duties and consists of positions such as, directors, assistant/associate deans, and other professional staff
    - Senior - characterized by strategic duties and consists of positions such as presidents, provosts, deans, and chief financial officers