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Senior Army Women's Leader Behaviors and Their Civilian Career Transition

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This is to certify that the doctoral dissertation by

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Abstract

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MS, Central Michigan University 1997

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Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

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Abstract

Female retired Army colonels (FRACs) have significant potential to contribute to civilian organizations. To take advantage of that talent, it is important to have a better understanding of their behaviors based on their dual identities as women and leaders. The purpose of this qualitative case study was to understand the under researched factors accounting for the development of FRACs' leader behaviors and the transfer of those behaviors to civilian careers. The 4 underlying meta categories of leadership behavior formed the conceptual framework. The theory of planned behavior was used to explore potential influences on FRAC leader behavior development. The 3 research questions focused on how FRACs developed and used their leader behaviors in their military and civilian careers. Eight FRACs and 6 civilian managers participated in semistructured interviews for this study. The data were analyzed to discern categories and themes to determine the influences that contributed to FRAC leader behavior development. My results indicated FRACs developed leader behaviors through experiential learning, overachieving, and blending masculine and feminine behaviors. The results also suggest that in civilian positions, FRACs employed task-oriented leadership behaviors developed in the military while expanding use of external-oriented leadership behaviors. Consistent Army leader training on the use of blended feminine and masculine leadership behaviors is recommended. Positive social change may result from Army senior leaders and civilian managers using this rich understanding of the FRAC leadership behaviors for leader accession, development, and retention programs.

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Dedication

I dedicate this work to the people who made it possible for me to complete this incredible educational journey. First, I want to thank my son, Jay Edmonds, who has always been my biggest supporter. I sought to be a role model and to make him proud. I love him and am so proud of the amazing man he has become. He is the true writer in this family and I know someday I will be attending one of his book signings.

I want to thank my mom, Jan, who has always been by my side during successes and challenges. I want to thank my dad, Lee, who always served as an example of doing whatever it took to get the job done and taking care of his family and coworkers. I want to thank my siblings Michael, Alice, and Ellen for being patient with me as I missed family events due to my Army career and then due to my doctoral studies. We are stronger together than each of us is alone.

A special thank you to the female retired Army colonels (FRACs) who participated in the study. I am so proud to stand alongside you. You were the inspiration for this study. We may not wear the Army uniform anymore, but we will always be sisters forged in steel. Thank you also to the senior managers who dedicated their time to support this study and wisely hired the FRACs into your organizations. Thank you to my friends and coworkers for cheering me on during this journey and for forcing me to occasionally step away from my studies and have some fun.

I am blessed to live in this incredible country and to have served this Nation for 27 years. I thank God for the love, grace, and joy in my heart.

Acknowledgments

Completing a PhD requires a great amount of academic rigor, focus, and support. The faculty and staff at Walden University were unfailingly supportive and professional. I want to first thank my dissertation chairperson, Dr. Lilburn Hoehn, for his support, encouragement, sense of humor, and quality feedback. Dr. Hoehn was always there to cheer us on and remind us that we were capable of finishing our dissertations and then starting the next chapter in our lives. Thank you to Dr. Jean Gordon for being a knowledgeable and positive committee member. I would also like to thank Dr. Doron Zilbershtein who initially set me on a successful dissertation path and selflessly shared his enthusiasm and knowledge. I acknowledge Dr. Walter McCollum, my University Research Reviewer, for his suggestions for improvement.

It was a pleasure to share the comradery of students traveling this same doctoral path. I had an amazing group of bright, caring, and dedicated people in my dissertation-writing cohort. We came from all over the world, with different professional backgrounds, and different goals for the future. We grew as a team and used our energy and passion to share our interests, frustrations, and triumphs. I wish all of you the best.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

The United States Army leadership culture reflects its mission, rank structure, values, hierarchical framework, and command and control functions (U.S Army, 2012a, 2012b). Masculine leaders, from General Washington, General Patton, General Marshall, to General Dempsey, epitomize the United States Army leadership and profession (U.S. Army, 2013). Throughout the history of American conflicts, wars, and peacetime women have served in Army auxiliary organizations and support roles with great effect and distinction (Manning, 2013). When the U.S. Congress disbanded the Women's Army Corps in 1978, it was the first time women served alongside males as US Army soldiers and leaders (White House, 2009). The diversity of the Army officer corps has increased in the 38 years since Congress integrated women. However, female officers remain less likely to be in the senior officer ranks than in the junior officer ranks (Rand, 2012).

Historically, the U.S. military officer corps diversity has increased (Lim, Cho, and Curry, 2008), yet, female officers are less likely to be in the senior officer ranks (colonel through general ranks) than in the junior officer ranks of lieutenant, captain, major, and lieutenant colonel (Rand, 2012). In 2015, women constituted 18% of the total Army officer ranks and 11.4% of the senior officer grade of full colonel or 0-6 (Department of Defense [DOD], 2015). On net, female entrants into the Army are less likely to achieve the rank of colonel than are their male counterparts (Rand, 2012). The Army continues to be a male-dominated organization and culture and yet in spite of documented barriers and restrictions, a certain percentage of women make it to the highest levels of Army officer ranks (Defense Manpower Data Center [DMDC], 2015).

Army officers selected for successive promotions usually achieve the rank of colonel after 22 years of service (DOD, 2014a). After serving at that grade for 3 years, a colonel is eligible to retire at that rank (GPO, 2015). Unless selected for promotion to general officer, a colonel must retire from the Army prior to reaching 30 years of service (U.S. Army, 2014a). The women who reach the rank of colonel have led multiple small and large organizations of men and women in peacetime and war. The leader behaviors developed by female retired army colonels (FRACs) can transfer from their military career to a civilian career. The focus of this dissertation is to increase understanding in how those leader behaviors develop and how they then transfer to post military retirement careers.

Chapter 1 includes all the foundational elements of this study. The chapter begins with background and introduction of the core research idea. The essential concept of this research, the merger of knowledge from two schools of thought forms the preface to the following discussion. I aligned and reinforced the problem statement with the purpose statement. Serving as the study framework, the theoretical framework leads to the section of the research questions. Following the research question section, a set of key definitions clarifies the content of this study. A summary of the significance of the study is included toward the end of the chapter. Chapter 1 concludes with a summary of the chapter.

Background of the Study

Since 2009, numerous benchmarking studies by the U.S. Army, the DOD (2015), and external organizations (Denver University, 2013; Rand, 2012; White House, 2009; WIM, 2013) addressed the organizational and cultural challenges faced by women in the

Army. In spite of the organizational and cultural focused research conducted, there is a gap in the knowledge about how women develop their leader behaviors during their Army careers. The research gap includes information and knowledge on the individual factors that influence senior women officers' leader behavioral development in the Army.

The research gap includes how the women developed leader behaviors, why they used specific behaviors, the context for the behavior use, when they used specific behaviors, how well the behaviors worked, and the outcomes of their use. An officer's responsibilities differ from other Army leadership practices by the professional knowledge required, in the responsibility accepted, and in the consequences resulting from failure to act or ineptitude (U.S. Army, 2012a, 2012b). The Department of the Army (DA, 2014) defines those who achieve the grade of Army colonel as a select few who constitute the elite of the officer corps. Little research exists on the leader behaviors of Army colonels, and no research exists on the 11% who constitute women colonels. It is important to know how women who achieve the rank of Army colonel develop leader behaviors and how those behaviors transfer to follow-on civilian careers. It is also important to understand how private sector senior managers perceive the FRACs' leader behaviors.

The women who ascend to the rank of colonel, like all officers below the general officer level, must retire at or before they reach 30 years of service (DA, 2014). At the time of their military retirement, most colonels are approximately 50 years old and seek a second career in the civilian sector. These FRACs, like all military veterans, enter a job market where less than 0.5% of the U.S. population served in the U.S. armed forces at

any given time (Pew, 2011). By comparison, during the World War II years (1941-1945) 9% of the U.S. population had served in the military at some point in their lives (Pew, 2011). Given the scarcity of military experience in the US population, the FRACs enter a civilian job market where hiring authorities likely possess little first-hand knowledge of senior Army leader behaviors and experiences.

A select few attain the grade of Army colonel and this population constitutes the elite of the officer corps (U.S. Army, 2014a). The women who reach the rank of colonel have a great deal to contribute to a civilian organization. To avoid the waste of that talent, it is important to learn more about the transition of FRAC leader behaviors from the military to civilian life and work. Understanding how company senior managers perceive the leader behaviors senior officers developed over a protracted Army career and translate that value to their organizations is an area of this study.

Problem Statement

In 2015, women constituted a token level, 11%, of the total U.S. Army senior officer grade of full colonel (Koeszegil, Zedlacher, & Hudribusch, 2014; DOD, 2015). The Army continues to be a male-dominated organization and culture and yet in spite of documented barriers and restrictions (De Angelis, Sandhoff, Bonner, & Segal, 2013), a certain percentage of women successfully navigate the environment and make it to the highest levels of Army officer ranks. The specific problem explored in this qualitative case study was the gap in understanding how women who achieved the rank of Army colonel developed their leader behaviors and subsequently applied those behaviors to the civilian job market after military retirement. Women who reach the rank of colonel have

have significant potential to contribute to civilian organizations. To take advantage of that talent, it is important to learn more about their leader behaviors and the transfer of those behaviors from the military to civilian life and work.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this multiple case study is to understand the relationships between how female retired Army Colonels (FRACs) developed their leader behaviors and how they transferred those behaviors to a civilian career. Leader behavior is the behaviors used to influence and facilitate people to accomplish shared objectives by providing purpose, goals, and motivation (U.S. Army, 2012a, 2012b; Yukl, 2012).

Through this research, I sought to provide a rich understanding of the FRAC leader behaviors and experiences for Army senior leadership to use in leader assessment and development programs. The results of this study may help military and private sector organizations reassess current leader assessment and development practices in order to encourage and nurture an environment more conducive to the promotion of more qualified women to leadership positions. This research will also serve as a guide for women planning to pursue a civilian career after service in the Army. Based on the results of this research, the existing gap in leader behavior research of Army women officers was narrowed. Lastly, the prospects for future research in women and leader behavior in male-dominant environments is highlighted.

Research Questions

I used the following research questions to guide this investigation to gain a deeper understanding of how women Army officers develop leader behaviors and how those

behaviors transfer to their post military careers. The interview questions focused on obtaining the unique information possessed by the participants (Stake, 2010). The first two research questions were intended for the FRAC participants while the third research question was intended for the senior managers.

Research Question 1: How do women develop their individual leader behaviors during their Army career?

Research Question 2: What are the perceived relationships between senior Army women's leader behaviors and their roles in follow-on civilian careers?

Research Question 3: When considered for possible employment, how do private sector senior managers perceive the leader behaviors women developed during their Army careers?

These questions are appropriate for the present research because they are broad, open-ended, and focus attention on data collection.

Theoretical Foundation

Yin (2014) emphasized the benefit of theoretical propositions to guide case study data collection and management. The role of theory development, prior to the conduct of any data collection, is one point of difference between case study and other qualitative methods such as ethnography and phenomenology (Yin, 2014). Included in the literature review, is the description of how the theory of planned behavior (TPB) (Ajzen, 1991) forms the theoretical foundation for the study.

The TPB is a model to explore how human action is guided (Ajzen, 1991). The TPB consists of three factors, behavioral, normative, and control beliefs that influence an

individual's behavioral intention (Ajzen, 1991). Ajzen (2012) stated that behavioral intentions influence actions and behaviors, namely, the attitude of the individual regarding the act, including the consequences of the behavior; the subjective norm, or the perceptions of those valued as important to the individual; and perceived behavioral control, or the amount of effort and level of ability required to complete the activity. Figure 1 shows the TPB applied to the decision to use a leader behavior.

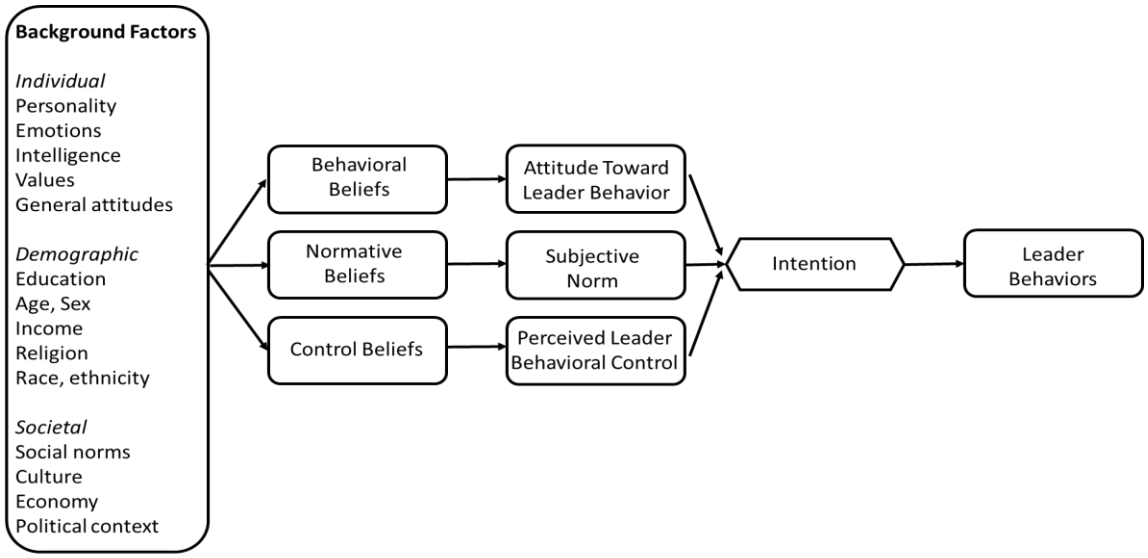

Figure 1. My application of the Theory of Planned Behavior model to leadership behavior based upon background contextual factors that consist of behavioral, normative, and control beliefs that influence an individual's leadership behavioral intention. (Azjen, 2006; 2010; Ajzen, I., & Klobas, J., 2013; Leo, 2014; Stoffers & Mordant-Dols, 2015).

The TPB (Ajzen, 1991) forms a useful framework to explore potential influences of FRACs to adopt certain leadership behaviors. My intent was to apply the TPB to study how FRACs come to believe that a leadership behavior is useful to them and how they apply those behaviors in their post military careers. Ajzen (1991) quantitatively tested the three beliefs and addressed individual's attitude toward the subject behavior; the importance placed on individual norms and their perception of behavioral control.

Researchers have applied the TPB model using quantitative methods to the fields of healthcare, economics, business, education, politics, advertising, and public relations behavior (Ajzen, 2013; Ajzen & Klobas, 2013; deLeeuw, 2015; Sial, Zulfiqur, Kousar, & Habib, 2014; Stoffers & Mordant-Dols, 2015). The TPB has not been widely applied to the leadership field (Leo, 2014; Stoffers & Mordant-Dols, 2015). The TPB could imply that the actions of leaders are affected by the way they perceived change based on their perceptions and the perceptions of those around them, as well as the amount of effort the change would require to implement it in the organization (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010).

Conceptual Framework

In qualitative research, the conceptual framework can provide equilibrium between the researcher's bias, orientation, and emerging findings (Maxwell, 2013). The central phenomenon studied is to understand how FRACs developed leader behaviors and how those behaviors transfer to careers after the military. While many definitions exist, Kotter's (2001) definition of effective leadership is comprehensive and addresses the challenges leaders face in volatile and ambiguous environments. According to Kotter (2001), effective leadership requires a future vision and a willingness to take risks while it aligns people to communicate, to build coalitions, and to form strong informal networks. It also requires consistent recognition and rewards (Kotter). Leadership inspires and motivates followers by appealing to their needs, values, and emotions essential to influence leadership initiatives (Yukl, 2013). Leadership requires the acknowledgment of oneself as a leader and the recognition and approval of leadership in others.

Leader behavior is defined as those behaviors used to influence and facilitate people to accomplish shared objectives by providing purpose, goals, and motivation (U.S. Army, 2012a; Yukl, 2012). It is difficult to extricate leader behaviors from job performance, thereby complicating the assessment of leadership and related processes (Falleson, Keller-Glaze, & Curnow, 2011). Leadership is a multifaceted phenomenon that is difficult to quantify. The explicit leadership measures are difficult to quantify, however, constructs that contribute to leadership can be measured (Block, 2014; Falleson et al., 2011). The complexity of leadership leads the researcher to explore multiple leader behavior facets.

Multiple constructs for leader behavior exist. In 2012, Yukl expanded previous work on component leader behaviors and defined four underlying dimensions or metacategories of leadership (Yukl, 2006, 2012; Yukl et al., 2002). The leadership dimensions include task-oriented behavior, relations-oriented behavior, change-oriented behavior, and external behavior. Task-oriented behaviors include problem solving, clarifying, planning, and monitoring (Yukl, 2012, 2013). Relations-oriented behaviors include supporting, clarifying, developing, and empowering (Yukl, 2012, 2013). Change-oriented behaviors include encouraging and visualizing change, inspiring innovation, and enabling group learning (Yukl, 2012, 2013). External behaviors include networking, external scanning or monitoring, and representing or lobbying (Yukl, 2012, 2013; Yukl & Van Fleet, 2002). Yukl's (2012, 2013) research supports the supposition that leaders can enrich the performance of an organization or a team by combining situationally relevant task, relations, change, and external behaviors.

Yukl's (2012) hierarchical taxonomy includes leadership behaviors employed to influence the performance of the team, work element, or organization. The metacategories and taxonomy form the conceptual framework to increase understanding of how FRAC develop their leader behaviors. Based on the information gathered from semistructured interviews, Yukl's (2012) leadership metacategories were used to gain understanding in how the different types of leadership behaviors were developed during Army careers and used in follow-on civilian careers. The semistructured interview questions relate directly to the research questions. Chapter 2 contains a more thorough explanation of Yukl's (2014) component behaviors and leader behavior metacategories.

Nature of the Study

The qualitative research approach is used to seek and gain an understanding of individual or group reasons with an emphasis on descriptions rather than numbers (Yin, 2014). Use of the multiple case study method allows one to address the problem statement by attempting to understand from the participants' point of view and reveal the meaning of their lived experiences prior to any scientific explanations (Stake, 2010). I sought to understand how FRACs develop their leader behaviors and thereby provided a rationale to investigate this contemporary phenomenon in depth. In addition, the multiple case study design was appropriate as the boundaries between the leader behavior phenomenon and the Army environment context may not be evident (Yin, 2014).

Through use of the multiple case study method for this research, I compared the data collected from 14 individual cases, eight FRACs, and six private sector senior managers, with the analysis conducted on the group of cases. The company senior

managers selected for the study had experience hiring or working with retired Army senior officers. Since it was not possible to determine the point of saturation until data collection began (Cleary, Horsfall, & Hayter, 2014), I initially identified 10 FRACs and 10 company senior managers for the study population. The output of the interviews included written interview transcripts and recorded interview information. To ensure the accuracy of transcriptions, all interviews were recorded with the participants' prior knowledge and written approval. In addition, the document review included performance evaluations provided by the FRACs that contained examples of their leader behaviors. A final source of data was the benchmark studies on military and civilian women in senior leadership roles.

Definitions

Army leader: According to the 2012 Army Doctrine Reference Publication 6-22, Leadership (p. v), an Army leader has:

> strong intellect, physical presence, professional competence, moral character and serves as a role model. An Army leader is able and willing to act decisively, within the intent and purpose of superior leaders and in the best interest of the organization.

Army officer: Either the President of the United States or the Secretary of the Army issues officers their commission and grade. An officer's commission is "granted on the basis of special trust and confidence placed in the officer's patriotism, valor, fidelity, and abilities. The officer's commission grants authority to direct subordinates and consequently, an obligation to obey superiors" (U.S. Army, 2012b, p. 2-1).

Behavioral beliefs: Beliefs about the consequences of adopting a behavior (Ajzen, 2002).

Behavioral intention: Formed by a combination of an attitude toward engaging in certain leadership (Ajzen, 2002).

Subjective norm: Beliefs about the normative expectations of other people resulting in perceived social pressure (Ajzen, 2002).

Theory of Planned Behavior: A model proposing that human action is guided by behavioral beliefs (producing attitudes), normative beliefs (producing subjective norms), and control beliefs (producing perceived behavioral control), which combine to formulate a behavioral intention leading to an actual behavior (Ajzen, 1991).

Assumptions

The following six assumptions were critical to the meaningfulness of the study. Although the FRACs interviewed had very diverse professional and personal backgrounds, they shared common experiences and leader behaviors that would help uncover the common themes relating to the research questions. I assumed the respondents would answer questions both honestly and objectively. No researcher bias or researcher error would be introduced which minimized risks. The research was in a controlled manner, so the results were credible. The assumption was that the qualitative case study approach was appropriate for the study in terms of obtaining the data needed to answer the research questions. The final assumption was that the participants would be able to provide me with the data needed to answer the research questions.

Scope and Delimitations

The study population included eight FRACs who retired from the Army more than 1 year and less than 6 years from the date of IRB approval. The time constraint ensured the participants rose through the Army ranks to colonel in the past 15 years and were subject to similar Army regulations for educational and experiential opportunities. The second set of participants included six private sector senior managers who have hired, worked with, or evaluated FRACs and observed their performance in the past 6 years. The company senior managers provide a possible source for triangulation. The length of each semistructured FRAC interview was 45-60 minutes, while the senior manager interviews were 20-30 minutes. Delimitations included that I would not evaluate individuals regarding their personal effectiveness as military or civilian personnel. I also would not evaluate military or civilian leadership training.

Limitations

The following are limitations of this study. The small sample size of eight FRACs and six company senior managers limits the transferability to an overall population. The case study is an investigation and as such, the researcher is the primary tool. The researcher may become a limiting factor in the study due to the length, detail, and costs of conducting initial interviews with eight FRACs and six senior managers. Yin (2014) cautions the case study may take too long and produce unreadable and unmanageable documents.

Several possible biases existed which might have influenced this study. I served 27 years in the Army and retired as a colonel and my biases may have affected the

participants and the analysis of the data. The respondents might not have answered the questions honestly and objectively due to unforeseen personal or professional reasons. In addition, the participants might not have been able to provide the data needed to answer the research questions.

To reduce the risk of personal bias, validation techniques such as data triangulation and member checking occurred. Data triangulation allows a researcher to explore multiple perspectives of the same phenomenon (Fusch & Ness, 2015). Data triangulation can strengthen the validity of the study results (Cope, 2013). Another limitation might have been my relationship with the participants. The population of FRACs was very small, and the researcher's familiarity with participants could bias the perceptions of data collected. Researchers should identify and seek to control bias, or it could influence the interactions during the data collection and analysis. A final limitation was the self-reporting data collection used in the study. I employed no objective measures to substantiate the participant responses. Based on the qualitative nature of this study, this limitation could not be alleviated.

Significance of the Study

This study is unique, as I addressed an under researched area of leader behavior development with a female population that attained senior Army leadership levels while serving in a hierarchical, male-dominated, and physically demanding environment. In addition, this project included the possible implications for the women's leader behaviors to transition to civilian careers. This study is of value to leadership research, as it will provide much needed insights into senior women leader behaviors. The results may have

significant implications for women considering joining or currently serving in the Army, Army leadership, and senior women leaders. Insights from this study should inform private sector senior leaders on the applicability of military women's leadership behavior to civilian leader roles.

Significance to Practice

Current and future Army leaders want to know how to be successful leaders (U.S. Army, 2012). There is an ongoing concern within the DOD about the military's leadership diversity, especially in the more senior officer corps (Rand, 2012). There are persistent beliefs that differences in male versus female leadership exist and the consequent view that other different determinants of leader effectiveness also exist (Arditi, Gluch, & Holmdahl, 2013; Crites, Dickson, & Lorenz, 2015). With this study, I provided a rich understanding of the FRAC leader behaviors and experiences for Army senior leadership to use in leader accession, development, and retention programs. As Army and civilian leaders consider the behaviors required or suitable for position assignments and promotion qualification, the results of this research may inform that process.

Significance to Theory

Ajzen (1991) applied the TPB as a quantitative framework. The results of this research indicate the applicability of the TPB as a theoretical framework for qualitative research. The TPB applied to a leadership behavior study would broaden the use of that theoretical framework (Westaby, Probst, & Lee, 2010). The results show a shaping of women's leader behavior by their dual identities as leaders and women and their potential

to provide nontraditional and effective leadership, thereby broadening the scope of contemporary leadership studies (Eagly & Chin, 2010).

Significance to Social Change

Social change based on this study could occur in the US military and the private sectors. An increase in an Army accession of women officers may result in a proportionally higher number of senior female officers, but may not increase the overall percentage in relation to senior male officers. Social and cultural change may occur when the Army and private sector leaders understand, encourage, and foster the leader behaviors that women developed to ascend to the senior level. Further, understanding the leader behaviors women developed in ascending to a senior military rank may inform private sector employers that these women have much to offer in a civilian leadership position. Social change may occur based on the women who ascended to a senior rank. Those in junior ranks may learn from the results and have more knowledge about how FRAC leadership behaviors formed and modified as they progressed to senior positions. Those in the private sector may understand that women who achieved the rank of Army colonel have much to offer, and this could help increase the number of women in high-level leadership positions in private sector organizations.

Summary and Transition

In Chapter 1, I have described the need to increase understanding of how FRACs develop their leader behaviors. There is a gap in the knowledge about how Army women develop their leader behaviors, the context for the behavior use, and the outcomes of their

use. In this study, I investigated how FRACs transferred the leader behaviors, developed during their Army careers, to follow-on civilian careers.

Chapter 2 includes a review of relevant literature that creates the foundation upon which I will build this study. The purpose of the literature review is to provide the reader with an increased understanding of the research conducted on leadership behavior development. To form the framework to analyze components of the study, I explore the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) (Ajzen, 1991; Fishbein & Ajzen, 2011) and Yukl's (2012) metacategories of leadership behavior. I also provide a review of behavior transfer, women in leader roles, military leadership studies, and the influence of male-dominant workplaces in relation to the research questions.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Since 2009, several studies by the U.S. Army, the DOD (2012), and external organizations (Denver University, 2013; Rand, 2012; White House, 2009) have addressed the organizational and cultural challenges faced by women officers in the Army. In spite of the organizational and cultural focused research conducted, research gaps exist on the leader behaviors developed by women officers and the knowledge about how women transfer the leader behaviors developed during their Army careers to civilian careers.

The specific problem explored in this study was the gap in understanding how women who achieved the rank of Army colonel developed their leader behaviors and subsequently applied those behaviors to the civilian job market after military retirement. Women who reach the rank of colonel have a great deal to contribute to a civilian organization. To avoid wasting the talent of FRACs, it is important to learn more about their leader behaviors and the transfer of those behaviors from the military to civilian life and work.

The purpose of this multiple case study was to understand the relationships between how FRACs developed their leader behaviors and how they transferred those behaviors to a civilian career. The definition of leader behavior is those behaviors used to influence and facilitate people to accomplish shared objectives by providing purpose, goals, and motivation (U.S. Army, 2012a; Yukl, 2012). In addition, the findings of this study include the perceptions of private sector senior managers about this group of women, their transition to a civilian career, and their leadership effectiveness and potential.

This chapter begins with a review of the literature concerned with the relevant theoretical foundation and conceptual framework. The chapter content includes leadership definitions, leader behavior research, gender and leadership trends, foundational leadership research, Army leadership and culture, women officers, male-dominated work environments, senior women leaders, and career transition. The chapter contains five major sections: (a) theoretical foundation, (b) conceptual framework, (c) leadership, (d) U.S. Army, and (e) career transition.

Literature Search Strategy

The literature review comprises the research questions of interest, the keywords, and exclusion criteria. The literature review results help to answer six questions: Which theories might support this qualitative study? Which aspects of gender and leadership behavior have been researched? What is the extent of research on Army leaders? Which aspects of women's leadership behaviors in male-dominated work environments have been researched? What is the extent of research on women Army officers? What is the scope of research on second careers of military retirees? My interest was in finding out what themes could be drawn from research conducted by the confluence of leadership-gender-male dominated environment-female Army officers, with a focus on leadership behavior developed by the senior women officers. The exclusion criteria included: (a) abstracts and opinions, (b) not related to leadership (c) no connection between leadership/women and leadership/behavior.

Literature Review Strategy

Five major topics are included in the literature review: (a) theoretical foundation, (b) conceptual framework, (c) leadership, (d) U.S. Army, and (e) career transition. Figure 2 Strategic Approach to Conducting the Literature Review contains the topics covered in the literature review.

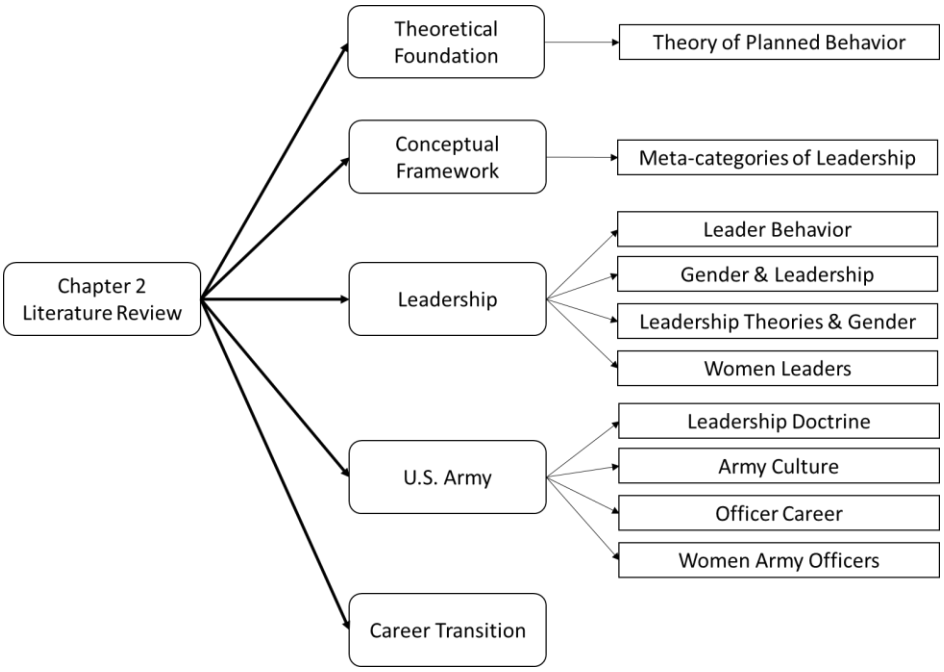

Figure 2. The researcher developed a strategic approach to conducting the literature review. The concept map illustrates the research elements to explore and define in the study.

The literature review contains research conducted since 1957 with a focus on research conducted since 2012. The literature searches included scholarly journals, dissertations and theses, government documents, census information, and trade journals. While the focus was on recent research, there are foundational studies such as the Theory of Planned Behavior developed by Ajzen & Fishbein (1980), gender and leader effectiveness meta-analysis conducted by Eagly, Karau, and Makhijani (1995) and others

that provided valuable baseline information for the review. ProQuest and Academic Search Complete (ASC) were the primary search engines used to conduct the literature review. Additional resources were located using psychology databases (e.g. PsycInfo, PsycArticles), Defense Technical Information Center (DTIC), and U.S. Army Publishing Directorate (APD). In cases where there was little current research or few relevant dissertations, I expanded the search to include articles published prior to 2012.

The key words used in the literature searches included *leadership, theory of planned behavior, leader behavior, women leaders, Army leadership, culture, military officer, male-dominate work environments,* and *career transition*. To reduce unrelated research, I excluded the terms *sexual harassment* and *HIV* from the searches. The literature search strategy shown in Table 1 displays the category of the type of literature searched (peer-reviewed journals, dissertations, and books), databases searched, keywords searched, and the number of documents searched.

Table 1

Literature Review Search Strategy

Key Words Searched	Database	Timeframe	Number of Documents	Literature Type
Theory of planned behavior	ProQuest	2012-2015	1585	399- peer reviewed journals; 3- trade journals; 1,183- dissertations
Theory of planned behavior	ProQuest	2012-2015	1585	399- peer reviewed journals; 3- trade journals; 1,183- dissertations
Theory of planned behavior and leadership	ProQuest	2012-2015	6	6- peer reviewed journals; 0- dissertations

(*table continues*)

Key Words Searched	Database	Timeframe	Number of Documents	Literature Type
Theory of planned behavior and leadership	ASC	2012-2015	3	3- peer reviewed journals
Theory of planned behavior and leadership	ProQuest	1980-2011	22	10- peer reviewed journals; 12- dissertations
Leadership and women or gender	ProQuest	2012-2015	4,881	1,210- peer reviewed journals; 3647- trade journals; 24- dissertations
Leadership, women or gender, and military	ProQuest	2012-2015	30	24- peer review journals; 6 dissertations
Leadership, women, and military	ASC	2012-2015	18	18- peer reviewed journals
Leadership and military officer	ProQuest	2012-2015	139	63- peer reviewed journals; 8- trade journals; 68- dissertations
Leadership and military officer	ASC	2012-2015	7	7- peer reviewed journals
Leadership, military officer, and women or gender	ProQuest	2012-2015	5	2- peer reviewed journals; 0- trade journals; 3- dissertations
Leadership, military officer, and women or gender	ProQuest	1990-2011	31	18- peer reviewed journals; 1- trade journal; 12- dissertations
U.S. Army and leadership	ProQuest	2012-2015	92	90- peer reviewed journals; 1- trade journal; 1-dissertation
U.S. Army, leadership, and women or gender	ProQuest	2012-2015	5	5- peer reviewed journals; 0- dissertation
Leadership and male-dominate or male-dominant	ProQuest	2012-2015	4	3- peer reviewed journals; 1- trade journal; 0- dissertation
Leadership and male-dominate or male-dominant	ProQuest	1990-2011	5	2- peer reviewed journals; 3- dissertations
Leadership, male-dominate or male-dominant, and military	ProQuest	2012-2015	1	1- peer reviewed journal; 0- trade journal; 0- dissertation

(*table continues*)

Key Words Searched	Database	Timeframe	Number of Documents	Literature Type
U.S. military and culture	ProQuest	2012-2015	77	73- peer reviewed journals; 3- trade journals; 1- dissertation
Career transition and military	ProQuest	2012-2015	26	7-peer reviewed journals; 1- trade journal; 18- dissertations
Career transition and military officer	ProQuest	2012-2015	1	1- peer reviewed journal; 0- dissertations
Career transition and military	ASC	2000-2015	4	4- peer reviewed journals
Career transition, military officer, and retirement	ProQuest	2000-2011	5	1- peer reviewed journals; 4- dissertations
Career transition and retirement	ProQuest	2012-2015	92	65- peer reviewed journals; 7- trade journals; 20- dissertations
Career transition and retirement	ASC	2012-2015	6	6- peer reviewed journals
Career transition, retirement, and military	ProQuest	2010-2015	18	2- peer reviewed journals; 12- trade journals; 4- dissertations

Note. The literature search strategy includes the category of the type of literature searched, databases searched, keywords searched, and number of documents.

Theoretical Foundation

Yin (2014) emphasized the benefit of theoretical propositions to guide case study data collection and management. The role of theory development, prior to the conduct of any data collection, is one point of difference between case study and other qualitative methods such as ethnography and phenomenology (Yin, 2014). The theory of planned behavior (TPB) (Ajzen, 1991) functions as the theoretical foundation for the study.

The TPB includes a model about how human action is guided (Ajzen, 1991). The TPB consists of three factors, behavioral, normative, and control beliefs that influence an individual's behavioral intention (Ajzen, 1991). Ajzen stated that behavioral intentions influenced actions and behaviors. Specifically, the attitude of the person regarding the act, including the behavior consequences; the subjective norm, or the perceptions of those valued as essential to the individual; and perceived behavioral control, or the amount of effort and level of ability required to complete the activity (Azjen, 2012). Using the TPB, the strength of norms can be measured by studying perceived social pressure that an individual experiences (Ajzen, 2015; Ajzen, 1991).

Within the TPB framework, the behavior is a function of specific significant behavior related beliefs (Ajzen, 1991). Three categories of important beliefs guide behavior, behavioral beliefs, normative beliefs, and control beliefs (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). Behavioral beliefs link a targeted behavior to expected outcomes. Normative beliefs concern individual or groups social normative pressures about a targeted behavior. Control beliefs refer to the perceived aspects that may enable or obstruct behavior performance and the perceived power of those elements (Ajzen, 1991; 2006). Ajzen (1991) considered behavioral, normative, and control beliefs were the determining factors of an individual's intentions and actions.

Three significant beliefs relate to three TPB variables: attitude toward the targeted behavior, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). In accordance with the TPB, one assumes the beliefs yield a favorable or unfavorable behavioral attitude (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). Behavioral attitude, subjective norms, and

perceived behavioral control can foretell an individual's intention to perform a behavior (Ajzen, 2010). Generally, greater perceived control combined with a subjective norm and positive attitude will result in an individual's resolve to engage in the behavior (Azjen, 2015). The intention immediately precedes the behavior, and it denotes an individual's readiness to undertake the behavior (Ajzen, 1991; 2010). My interpretation of the TPB applied to the decision to use a leader behavior is shown in Figure 3.

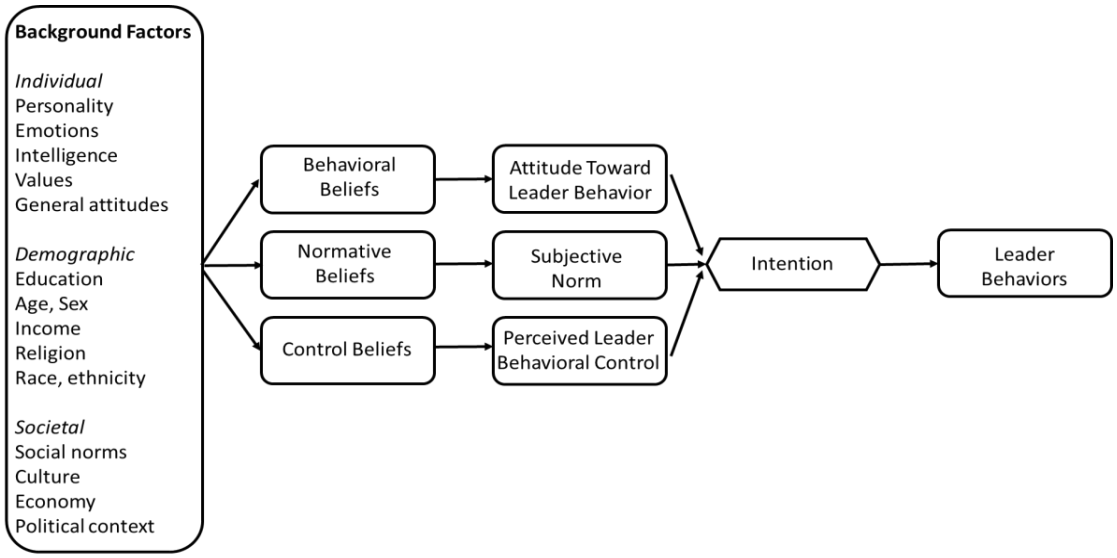

Figure 3. Theory of Planned Behavior model applied to leadership behavior. (Azjen, 2006, 2010; Leo, 2014; Stoffers & Mordant-Dols, 2015).

The TPB (Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen, 2015) is a useful framework to explore potential influences or outcomes of Army training, education, and experiences that led FRACS to adopt certain leader behaviors. The TPB is a predictive model used to explain and predict behavioral intention in a wide variety of applied contexts (Bennington & Minutolo, 2013; Joshi, 2015; Passos, Cruzes, & Mendonça, 2013). The TPB is an extensively used social psychology behavioral model employed to predict human behavior (Azjen, 2012; Choi, 2012). The theory of reasoned action served as the foundation for the TPB (Fishbein &

Ajzen, 2011). Both the theory of reasoned action and the TPB were developed to predict and describe specific human behaviors but have not been widely applied to predict leadership behavior adoption (Ajzen, 2012; De Leeuw, Valois, Ajzen, & Schmidt, 2015; Sial et al., 2014; Stoffers & Mordant-Dols, 2015).

Ajzen (1991) quantitatively tested the three beliefs and addressed individual's attitude toward the subject behavior, the importance placed on personal norms, and their perception of behavioral control. Based on the literature review conducted for this study, researchers used quantitative methods for over 75% of the TPB studies. Researchers have applied the TPB model using quantitative methods to the fields of healthcare, economics, business, education, politics, advertising, and public relations behavior (Ajzen & Klobas, 2013; deLeeuw, 2015; Stoffers & Mordant-Dols, 2015).

The intent was to apply the TPB to study how FRACs come to believe that a leader behavior is useful to them and how they apply those behaviors in their post military careers. Researchers have not widely applied the TPB to the leadership field (Leo, 2014; Sial et al., 2014; Stoffers & Mordant-Dols, 2015). One could use the TPB to imply that the actions of leaders are affected by the way they perceived change based on their perceptions and the perceptions of those around them, as well as the amount of effort the change would require to implement it in the organization (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). A research gap existed in applying the TPB to predict and describe specific human behaviors applied to leadership behavior adoption (Ajzen, 2012; De Leeuw, Valois, Ajzen, & Schmidt, 2015; Sial et al., 2014; Stoffers & Mordant-Dols, 2015).

Conceptual Framework

In qualitative research, the conceptual framework can provide the equilibrium between the researcher's bias, orientation, and emerging findings. The central phenomenon studied was to understand how FRACs developed leader behaviors and how those behaviors transfer to careers after the military. The researcher defined leader behavior as those behaviors used to influence and facilitate people to accomplish shared objectives by providing purpose, goals, and motivation (U.S. Army, 2012a; Yukl, 2012). It is hard to extricate leader behaviors from job performance, thereby complicating the assessment of leadership and related processes (Falleson, Keller-Glaze, & Curnow, 2011). Leadership is a complex social phenomenon and challenging to quantify. Though the explicit leadership measures are difficult, there are construct measures that contribute to leadership (Block, 2014; Falleson et al., 2011).

Leadership Behavior

The 1950s and 1960s Ohio State University leadership studies resulted in the contingency theory of leader behavior dimensions (Fleishman, 1953; Halpin and Winer, 1957; Kerr, Schriesheim, Murphy, & Stognill, 1974; Piccolo et al., 2012). In terms of this theory, contingency refers to the organization type, such as military, business, religious, or governmental. A key finding of the studies revealed the initiating structure and consideration aspects of leader behavior (Fleishman, 1953; Halpin and Winer, 1957; Yukl, 2013). The initiating structure referred to the degree that a leader is task oriented and directed employees' work tasks to achieve goals (Kerr et al., 1974). This type of leader behavior includes structuring the work tasks, making assignments, planning and

providing an explicit schedule of work activities and procedures, setting task-related goals, directing tasks, and ruling in a controlling manner (Yukl, 2012). The second dimension, consideration, includes the supportive, people-oriented behavior the leader shows toward each follower and a concern for relationships (Kerr et al., 1974; Rowold & Borgmann, 2013; Yukl, 2013). Examples of consideration behaviors include showing appreciation, open communication, carefully listening to problems, establishing mutual trust, and garnering subordinate input on important decisions (Kerr et al., 1974; Rowold & Borgmann, 2013).

The University of Michigan Institute for Social Research leadership studies (Likert, 1961; Reilly, 1978) supported the Ohio State findings that consideration and initiating behaviors exceeded all other behaviors (Yukl, 2012). The Michigan research focused on defining leadership behaviors in a people-oriented manner and relating those behaviors to effective interaction-influence leadership performance (Reilly, 1978). The studies revealed that the most effective leaders exhibited task-oriented behavior, strong interpersonal skills with subordinates, and used participatory management (Reilly, 1978; Yukl, 2012). Effective leaders exhibited more supervisor-oriented task behaviors (preparation, organization, and planning), set collective goals, listened to subordinates needs, and were considerate of their followers.

Yukl (2012) expanded previous work on component leader behaviors and defined four underlying dimensions or metacategories of leadership: task-oriented, relations-oriented, change-oriented, and external-oriented (Yukl, 2006, 2012; Yukl et al., 2002). Task-oriented leader behaviors align with initiating structure and performance behavior

(Halpin & Winer, 1957; Misumi & Peterson, 1985; Yukl, 2013). Task-oriented behaviors include elements of the transaction (Bass, Avolio, & Atwater, 1996) and goal setting (Lock & Latham, 2006) leadership theories. Task-oriented leaders focus on production, resources, and getting the task done (Yukl, 2012). Examples of task-oriented behaviors include problem solving, clarifying, planning, and monitoring (Yukl, 2012). Task-oriented behaviors can reduce the ambiguity of individuals and groups as they participate in tasks, roles, and processes (Wegge, Shmela, & Haslam, 2014). The task-oriented leader behaviors also align with the stereotypic behaviors of men as rational, competitive, independent, aggressive, dominant, objective, and self-confident (Crites et al., 2015).

Relations-oriented leader behaviors align with the consideration structure, supportive leadership, and interaction facilitation (Halpin & Winer, 1957; Judge, Piccolo, & Ilies, 2004.; Yukl, 2013). Relations-oriented behaviors are integral to leadership theories focused on the leader-member exchange (LMX), empowerment, and social justice (Wegge et al., 2014). Relations-oriented behaviors are also referred to as people-oriented or employee-centered (Yukl, 2012). Examples of relations-oriented behavior include supporting, clarifying, developing, participating, and empowering (Wegge et al., 2014; Yukl, 2012). This description corresponds with that of a people-oriented leader who is also compassionate, interpersonal, and emotional in addition to companionable and empowering (Yukl, 2012). Relations-oriented behavior is also consistent with the stereotypic behavior of women as passive, emotional, sympathetic, perceptive, nurturing, and interpersonal (Crites et al., 2015).

Change-oriented and external-oriented leader behaviors are more recently identified as behavior metacategories (Yukl, 2012, 2013). Change-oriented behavior aligns with transformational or inspirational leadership and focuses on understanding the environment, adapting in innovative ways, and implementing major strategic and process changes (Bass, 1996; Bass et al., 1996; Yukl, 2012, 2013). Change-oriented leaders motivate followers by making the work more meaningful and developing a greater sense of purpose (Bass et al., 1996). Examples of this behavior include advocating and visualizing change, inspiring innovation, risk taking, and enabling collective learning (Yukl, 2012).

External-oriented behavior aligns with boundary spanning leader behaviors. Boundary spanning leadership is the ability to provide direction, orientation, and commitment across boundaries in support of a greater plan or goal (Yip, Ernst, & Campbell, 2012). Examples of external-oriented behaviors include networking, external scanning or monitoring, and representing or lobbying (Yukl, 2013; Yukl & Van Fleet, 2002). External-oriented behaviors align with responsible leader behavior such as community outreach and supporting social causes though company policies and law may constrain such actions (Stahl & De Luque, 2014).

Yukl's (2012) hierarchical taxonomy is a description of leadership behaviors employed to effect the performance of the team, work group, or organization. This taxonomy and metacategories form the conceptual research framework to increase understanding of how FRAC develop their leader behaviors. I will use the behavior

constructs to increase understanding in how FRACs develop the different types of behavior and transition those behaviors to civilian positions.

Leadership

Effective leadership is critical to an organization's health and success. While many definitions exist, Kotter's (2001) definition of effective leadership is comprehensive and addresses the challenges leaders face in volatile an uncertain environment. Effective leadership requires a future vision, a willingness to take risks, consistent recognition and rewards, and aligns people to communicate, to build coalitions, and to form strong informal networks (Kotter, 2001). Effective leadership and leader development require shared acknowledgment and recognition of leader and follower roles (U.S. Army, 2012b; Yukl, 2012). Bennis (1992) stated that leaders have a clear personal and professional notion of what they want to do, and the strength to persevere in spite of challenges and failures. Leaders know their goals and the reasons to pursue them and appeal to follower needs, values and emotions (Bennis, 1992; Kotter, 2001). Culturally aware and global leaders possess three attributes: the ability to accept ambiguity, imagination or inquisitiveness, and the ability to manage contradiction or embrace opposition (DiBella, 2013).

Leadership requires acknowledging oneself as a leader, and recognizing and approving the leadership in others (Toh & Leonardelli, 2013; Hertneky, 2013). Both power and influence occupy a crucial role in the leadership theories and leadership styles. Several leadership theories illustrated the variety of practices by which gender can influence leadership. The leadership theory categories include Behavioral and

Contingency theory, Transformational theory, Path-Goal leadership theory, Leader-Member Exchange approach, and Contingency leadership theory.

Leadership Theories and Gender.

Several leadership theories show the variety of processes where gender can influence leadership. The leadership theories categories are behavioral and contingency, transformational theory, path-goal leadership theory, leader-member exchange approach, and contingency leadership theory.

Behavioral Theory.

In 2010, Ayman & Korabik studied two major theoretical leadership approaches, behavioral and contingency, which included factors and findings that pertain to gender. The behavioral approach to leadership is not gender-neutral. Ayman & Korabik (2010) found that women leaders were susceptible to negative ratings when men evaluated them, they worked in male-dominated settings, or they adopted stereotypical masculine leadership behaviors.

Transformational Theory.

Transformational leadership includes an assumption that when leaders behaved in a transformational manner, employees were inspired to provide more effort and commitment. Korabik and Ayman (2007) conducted research that showed transformational leadership behavior related to gender-role orientation. When others assessed women or women did self-reports, they were evaluated to be marginally more transformational than men. Interestingly, men appeared to be more efficient when using

transformational leadership style with women followers than for women leaders with men followers (Korabik & Ayman, 2007).

Path-Goal Theory.

Path-Goal leadership includes the prime leadership goal to stimulate follower performance and satisfaction. Researchers use the framework to explain the success of leaders to generate work group effectiveness resulting from their flexibility and ability to increase employee motivation (Landrum & Daily, 2012). Dixon & Hart (2010) linked the Path-Goal theory to particular leadership styles that focus on the ability to clarify and offer direction for followers to remove obstacles, and encourage, and reward followers who attained goals. Path-Goal leaders possessed influential posture, ability to work on teams, and success in generating worker satisfaction (Dixon & Hart, 2010). Dixon and Hart determined that the Path-Goal leadership styles resulted in statistically positive relationships with gender diverse work group effectiveness. Of interest, mixed gender groups were only slightly less effective than single gender groups. Leaders who actively sought to emphasize general values and conducted diversity training improved employee satisfaction and diverse work group performance.

Leader-Member Exchange Approach.

Ayman & Korabik (2009) researched the behavioral Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) model. Researchers used this model to assess the leader's compassion, ability, and integrity based on follower perceptions. According to the dyadic leadership model, leaders handle their followers uniquely and that some employees feel included (in-group), whereas others do not (out-group) (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Because this paradigm

assumed the leader interacts with each follower uniquely, a greater potential exists for understanding the function of diversity and leadership (Scandura & Pelligrini, 2008). In 2009, research to examine how leader-member exchange (LMX) related to specific leadership behaviors included a more comprehensive range of leadership behaviors than prior LMX studies (Yukl, O'Donnell, & Taber, 2009). Besides transformational behaviors, the ten behaviors included task-oriented behaviors and some non-transformational relations-oriented behaviors. Only limited research was conducted to ascertain the measurement correspondence of LMX over gender.

Contingency Leadership.

The final theoretical leadership approach is the Contingency Leadership theory. The contingency approach to leadership includes different situational factors, such as leader's position power, task expertise, group cohesion, and follower support. Contingency theory involves the interaction of favorable conditions and leadership style influence on the group performance. Limited research exists on the role of gender in the contingency approach to leadership.

Gender and Leadership Behavior

The results of previous studies indicated that women tend to lead differently than men; therefore, included below is a review of how gender affects leadership behavior (Brandt & Laiho, 2013; Chin, 2013; Eagly et al., 1995; Eagly & Chin, 2010). Researchers who conducted leadership and gender research in the past 10 years examined how leadership behavior and effectiveness differ between men and women. Powell's (2012) definition of gender focused on the "anticipated beliefs and types of attitudes, values,

skills, and behaviors typical of one sex than the other". Korabik (1999) defined gender as a multi-dimensional and multi-level phenomenon with many different aspects. Gender beliefs prescribed culturally determined appropriate behaviors for men and women (Acker, 1990).

The combination of leadership and gender can provide guidelines to optimize leadership effectiveness in contemporary organizations, cultures, and nations (Eagly & Chin, 2010). Korabik and Ayman (2007) conducted a study that resulted in a proposed integrative model of leadership and gender that combined components from each of perspectives. Leadership is a social collaboration between leaders and their peers, followers, and supervisors. A fundamental assumption in Eagly & Chin's 2010 literature review was that the growing gender and cultural diversity among followers challenged leaders to consider the views of people representing beliefs, gender, values, and backgrounds that differed from their own.

In the past 10 years, research on leadership behavior and theories were framed predominantly within a male, western hemisphere view. The results of the gender specific literature review indicated that leadership effectiveness and behavior that leaders developed are not gender neutral. Studies illustrated the difficulty a woman has with being perceived as an effective leader without being labeled either too masculine or too feminine (Eagly & Chin, 2010). Research revealed that men and women are more successful in gender consistent roles and leadership styles (Eagly, Karau, and Makhijani, 1995). Specifically, in a military environment a masculine leadership style was more effective, whereas feminine leadership style demonstrated higher leader efficacy in social

service, government, and education organizations (Eagly et al., 1995; Snaebjornsson, Edvardsson, Zydziunaite, & Vaiman, 2015). Studies indicated that female leaders assume a more transformational leadership style than male leaders, especially in mentoring and follower and peer development (Eagly et al., 1995; Eagly & Chin, 2010). Conversely, the results of Snaebjornsson & Edvardsson's literature review (2013) advocated that independent of culture there is no gender variance in perceived leadership effectiveness.

Few researchers have concentrated on the intersection of leadership behavior, gender, and leadership style (Bartol, Martin, & Kromkowski, 2003; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Herrera, Duncan, Green, & Skaggs, 2012). Leadership style is a persistent behavior pattern (Dubrin, 2010), while behavior is an organism's response to various causes internal and external to the individuals (Reber, Allen, & Reber, 2009: Yukl, 2012). Individuals are disposed to a particular leadership pattern or style. However, it appears leader behavior relies upon various elements to include culture, gender, ethnic group, and historical factors (Herrera et al., 2012).

Gender stereotypes can be destructive to women leaders because feminine attributes are deemed less important than masculine attributes (Boldry, Wood, & Kashy, 2001; Brandt & Laiho, 2013; Kunda and Spencer, 2003). Stereotypes are generalized qualities or traits ascribed to particular groups based on their ethnicity, religion, age, race, gender, sex, or other characteristics (Crites et al., 2015). Stereotypes usually link to negative perceptions since they can result in discrimination and reduced individuality among different people. Ely and Rhode (2010) declared that people associate men more closely with effective leadership qualities and relate men and women with different traits

or behaviors. Similarly, Northouse (2007) and Eagly et al. (1995) found that both men and women were more effective in gender congruent leadership positions. Typically, men are groomed to be self-assured, decisive, rational, and independent, whereas women are socialized to nurture, to empathize, to be helpful, and to be compassionate (Brandt & Laiho, 2013; Hoyt & Burnette, 2013).

Women may receive negative feedback when they do not behave consistent with their socially designated roles (Neubert & Taggar, 2004). As a result, female leaders regularly experience a double bind (Herrera, 2012). The double bind is the contradictory beliefs that women leaders should act compassionately (e.g. communal behavior such as empathy and sensitivity) to meet female gender role expectations while also acting assertively or competitively (e.g. agentic behavior such as assertiveness, self-reliance, and ambition) to meet leader role expectations (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Herrera, 2012; Kark, Waismel-Manor, & Shamir, 2012).

Women leaders displaying feminine modes of management and thereby lacking some masculine traits might receive criticism. Conversely, when women exhibit masculine qualities, they might receive criticism for a lack of feminine-participative style (Herrera, 2012). Several authors (e.g. Eagly & Carli, 2003a; Fletcher, 2007; Koenig et al., 2011) contended that to succeed in the current fluid, flattened, and more responsive organizations, leaders should be more collaborative, cooperative, open, display interpersonal sensitivity and empathy, and develop their employees (Kark et al., 2012).

Androgyny, a mixing of culturally feminine and masculine behaviors types, which might provide female and male leaders flexible options and benefits, may characterize

effective leadership behavior (Kark et al., 2012; Koenig et al., 2011). In 1997, Vilkinas and Cartan suggested that paradoxical dimensions of leadership behavior consisting of a complex, varied set of behaviors were more effective. Studies conducted by the University of Michigan and Ohio State University support the assertion that a leadership style consisting of high relations or people concern and high task or production concern results in effective leadership (Northouse, 2007).

Koenig et al.'s (2011) meta-analytical research provided evidence for the expanded leader stereotype androgyny over the last 40 years. Research exists that indicates women leaders have changed and become more androgynous while men have not changed significantly (Konrad, Ritchie, Lieb & Corrigall, 2000; Twenge, 2001). More androgynous leadership behavior may serve to ease women's role incongruity dilemma about leadership roles and facilitate women to address the challenge of the double-bind irony (Kark et al., 2012).

For this research, it was essential to explore how women leaders develop their leader behaviors. Most employees prefer, and employers appreciate, a workplace symmetry of task and relational-oriented leadership (Boatwright & Forrest, 2000; Pfaff et al., 2013). Women foster the development of both task- and relational-oriented leadership behaviors through gender role socialization (Fletcher, 2007; Pfaff et al., 2013). Many women were urged to cultivate their self-identities using interdependent connections, resulting in development of feminine relational skills (Fletcher, 2007). To prepare for leadership roles, young relational-oriented women were tacitly encouraged to develop masculine task-oriented behaviors by peers, parents, mentors, and the media (Eagly

&Chin, 2010; Pfaff et al., 2013). On the contrary, young males were encouraged to develop only masculine, gender congruent task-oriented behaviors (Eagly & Carli, 2007a).

A gap in research exists on how women, to include female military officers, develop their leader behaviors. Prior, but not recent, research on gender and leadership behavior concentrated on perceptions of followers, peers, and supervisors rather than the individuals' perceptions of their leadership behavior (Bartol et al., 2003). Using the Management-Leadership Practices Inventory (MLPI), Pfaff et al. (2013) conducted quantitative research of leaders' self-perception of leadership behaviors in banking, business, retail, and production organizations. Male and female peers, leaders, and supervisors perceived that women leaders employed nine out of 10 relational leadership behaviors considerably more often than men in leadership roles (Pfaff et al., 2013). This was the single study located on leader's self-perception of leadership behaviors. The literature review conducted for this study did not reveal any research on military women's leadership behavior.

Army Leadership

In the U.S. Army doctrine, leadership is "the process of influencing people by providing purpose, direction, and motivation to accomplish the mission and improve the organization" (U.S. Army 2012a, p. 1). Leadership involves mutual influence between leaders and followers (U.S. Army, 2012b, p. 1-5; Yukl, 2012). Since 1948, the Army has defined leadership as a learned, supervised, and improved process (U.S. Army, 2012a, p. 1). The Army institution recognizes and reinforces that personality and inherent traits

influence a process; however, it supports the concept that effective leadership is a developable skill (Falleson et al., 2011; U.S. Army, 2012a, p. 1).

Figure 4 contains the Army leadership requirements model that displays attributes, what a leader is, and competencies, what a leader does (U.S. Army 2012a: 2012b, p. 5-9).

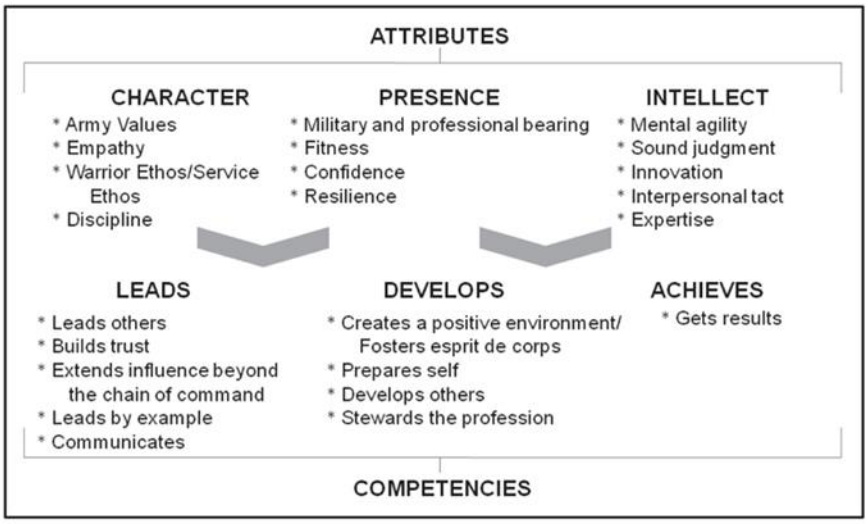

Figure 4. The Army Leadership Requirements Model expresses the expectations for Army leaders (U.S. Army 2012b, p. 5-9).

An Army leader builds competence by following a methodical and gradual approach, becoming proficient at individual competencies, employing them in unique environments, and modifying them situationally (U.S. Army, 2012b, p. 1-5).

Army Leadership Doctrine

The Army leadership doctrine (U.S. Army, 2012a) serves as the Army leadership training and education foundation. This doctrine consists of three factors: character, direct leadership, and strategic leadership. The Army emphasizes the character of the

leader using the seven Army values (Bryan, Jennings, Jobes, & Bradley, 2012; U.S. Army, 2012b, p. 3-1 - 3-3):

- Loyalty- “Bear true faith and allegiance to the U.S. Constitution, the Army, your unit, and other soldiers”; high cohesion culture
- Duty- “Fulfill your obligations”; adhere to collectivist value system
- Respect- “Treat people as they should be treated”
- Selfless-Service- “Put the welfare of the nation, the Army, and your subordinates before your own”; subordinate one’s life to other greater ‘‘goods’’ or the well-being of others
- Honor- “Live up to all the Army values and warrior ethos”
- Integrity- “Do what's right, legally and morally”; governed by Uniform Code of Military Justice and regulations
- Personal Courage- “Face fear, danger, or adversity (Physical or Moral)”; conditioned fearlessness and mental toughness

The seven Army values form the acronym “LDRSHIP”.

The foundation of Army leadership is shared values, common goals, and taking care of subordinates (Bryan et al., 2012, U.S. Army, 2012a, 2012b). The concept of caring for subordinates includes the physical and emotional well-being of subordinates, development of their skills, and establishing a climate of trust and communication between leaders and followers (U.S. Army, 2012a). Similar to corporate ethics statements, the Army values serve to guide the actions of and describe the expectation of all soldiers, regardless of rank (Bryan et al., 2012).

Army leadership is a process that requires specific competencies to be effective (U.S. Army, 2015b). The Army leadership process includes training, education, and experience that can develop and teach leadership skills and behavior (Falleson et al., 2011; U.S. Army, 2015b). The study of Army leadership has evolved from a job-analytic approach to a more competency-based approach (Falleson et al., 2011). The competency-based approach has resulted in richer leader behavior descriptions based on characteristics, knowledge, skills, and abilities to align leader competencies with Army strategies (Falleson et al., 2011). The current environment calls for adaptive military leaders who can cope with the discomfort of uncertainty and ambiguity in recognizing today's complexity and who can respond to all manner of security threats (Whiffen, 2011; DiBella, 2013).

The U.S. Army Center for Army Leadership (CAL) conducted a unique study that resulted in the development of leader requirements to address future Army missions and force requirements (Horey, Fallesen, Morath, Cronin, & Cassella, 2004). The CAL study results reinforced the definition of Army leadership as influencing and emphasized the importance of character for effective Army leaders. These study results incorporated into Army doctrine, training, and education led to a present and future leader framework of eight competencies and 12 personal attributes (U.S. Army, 2012a, 2012b). Leader attributes include leader character, presence, and intellect. Leader competencies signify what to do and align with the Army's leadership definition to lead, develop, and achieve. Appendix A contains a summary of the behaviors associated with the Army's personal attributes and leadership competencies.

In 2014, the Army published the U.S. Army Performance Evaluation Guide, ADRP 6-22 Leadership Requirements Model and Example Behavioral Indicators, which identified example behaviors related to leadership competencies and attributes. The behaviors presented represent what an Army leader is expected to do or to demonstrate (U.S. Army, 2014b, p. 18-22). The leader attributes shown in ADRP 6-22 (2012), align leader behaviors with the categories of character, presence, and intellect. Exemplary leader behaviors also align to the ADRP 6-22 competencies in the leads, develops, and achieves competency categories.

The leader behaviors shown in Appendix A serve as a reference for Army officer performance evaluations (U.S. Army, 2014b, 2015). The Army uses a closed personnel system to promote leaders from within. Therefore, systems for evaluating officer readiness and for developing officer potential at all levels become critical (U.S. Army, 2015a; Zaccaro, 2014). However, more work is necessary to develop rigorous and valid measures of leadership behavior unrelated to performance evaluations (Falleson et al., 2011).

Differences between Army and Civilian Leadership Skills and Development.

Army leadership skills, development, and knowledge transmission differ from that in the civilian or corporate world in significant ways (Bryan et al., 2012; DiBella, 2013). First, the Army trains officers in leadership at every phase of their careers and throughout their Army service (U.S. Army, 2014a). Second, leadership, even in progressive private corporations, is generally secondary to leader technical competency.

The final differences in Army leadership are the consistent emphasis on character and caring for their soldiers (Bryan et al., 2012; Falleson et al., 2011; U.S. Army, 2012a).

The Army is unique from civilian organizations in the context of leader development (DiBella, 2013). Military leaders are all developed and promoted within the service, not hired externally as civilian organization do (DiBella, 2013; Falleson et al., 2011). The Army uses an *up or out* system, in which leaders must be promoted, or they must leave the Army (Falleson et al., 2011). In contrast, civilian employees can reach a specific level and remain at that level until retirement. The Army values leaders who can think adaptively and with conviction under duress, make good decisions quickly, actively generate options and alternatives, and select a course of action with very limited information, time, resources, or guidance (Bryan, et al., 2012; DiBella, 2013).

Significant research on civilian leadership behavior and measurement has been conducted. While considerable Army leadership theoretical research exist, very little Army leadership behavior or measurement research has been conducted (Day, Harrison, & Halpin, 2009; Falleson et al., 2011). Among Army officers, there is a culture of resistance to "quantifying leader performance" (Falleson et al., 2011) perhaps resulting from the zero-defects performance criteria and the perception that any negative report of performance could be career ending.

Similarities in Army and Civilian leadership development.

Army and civilian or corporate leadership skills, development, and knowledge transmission share similarities in important ways (Tucker & Gunther, 2009; Winston & Fields, 2015). Recent civilian leadership research addressed servant-based, value-based,

and principle-based leadership behaviors as a novel leadership approach (Mumford & Fried, 2014; Washington, Sutton, & Sauser, 2014). Value, servant, and principle based leadership has been the focus for much of the Army's 240-year history and underlies the seven Army values followed today (U.S. Army, 2012a, 2012b).

Both civilian and military organizations understand the need to develop leaders who can effectively analyze and operate in ambiguous and changing environments (U.S. Army, 2014a). In 2000, Pulakos et al. created an eight-dimension model of adaptive performance behaviors for civilian organizations. That same model was later adapted to train Army Special Forces officers (White et al., 2005) and later incorporated into the Army mission command philosophy (U.S. Army 2014a). Tucker and Gunther (2009) built on the White et al. research to validate the value of adaptive leadership behaviors in complex and ambiguous Army environments.

A gap in research exists to measure Army officers on leader behavior and cognitive and personality construct (Falleson et al., 2011). Research conducted on Reserve Officer Training Command (ROTC) and U.S. Military Academy (USMA) cadets focused on predicting job performance rather than leadership (Boldry et al., 2001). Conducting research to fill this gap is important since an officer could be a good performer, but might not necessarily be a good leader since existing Army performance measures conflict with other factors (Falleson et al., 2011).

Army Culture

A culture encompasses the shared values, behaviors, views, customs, and beliefs that society members use to manage each other and other cultures (Bryan et al., 2012;

U.S. Army, 2012b, p. 5-4). Culture influences how people assess what is important and how they judge what is right and wrong. Organizational cultures afford a complex structure for thought and decisions that encompass members' assumptions, beliefs, objectives, knowledge, and values (Hofstede, 2000). Cultural understanding of a specific society or group can considerably improve the Army's ability to accomplish a mission (Hall, 2011; U.S. Army, 2012b, p. 5-4).

The military culture's language, values, rank hierarchy, writing style, customs, membership, and laws is a unique sub-culture of the United States (Bryan et al., 2012; Harmon, 2007; Hall, 2011). The U.S. military culture consists of a hierarchical command structure, controlled by federal law, structured with occupational specialization, and managed by a conservative ethos that honors formal policy and resists changes from external sources (De Angelis et al., 2013; Segal, 1995). Within the military subculture, the Army population has a unique language, regulations, values, and customs (Rausch, 2014).

The Army cultural dimensions include professional identity, hierarchy, and sense of community (U.S. Army, 2013, p. A-2). Within Army doctrine (U.S. Army, 2014a, p.2), the definition of an Army professional soldier is:

> An expert, a volunteer certified in the Profession of Arms, bonded with comrades in a shared identity and culture of sacrifice and service to the national and the Constitution, who adheres to the highest ethical standards and is a steward of the future of the Army Profession.

The basis of the Army sense of community is a shared camaraderie, sense of purpose, common mission, and sacrifice (U.S. Army, 2013, p. A-2). The Army hierarchy provides context, order, and control that complements the professional identity and sense of community (U.S. Army, 2013, p. A-2).

Army values control all facets of a soldier's daily life and form the framework for their conduct (Coll, Weiss, & Yarvis, 2011; U.S. Army, 2015b). The Army culture significantly influences the organization of information, meaning, and perception for Army officers and soldiers (Rausch, 2014). The Army is a tight culture (Toh & Leonardelli, 2013) that uses a collectivist approach rather than individual autonomy (Coll et al., 2011). Titunik (2000) asserted that although the military has a predominantly male identity, it also has many feminine characteristics such as collective action, organization, submissiveness, obedience, fidelity, and cooperation.

The Army culture as a profession serves and upholds the American peoples' rights and interests (U.S. Army, 2013, p. A-2):

> The Army is an American Profession of Arms, a vocation comprised of experts certified in the ethical application of land combat power, serving under civilian authority, entrusted to defend the Constitution and the rights and interests of the American people.

Over 94% of the Army active duty leaders identify with the Army as a profession (Riley, Hatfield, Freeman, Fallesen, & Gunther, 2014).

The Army Profession characteristics are trust, esprit de corps, military expertise, stewardship, and honorable service (Riley et al., 2014; U.S. Army 2013). The Army

profession serves as the foundation for the Army Ethic, the central moral basis that defines what honorable service entails. The Army professional serves honorably by living the Army Values daily (U.S. Army, 2013). These values are the moral foundation for the Army profession. Moskos (2011) asserted that the military more closely aligns with a calling rather than a profession due to the notions of self-sacrifice, complete dedication to one's role, and paternalistic remuneration.

Through its ethic, a profession standardizes the effectiveness and behavior of their professionals. To accomplish this goal, the Army conducts an intense indoctrination process beginning in basic military training for officers and enlisted personnel and continues throughout their career (Bryan et al., 2012). Soldiers train and receive education to be warriors and to embrace the distinct warrior ethos (Bryan et al., 2012; U.S. Army, 2015b). The Warrior Ethos emphasizes a mindset established through focused mental preparation and built on physical, tactical, and technical training (U.S. Army, 2012a, 2012b). The Warrior Ethos central behaviors build on fundamental emotional and mental attributes such as resilience, self-assurance, composure, and mental dexterity (U.S. Army, 2012a, 2012b).This ethos emphasizes honor, integrity, selfless service, duty, and courage in the face of adversity. Soldiers develop a warrior self-concept that defines the service member's identity separate from the civilian population (Bryan et al., 2012; U.S. Army, 2012a).

The Army Ethic (U.S. Army 2013, p. 1-3) is:

> an evolving array of laws, values, and beliefs, deeply embedded within the Army culture and practiced by members of the Army Profession to motivate and guide

> the appropriate behavior of individual members bound together in common moral purpose.

Underlying the Army Ethic, Army regulations, DOD policies, and the Uniform Code of Military Justice (UCMJ) establish the minimum standard for behavior (Bryan et al., 2012; U.S. Army 2013, p. 1-3). The Army ethic affords a moral element to assist in understanding the purpose behind correct behavior (U.S. Army, 2013, p. 1-4). The Army Ethic is fundamental to the five Army Profession characteristics- esprit de corps, honorable service, trust, military expertise, and stewardship (U.S. Army, 2013, p. 1-5). Each characteristic mirrors American values based in the Army's context.

Army Career

To understand the underrepresentation of senior Army female officers requires a review of career progression and the elements that lead to differences (Rand, 2012). Career progression is the "process by which an individual becomes an officer, pursues her military career, and advances through the ranks" (Rand, 2012). Career advancement variances can result from a number of aspects to include commission source, performance, job assignment, performance evaluation, qualifications, occupation, retention, promotion, and selection criteria (Rand, 2012).

The Secretary of the Army or the President of the United States serves as the authority to issue each Army officer's commission (U.S. Army, 2012b, p. 2-1). Established on the basis of unique trust and confidence in their abilities and loyalty to the U.S., this commission requires officers to obey senior officers and accept responsibility for those who are lower ranking (U.S. Army, 2014a). Throughout an officer's career, the

U.S. Army Officer Professional Management System (OPMS) personnel management policies and procedures serve to augment the officer corps efficacy and professionalism (U.S. Army, 2014a, p. 8). The Army leadership uses the OPMS to monitor and to standardize officer training, education, development, assignment, evaluation, promotion, and separation from active duty (U.S. Army, 2014a, p. 37).

Most Regular Army officers receive their commissions by graduating from one of three commission sources: Reserve Officers Training Corps (ROTC) at public and private civilian institutions, U.S. military academies, and officer candidate school (U.S. Army, 2014a). Upon appointment as an Army commissioned officer, one serves as a second lieutenant (2LT), with the exception of specialties such as medical or dental officers. The basis for promotion to first lieutenant (1LT) is the time in grade and satisfactory performance evaluations. The Headquarters, DA (HQDA) centralized boards choose officers from captain through colonel for promotion based on factors such as integrity, performance evaluations, professional attributes and ethics, demonstration of Army values, character, military and civilian education and training assignment history, and professional development (U.S. Army, 2014, p. 37; 2014b).

The Title 10 U.S. Code (U.S. Army, 2014a, p. 35; U.S. GPO, 2015) establishes the minimum time in grade requirements for promotion as portrayed in Table 2. Ideally, each qualified officer advances predictably through the grade structure. However, Army size expansion and contraction, promotion policy changes, and annual officer losses result in a less than consistent promotion flow (US. Army, 2014a, p. 35).

Table 2

Army Officer Time in Service, Time in Grade, and Promotion Opportunity

Promote To	**Time in service**	**Time in grade**	**Promotion Opportunity**
First Lieutenant/0-2	18 months	18 months	Fully qualified
Captain/0-3	4 years plus 1 year	2 years	Best qualified (90%)
Major/0-4	10 years +/- 1 year	3 years	Best qualified (80%)
Lieutenant Colonel/0-5	16 years +/- 1 year	3 years	Best qualified (70%)
Colonel/0-6	22 years +/- 1 year	3 years	Best qualified (50%)

Note. From *Department of the Army Pamphlet 600-3: The Army Personnel Development System*, by U.S. Army Headquarters, 2014, p. 36. Reprinted from public domain.

The intent of Army officer development is to balance the breadth and depth of experience throughout a career. Officers employ the Warrior Ethos in all environments and focus on developmental positions that enrich career advancement (U.S. Army, 2014a, p. 1). Officers' build on their formal education with experience gained from leading and training soldiers and varied and challenging assignments at tactical, operational, and strategic levels. Time limits, available positions, Army requirements, and physical and mental readiness effect the time an officer needs to gain suitable leadership skills (U.S. Army, 2014a, p. 1). Officer career progression relates to individual effort and the individual's definition of Army professional success.

Army officers receive high quality and extensive training as soldiers and leaders. Before and after officers receive commissions, the Army invests considerable financial and human resources in training (Zaccaro et al., 2012). Common training requirements stipulate the officers' necessary skills, knowledge, and attributes (U.S. Army, 2014a, p. 24). Other training and education requirements apply to officers in a particular specialty such as infantry, military intelligence, or logistics. Officer education takes place in

military and civilian institutions, through self-development, in operational assignments, and individual study (U.S. Army, 2014a, p. 24).

Army officers have their performance evaluated by supervisors at a minimum annually and each time they change duty positions. For officer personnel decisions, Army supervisors use the Army Officer Evaluation Reporting System (OERS) (U.S. Army, 2014a, p. 4; U.S. Army, 2015, p. 1). Evaluation rating officials assess an officer's performance and potential against standards: the Army Leadership Requirements Model containing attributes and competencies (Figure 4) (U.S. Army, 2012b; U.S. Army CAL, 2014); the organizational mission; and a specific set of duties, responsibilities, tasks, and objectives, and evaluation report rating techniques (U.S. Army, 2015a). Civilian organizations very rarely use a performance evaluation with the rigor, standards, and oversight as that employed in the U.S. Army.

Military-Civilian Cultural Gap

The U.S. military differs significantly from the civilian population in terms of demographics, culture, and raison d'etre (Bryan, Jennings, Jobes, & Bradley, 2012; Hall, 2011). The Army culture demonstrates its exclusivity with distinctive uniforms, values, and rites that promote cohesion and separation from civilian life (Koeszegil et al., 2014). These differences create both protective factors and vulnerabilities for transitioning soldiers of all ranks.

The presence of a cultural gap between the military and civilian sectors has been studied extensively (Bryan et al. 2012; Dibella, 2013; Hall, 2011; Szayna et al., 2007; Rahbek-Clemmensen, J., et al., 2012) and that gap may influence the career progression

within and transition of FRACs leaving the military. A cultural gap refers to differences between civilian and military populations' attitudes and values. Research indicates a dichotomy exists between military life, characterized by collectivism, group integrity and identity, discipline, and personal sacrifice, while civilian life seems to be focused on individuality, equality of opportunity, hedonism, and self-gain (Bryan et al., 2012; Szayna et al., 2007; Toh & Leonardelli, 2013). This cultural gap may be exacerbated by the all-volunteer force with a demographic composition that does not mirror civilian society as it did under a conscription force (Rahbek-Clemmensen, J., et al., 2012). The influence of a military-culture gap is important because a healthy democracy requires a military that is not too far apart from the society it defends (Bryan et al., 2012).

The Army draws on narrow societal segments for its officer recruits and those demographic disparities may differentiate civilian from military populations (Rahbek-Clemmensen, J., et al., 2012; Szayna, 2007; Wrona, 2006). Generally, the military draws disproportionate amounts of officers from conservative Southern states and rural areas, while under-representing social and economic elites (Rahbek-Clemmensen, J., et al., 2012; Szayna et al., 2007). On average, military officers are more educated than their civilian equivalents, with over 82% of military officers possessing bachelor degrees or higher (DOD, 2015; Rahbek-Clemmensen et al., 2012). Comparing military demographics to national census information, women consist of about 50% of the civilian population, yet comprise only 15.4% of the Army (Rahbek-Clemmensen et al., 2012; DOD, 2015). Two contexts within the military culture that affect women are the beliefs about gender expectations and male dominance (DiRamio et al., 2015).

Gender Expectations in the Military

The Army does not exhibit gender-neutrality; rather, the Army is unequivocally a male domain, opposed to femininity, and characterized by the lack of positions in certain specialties and the reduced presence in others (De Angelis et al., 2013). Women represent a token status in worldwide national armies. A 2015 estimate for women in national militaries shows the following: United States 15%, Canada 15%, and Australia 10% (DOD, 2015; Mulrine, 2013). Rather than being viewed as individuals, tokens represent their sex (Powell, 2012).

Tokenism represents performance and integration pressures and stereotypical views of women in minority positions (less than 15%) due to numerical imbalance, lower social gender status, occupational inappropriateness, and intrusiveness (De Angelis et al., 2013; Kanter, 1977; Koeszegil et al, 2014). According to Kanter (1977), tokens receive considerable attention that heightens pressure on them to perform well, and the token status intensifies the less positive evaluations of women. The appearance of gender-based differences increase since tokens are isolated from male-based social and professional networks (Boldry et al., 2001). Women tokens are encouraged to act in gender-appropriate ways or risk hostile reactions from male counterparts (Boldry et al., 2001; Yoder, 1991).

Stereotypical military gender expectations characterize a significant portion of the military culture, which is not gratifying or empowering in comparison to current civilian views about women's roles (DiRamio et al., 2015). Harrison (2003) asserted that the cementing principle of military culture was masculinity (p. 75). Similarly, Duncanson

(2015) and Connell and Messerschmidt (2005) explored military hegemonic masculinity to explain the persistence of male dominance in a context of multiple and changing masculinities.

Hegemonic masculinity in a military culture is associated with competitiveness, aggression, action, strength, physical fitness, and the ability to defeat a dehumanized enemy in combat (Duncanson, 2015; Woodward, 1998). The hegemonic masculinity model serves as an overt cultural ideal, and everyone in that culture negotiates their masculinity in relation to it (De Angelis, Sandhoff, Bonner, & Segal, 2013; Duncanson, 2015). The resultant power struggles are expressed in gendered terms: the threat of being feminized is used to downgrade and monitor groups of men which Woodward (1998) linked to what was seen in Army training with the archetypal use of *woman* or *girl* to denigrate those who fail to complete the various physical challenges associated with manliness. The strategies of feminization, although directed at men, have an impact on women by reinforcing ‘‘feminized’’ qualities with inferiority (De Angelis et al., 2013).

Based on the past 14 years of operations in Iraq and Afghanistan, the ultra-masculine and aggressive character of the ideal soldier mindset may not be the most effective way forward (Egnell, 2013). The increased focus on counterinsurgency, peace, or stabilization operations, may indicate an alternative military masculinity to the combat model; a masculinity that is associated with conflict resolution rather than conflict, and the skills of communication, negotiation, humanitarianism, sensitivity, compassion, and empathy (Duncanson, 2015; U.S. Army, 2012c). The complexity of current operations means that soldiers and officers at all levels need good cognitive skills, problem solving

abilities, and a flexible mindset that can respond to a variety of challenges within a short time frame (Egnell, 2013).

Male-Dominant Work Environment

Historically, military service was a masculine role, however, the advent of the all-volunteer force and policy changes has increased the percentage of women serving in the armed forces (Carter, 2015; Kelty, Kleykamp, & Segal, 2010). The presence of male-dominant work environments influence individuals and their expected traits and behaviors while also affecting the gender stereotyping of professions (Barratt, Bergman, & Thompson, 2014; Martin & Barnard, 2013). Despite this challenge, some women, like the FRACs, pursue professions that do not support their expected gendered roles. Among the male-dominant professions reviewed for this study, women constituted 8.9% of the U.S. construction occupations, 17.5% federal law enforcement (BLS, 2014), 13.6% of engineers (Buse, Bilimoria, & Perelli, 2013), and 15.4% of the Army (DOD, 2015).

Occupational segregation is entrenched in workplace norms and employment procedures that sanction the current gender hierarchy (Cha, 2013; Ridgeway 2011). Those who followed surreptitious organizational practices that maintained gender discrimination, challenge women in male-dominant organizations (Cha, 2013; Martin & Barnard, 2013). These organizational procedures consisted of insufficient recognition of the unique identity, physical, and work-life effectiveness needs of women (Martin & Barnard, 2013). Cha (2013) asserted that male-dominant workplaces value overwork (50 or more hours per week) which served as a critical source of occupational segregation. Peers and supervisors consider employees who work longer hours more committed and

industrious and worthy to receive recognition and awards (Cha, 2013). The women's increased attrition rates in male-dominant work environments relate to these greater time demands (Cha, 2013).

Organizational members emulate broader social settings by displaying hegemonic masculinity, especially in organizations that celebrate masculinity (e.g., military, law enforcement, & construction) (Barratt et al., 2014; De Angelis et al., 2013). Men receive rewards for displaying masculine traits and behaviors such as assertiveness, independence, and strength and pursuing professions that value masculinity. Military, federal law enforcement, and construction occupations are characterized by tasks that are stereotypically masculine (e.g., dangerous work environment, use of force, guns, and physically demanding), dominated in the senior levels by men, and stereotyped as a job where women will not qualify or succeed (Barratt et al., 2014; Buse et al., 2013; DiRamio, 2015). In quantitative studies on women managers in male-dominant work environments, male managers scored lower on both the interpersonal and task style than female managers and female behaviors resembled that of men (Gardiner & Tiggemann, 1999; Shimanoff & Jenkins, 1991).

Male dominance, both numerical and cultural, generates persistent challenges to women's integration and inclusion since their behaviors, bodies, and identities do not fit the dominant standard (De Angelis, Sandhoff, Bonner, & Segal, 2013). Hyper-gendered roles support male-dominant professions where organizations devalue feminine traits and behaviors (Shelley et al. 2011). As a result, women create gendered personas to reproduce appropriate gender behaviors as dictated by the social structure (Barratt et al.,

2014). Masculine women behaviors include assertiveness and independence (Barratt et al., 2014). According to Arditi et al. (2013), female and male construction managers possess similar management behaviors in 85% of the managerial competencies investigated. Female managers rated themselves higher than males in sensitivity, which aligns with the social norm of expectations for a woman (Arditi et al., 2013). While both men and women scored high in decision making, reflecting decisive and dynamic behavior, male managers rated themselves as having better resilience and decision making than female managers (Arditi et al., 2013).

Role models are people one wishes to emulate. Role models offer direct and indirect career choice and professional identity in a profession (Bandura, 1997; Stryker, 2008). Within the social cognitive theory, role models help one prepare for professional and personal roles (e.g., military officers) and can positively impact one's decision to stay in a career (Smith & Rosenstein, 2016). Research indicates the influence of positive role models increases self-efficacy and facilitates women's perceptions they can have careers in male-dominant professions like the Army (Quimby & Santis, 2006). All Army leaders are expected to serve as role models, to provide concrete evidence of desired leadership behaviors, and to demonstrate commitment and action of verbal guidance (U.S. Army, 2012b, p. 16-17).

The influence of mentoring on women's decisions to stay in a male-dominant profession resulted in mixed outcomes (Buse et al., 2013). In the Army, mentoring is "the voluntary, developmental relationship that exists between a person of greater experience and a person of lesser experience that is characterized by mutual trust and respect" (U.S.

Army, 2015b, p. 3-17, 2014a, p. 2). The increase in more senior women Army officers in the past 10 years provides additional mentors and role models to share relevant cultural and social experiences (Kelty et al., 2010). No research exists on the effectiveness of mentoring on Army women's leadership behavior.

Mentoring did not significantly influence the women who chose to stay in the male-dominant engineering field (Buse et al., 2013). In contrast, research on women graduate students established that the challenges encountered by women academics and professionals were alleviated by peer mentoring to provide encouragement and empowerment to overcome success barriers (Bhatia & Amati, 2010). Female federal law enforcement officers higher in masculine behavior reported higher career rates mentoring which suggest they would be perceived to have a greater capacity for success in law enforcement because they better matched the masculine law enforcement ideal structure (Barratt et al., 2014).

Women employing male behaviors may feel more assured and assertive in seeking career mentoring than non-masculine women, especially when that mentor is a man (Barratt et al., 2014). The effectiveness of mentoring may also be due to a *similar to me* effect where men prefer to work closely with and mentor masculine women because they are comfortable with their behaviors (Barratt et al., 2014). The 2013 Army CASAL study indicated that 74% of active duty Army officers, from major to colonel rank, reported that mentoring positively affected their leader development and directly correlated with increased morale and career satisfaction. No research exists focused on the effects of mentoring on Army women officers' careers.

The researcher conducted peer-reviewed studies that examined the individual and contextual factors that distinguish women who persist in male-dominant work professional and managerial environments such as the military, engineering, construction, and law enforcement. The qualitative and quantitative research identified patterns of individual, career choice, and contextual factors that distinguished the women who stay in male-dominant work environments and those who leave (Buse et al., 2013; Cha, 2013). Research indicated that women who remain in male-dominant work environments do so because of varying factors such as resilience, obligation, persistence, grit, and willingness to overwork (DiRamio et al., 2015; Martin & Barnard, 2013). Women's resilience tactics included using femininity, seeking mentorship, and adopting male characteristics (Martin & Barnard, 2013). To gain equality and advance in the male-dominated military, female military members demonstrate a self-induced obligation or pressure to represent their gender (DiRamio et al., 2015).

Common factors exist that increase a woman's work-life balance (WLB) and self-efficacy that reflect women's intent to stay in a male-dominant profession (Buse et al., 2013; Malone & Issa, 2014). Persistent women engineers who remained in the field for 20 or more years demonstrated high self-efficacy and work-life balance that supported their preference to find new and challenging assignments and deal effectively with uncomfortable or tough situations (Buse et al., 2013). The persistent women engineers identified their attributes, values, and experiences as professional engineers (Buse et al., 2013). The women who stayed chose their engineering career and identified the novelty, continuous learning, and personal fulfillment as the reasons to stay.

Two predictive models for women's commitment to remain in male-dominant career fields exist. Buse et al. (2013) developed a career persistence model (CPM) that applied to women who persisted in the male-dominate field of engineering. According to the CPM, career choice factors moderated by work and family contextual factors influenced the individual features of identity, adaptability, self-efficacy, and work engagement (Bilmoria, 2013; Buse et al.). Malone & Issa's (2014) predictive model indicated that women's long-term employee commitment to remain in the construction profession was based on their income, 12-month employee commitment, organizational commitment, work-life balance, career development, and friendships.

Women Senior Leaders

During the past 20 years, women have attained a greater presence in senior military and civilian leadership levels, yet the societal norms endure to associate leadership with masculine behavior (Cook & Glass, 2014; Pfaff et al., 2013; Yeagley et al., 2010). Expected men's strengths in senior leadership roles, military and civilian, align with responsibilities such as making decisions, delegating tasks, developing strategies, and allocating resources (Pfaff et al., 2013). Because both military and civilian leaders perceive women to be less qualified for senior leadership positions based on their inclusion and connection behaviors (Atwater, Brett, Waldman, DiMare, & Hayden, 2004), women find it difficult to enter the top levels of male-dominated leadership and that contributes to their continued limited occupation of corporate roles with the most power and influence (Powell, 2012). These persistent assumptions support why merely 11% of women hold senior level military positions (DOD, 2015) and 14% of women hold

senior executive level positions at S&P 500 and Fortune 500 companies (Catalyst, 2014; U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2014).

Women serving in senior leadership positions violates the norm of men's authority and higher status more than women's presence in low- and mid-level leadership positions (Powell, 2012). Decision makers' cognitive processes about senior leadership positions can subtly strengthen the norm of male superiority (Perry et al., 1994). Token women in senior power and authority positions face additional performance pressures due to increased attention and have to work harder for achievement recognition than male counterparts (Kanter, 1977; Powell, 2012).

The outsider status of senior women leaders is exacerbated when 35% of female senior executives are hired from outside the company while only 22% of male senior executives are hired externally (Strategy&, 2013). The decision to hire externally may indicate companies were not able to grow enough senior women leaders internal to the organization. Even after women reach the male-dominated ranks of top leadership, their exclusion from male-dominate social activities and exaggerated gender stereotypes continued (Kanter, 1977). Senior leaders perceived as outsiders have a higher chance of forced removal and since 2003; 38% of women CEOs were forced to leave their positions, compared with 27% of the men (Strategy&, 2013).

Clarke (2011) presented several factors that uniquely influenced a women leader's career: shaped by roles, relationships, and family responsibilities; structural factors to include male dominated work cultures, female stereotypes, and exclusion from informal communication networks; women's personal choices; and relational criteria to define

success. Clarke (2011) surmised that the value of a woman only leadership development program was that the women's viewpoints were heard, women focused issues and discussions fostered trust and self-confidence, and women took more risks and expressed their views. Career developmental programs to prepare women for senior management and leadership positions should build resilient support networks, develop leadership skills, improve self-confidence, develop self-awareness, and provide options for a balanced personal and work life (O'Neil and Bilimoria, 2005; Weyer, 2007). Both Buse et al. (2013) and Clark (2011) attributed women's career success or persistence at the senior level to career identity and self-efficacy.

Within the increased research on women's careers at the top leadership and management levels there seemed an overconcentration on work-life issues and barriers to advancement rather than on the reasons for women attaining senior levels of leadership (Bhatia & Amati, 2010; Buse et al., 2013; Laud & Johnson, 2013; Martin & Barnard, 2013). To fill that gap, Laud and Johnson's (2013) study of executives across several fields, to include the military, provided empirical evidence that successful women executives took advantage of career opportunities when they perceived they might gain an advantage, especially through networking and education while male executives focused on ambition and self-promotion. Unfortunately, these significant studies provided little insight into how senior women developed leadership behaviors and modified those behaviors in changing environments.

Much of the research on senior women leaders has focused on individual traits or skills. However, institutional mechanisms or organizational culture can also influence

senior women leader's success (Cook & Glass, 2014; McKinsey, 2013). Research on the link between organizational health and gendered stereotypes indicated that women leaders' perceived emotional sensitivity and interpersonal skills benefit a company that faced tough personnel decisions or an equity crisis (Ryan et al., 2011), though the quantitative study conducted by Cook & Glass did not support this assertion. Several studies (Cohen & Huffman, 2007; Kanter, 1977) indicated that increased gender diversity and women's integration into senior decision-making roles reduced the influence of gender bias, increased the tendency for men to hire women, and increased the tenure of senior women leaders. While the research results of Cook and Glass (2014) refuted the link between the tenure of senior women leaders and an organization's health, they concurred with the influence of institutional diversity on reduced gender bias and increased hiring for senior women leaders.

Women Army Officers

Historically, the Army officer corps diversity has increased (Lim, Cho, and Curry, 2008); yet, female officers are less likely to be in the senior officer ranks (major through general ranks) than in the junior officer ranks (Rand, 2012; WIM, 2013). In the mid-1980s, women constituted less than 2% percent of Army colonel grade (Manning, 2012). According to 2015 Department of Defense data, that figure is now 11% for the Army (DOD, 2015).

In 1967, the U.S. Congress modified the Women's Armed Services Integration Act. The result was the lifting of the 2% ceiling on women's numbers, removal of the caps on officer promotions above pay grade 0-3, eligibility for permanent promotion to

pay grade 0-6, and eligibility for Flag/General officer rank (WIM, 2013). Through the mid-1980s, women constituted less than 2% of Army, Air Force, and Marine colonels and Navy captains. By 2001, women constituted 9.5% of Army colonels (DOD, 2015). Between 2002 and 2014, the percentage of women Army colonels ranged from 10.4% in 2002 to 12.3% in 2006 (DOD, 2015). Since 2006, the percentage of women serving as colonels has steadily declined to the 2015 level of 11.4% (DOD, 2015). By service, the 2015 percentage for women in the grade of 0-6 was 11.4% for the Army, 12.1% for the Navy, 2.4% for the Marine Corps and 13.7% for the Air Force (DOD, 2015).

In 1978, the Women's Army Corps was disbanded, and women soldiers were transferred to the U.S. Army. Since the school year 1972-1973, women have been an essential part of the Army ROTC. The first Army ROTC female cadets were commissioned in the school year 1975-1976 while the first USMA women graduated in 1980 (Denver University, 2013). In 2015, women constituted 19.3% of the U.S. Army Military Academy (USMA) Corps of Cadets and more than 15% of annual Army active duty officer-commissioning cohorts (U.S Army Cadet Command, 2015).

Female Army roles are slowly expanding to include senior officer positions, combat unit support, and integration into previously male-only specialties and training. On December 3, 2015, the U.S. Defense Secretary Carter (2015) announced the opening of all military specialties to women beginning in 2016, with the execution and impact of these changes still unknown. The final 10% of positions opened to women in the Army include infantry, armor, reconnaissance, and special operations units. Beginning in 2016,

as long as women officers and soldiers qualify and meet the established standards, they can contribute to Army operations in ways they could not before (Carter, 2015).

Zeigler and Gunderson (2005) examined the ongoing reasons for the military changes, considered the advantages of faster integration, and identified predictable cultural struggles that arise when traditional values encounter modern innovations. Moskos (2011) suggested the military was transitioning from a modern military of masculine, warrior soldiers to a smaller, postmodern military force that represented the Western social demographics. Zeigler and Gunderson (2005) suggested a more inclusive military with opportunity standards equal to civilian work environments.

A 2006 survey (Fuller, S., Fowler, L., & Ranville, M., 2006) conducted for the US Army Women's Foundation (USAWF) studied women who served in the Army between 1940 and 2002. One of the relevant survey areas was the question regarding the most important thing acquired by the women's service in the Army. Of the 651 respondents, 20% stated they gained confidence and self-esteem, and 10% responded adaptability /discipline/ responsibility (Fuller et al., 2006). Of the 651 respondents, 61, or 7.8%, were current or formerly serving colonels.

As a group, women officers increased their proportional presence in the Army, yet they continue as a significant minority and until January 2016 were excluded from combat arms positions due to entrenched beliefs based in combat proximity, sexuality, and gender appropriateness (Carter, 2015; De Angelis et al., 2013). A gap in recent research on women Army officers exists (Denver University, 2013; Fuller et al., 2006; WIM, 2013). While research exists on the promotion rates and factors for women officers

(DOD 2015; Rand, 2012), no specific research was found that studied the leader behaviors of women officers or the transition of retired women officers to civilian careers.

Career Transition

Significant research exists on veterans' career transition from the military to a civilian career; however, limited research exists that explored the military officer retiree transition to a civilian career. No research was located that examined the experience of retired Army women officers. Numerous researchers have investigated the significance of planning prior to retirement and its impact on military careers after retirement (Baruch & Quick, 2009; Robertson & Brott, 2014; Vigoda-Gadot, Baruch, & Grimland, 2010). Related studies have examined military retirement fulfillment and adjustment (Robertson & Brott, 2014; Spiegel & Shultz, 2003), adjustment after transition (DiRamio et al., 2008; Vigoda-Gadot et al., 2010), career flexibility (Ebberwin, Krieshok, Ulven, & Prosser, 2004), and suicide and transition (Bryan et al., 2012: Pease, Billere, & Gerard, 2015). Notwithstanding previous research on second career satisfaction, career transition experiences, and career modification, a research gap remains on the transfer of leader behaviors from the military to a second career.

Transitioning to civilian life from the Army culture requires that retiring military officers adapt and adjust (Bryan et al., 2012; Pease et al., 2015). While the Army requires a one-week retirement transition training course and pre-retirement counseling, the dissonance between military and civilian cultures examined earlier in this literature review highlight the challenges FRACS may face when retiring after a minimum of 24 years in the Army (DOD,

2014a). The career transition goal is to develop the capability to adjust to the new experience (Robertson & Brott, 2014). Schlossberg's Human Adaptation to Transition model contributes to current understanding of the transition process (Robertson & Brott, 2014). During the transition process, individuals balance numerous external influences (e.g., job choices, family support, transition timing) and internal influences (e.g., motivation, control, confidence) (Robertson & Brott, 2014). One important Schlossberg model consideration is that transition takes place over time. Schlossberg (2011) stated the process of transitioning is easier for some and that departing one role and starting another takes time, perhaps several years.

Researchers suggest that military retirees felt emotionally unprepared to undergo the change to civilian careers (Baruch & Quick, 2009; Robertson & Brott, 2014). Vigoda-Gadot et al. (2010) found that after a prolonged career in a tight culture with a stable, hierarchical organization, military retirees need assistance to understand the civilian organizational politics that influence careers, outcomes, and the environment. An aspect of the Fuller et al. (2006) research that indicated women veterans and retirees hesitancy to change was the question "How many different jobs have you had since leaving the Army? The most common responses were they had held one job after their Army service (24.6 %) or two jobs (18%).

Military retirees may feel supporting organizational politics for selfish career progression will conflict with their values formed during their military careers such as selfless service, teamwork, and professionalism (Vigoda-Gadot et al., 2010). A study of retired Navy admirals (Baruch and Quick, 2009) focused on the transition and adaptability

challenges as they transitioned from past roles and toward future roles over time. Similarly, a research report on female veterans transitioning to civilian employment (BPW Foundation, 2007) highlighted the importance of psychological and tangible supports during and after the transition. Although each day individuals retire and redefine themselves from soldiers to retirees, little research exists focused on the emotional preparation for transition and the options for civilian careers (Bullock, Braud, Andrews, & Phillips, 2009).

The transition from the Army culture to the civilian culture after over 24 years of military service may yield a culture shock like that immigrants experience when they arrive in a new country (Rausch, 2014). A status change, an individual quest for meaning and identity, and disorientation may accompany the culture shock (Coll et al., 2011). Military retirees carry their military identities into the civilian world and retain values, attitudes, and behaviors that are markedly military and significantly set apart from civilian ways (Coll et al., 2011). Preparing retiring officers to handle the full impact of reentry to civilian society depends on individual career experiences, organizational commitment (Vigoda-Gadot et al., 2010), available integration support (Amdur et al., 2011), personal combat experiences, and personal decision-making skills (Clemens & Milsom, 2008).

Gaps in the Literature

The specific problem explored in this study was the gap in understanding in how women who achieved the rank of Army colonel developed their leader behaviors and subsequently applied those behaviors to the civilian job market after military retirement. Gaps associated with the problem include the gap in recent research on women Army officers (Denver University, 2013; Fuller et al., 2006; WIM, 2013). I found no specific

research that studied the leader behaviors of women officers or the transition of retired women officers to civilian careers.

The purpose of this multiple case study was to understand the relationships between how FRACs developed their leader behaviors and how they transferred those behaviors to a civilian career. Few studies have focused on the confluence of leadership behavior and gender (Bartol et al., 2003; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Herrera, Duncan, Green, & Skaggs, 2012). No research was located that examined the experience of retired Army women officers.

Gaps in the literature exist in reference to Research Questions 1 and 2. The focus of Research Question 1 is to explore how women assess their individual leader behavior development. Prior research on gender and leadership behavior focused on perceptions of followers, peers, and supervisors rather than the individuals' perceptions of their leadership behavior (Bartol et al., 2003). Researchers have not widely applied the TPB to the leadership field (Leo, 2014; Sial et al., 2014; Stoffers & Mordant-Dols, 2015). The intent of Research Question 2 is the exploration of the relationships between senior Army women's leader behaviors and their roles in follow-on civilian careers. Within the significant research on women's careers at senior levels of leadership and management there seems an overconcentration on work-life issues and barriers to advancement (Bhatia & Amati, 2010; Buse et al., 2013; Laud & Johnson, 2013; Martin & Barnard, 2013) and little research focused on the development of women's leadership behaviors.

Summary and Conclusions

This literature review contains the relevant research that provided the foundation and framework for this study and includes research synthesis related to the study problem, purpose, and research questions. The five major sections of the literature review were the theoretical foundation, conceptual framework, leadership, U.S. Army, and career transition. The central phenomenon studied is to understand how FRACs developed leader behaviors and how those behaviors transfer to careers after the military.

The Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) (Ajzen, 1991, 2015) is a useful framework to explore the potential influences or outcomes of Army training, education, and experiences for FRACS to adopt certain leader behaviors. The conceptual framework for the study Yukl's four underlying dimensions or metacategories of leadership behavior (task-oriented, relations-oriented, change-oriented, and external) serve as and will form the framework of the semistructured interview questions (Yukl, 2006, 2012; Yukl et al., 2002). Yukl's (2012) hierarchical taxonomy is a description of leadership behaviors used to influence the performance of the team, work unit, or organization. Appendix B summarizes Yukl's leadership behavior metacategories.

My intent was to apply the TPB and Yukl's metacategories of leadership to study how FRACs come to believe that a leader behavior is useful to them and how they apply those behaviors in their military and post military careers. A majority of the researchers applied the TPB in quantitative studies. While important, the quantitative studies provided little insight into how senior women developed leadership behaviors and modified those behaviors in changing environments. This qualitative study provided a

new research perspective and explored how the behaviors were developed and transitioned to a new environment. Researchers have used the TPB to study many phenomena but rarely applied it to the field of leadership, as I did in this study

Stereotypical military gender expectations characterize a significant portion of the military culture, which is neither gratifying nor empowering in comparison to current civilian views about women's roles (DiRamio et al., 2015). Women officers in the Army exist in a male-dominant environment: a tight culture with identified and enforced behaviors that represent what an Army leader is expected to do or to demonstrate (Toh & Leonardelli, 2013; U.S. Army, 2014b). Male dominance, both numerical and cultural, generates persistent challenges to women's integration since their behaviors, bodies, and identities do not fit the dominant standard (De Angelis, Sandhoff, Bonner, & Segal, 2013).

Significant research exists on career transition from the military to a civilian career; however, limited research exists that explored the military retiree transition to a civilian career. No research was located that examined the experience of retired Army women officers. Despite prior quantitative studies on career transition experiences, career adjustment, and second career satisfaction, a research gap remains on the qualitative transfer of leader behaviors from the military to a second career.

Little research exists on the leader behaviors of Army colonels, and no research exists on the 11% who constitute women colonels. It is important to know how women who achieve the rank of Army colonel develop leader behaviors and how those behaviors transfer to follow-on civilian careers. It is also important to understand how private sector

senior managers perceive the FRAC leader behaviors. In chapter 3, I provide a review of the proposed methodology review to conduct this research.

Chapter 3: Research Method

The purpose of this multiple case study was to understand the relationships between how female retired Army Colonels (FRACs) developed their leader behaviors and how they transferred those behaviors to a civilian career. Leader behavior is defined as those behaviors used to influence and facilitate people to accomplish shared objectives by providing purpose, goals, and motivation (U.S. Army Headquarters, 2012a; Yukl, 2012).

Using a qualitative method can provide an abundance of data about a smaller amount of people (Patton, 2002). In this study, the focus was on a few questions in-depth rather than many questions with considerable breadth. The doctoral research goal was to understand, in depth, multiple cases that share the phenomenon of leader behavior. This detailed, rich data allowed me to examine both context and nuance. The research purpose and approach serve as the basis for the sampling size and strategy decision (Patton, 2002).

Chapter 3 contains the research design and rationale. The role of the researcher is detailed as is the methodology. The methodology section includes details on the participant selection logic, target population, sampling strategy, number of cases, participant criteria, and information about the relationship between saturation and sample size, and the instrumentation. Chapter 3 also contains the procedures for recruitment, participation, data collection, and the data analysis plan. Finally, the issues of trustworthiness in a qualitative study are included.

Research Design and Rationale

The problem explored in this study was the gap in understanding how women who have achieved the rank of Army colonel developed their leader behaviors and subsequently applied those behaviors to the civilian job market after military retirement. To address the study problem, I developed 3 research questions to frame the study. Three research questions guided this study:

Research Question 1: How do women develop their individual leader behaviors during their Army career?

Research Question 2: What are the relationships between senior Army women's leader behaviors and their roles in follow-on civilian careers?

Research Question 3: When considered for possible employment, how do private sector senior managers perceive the leader behaviors women developed during their Army careers?

A qualitative research tradition was the best option for this study because the researcher was able to capture an in-depth view of individual experience and to capture this view in the proper context. The use of a qualitative research approach allows the researcher to gain an understanding of individual or group reasons with an emphasis on descriptions rather than numbers (Yin, 2014). With qualitative research, one can examine emerging questions and modify the design as the study progresses. Qualitative researchers seek to gain a deep understanding of the phenomenon and explore processes (Patton, 2002). A quantitative method did not suit this study because the purpose of this research is to attain an analytical rather than a statistical generalization (Yin, 2014).

The multiple case study design was used to address the problem statement by attempting to understand from the participants' point of view and reveal the meaning of their lived experiences (Stake, 2010). The case study methodology includes definitions and characteristics of the case study, types of case studies, the use of case studies in the current research, theoretical sampling: delimiting the case and criteria for participation in the study (Yin, 2014). A case study is an empirical inquiry used to both investigate a contemporary phenomenon in depth within its real-life context and to cope with the problem in which there will be more variables of interest than data points (Yin, 2014). The case study relies on different evidence and data sources with the goal that a researcher converges the data in a triangulating fashion (Stake, 2010).

Case study evidence should come from multiple data sources. Data sources may include interviews, documents, direct observation, physical artifacts, archival documents, and participant observation (Yin, 2014). For this study, the data was derived from interviews, documents, and archival information. Interviews provided insights and explanations that focused on the case study topic. Documents, such as official records or performance evaluations, provided broad data not created specifically for the study.

A case study permits an in-depth study of the phenomenon from a broader view with data drawn from several sources to add information and enrich interpretation (Stake, 2010). A case study researcher collects multiple sources of data to develop the case or multiple case descriptions. Employing the case study design, a researcher seeks to understand from the participants' point of view and reveal the meaning of people's lived experiences prior to any scientific explanations (Maxwell, 2013). Using the case study

design, a researcher endeavors to answer how and why questions and to consider how the phenomenon (e.g. leader behavior) is influenced by the situational context (Yin, 2014). This design supported my ability to gather data from various sources and to congregate the data to examine the case.

The multiple case study is preferred when the study focus is on a contemporary phenomenon in a real-life context and the researcher has little control over events (Yin, 2014). In the multiple case study, the purpose is to understand the similarities and differences between the cases one examines several cases (Baxter & Jack, 2008). One can use the multiple case studies to either predict similar or contrasting results for predictable explanations (Yin, 2014). The multiple case study method is a way of comparing the data collected from the individual cases with the group case analysis. The researcher collects and analyzes data from several cases when conducting a multiple case study, (Yin, 2014).

In the design phase of the research study, the researcher examines quantitative and several qualitative traditions or approaches to determine the appropriate method to pursue. The selection of a suitable design is based on the study purpose and the data types that will be collected. The phenomenological research method was not appropriate because that approach focuses on what the participants have in common for a single phenomenon (Moustakas, 1994). The ethnographic method was considered but not selected because it requires a longer participant observation time and is inadequate to address the why and how of the study phenomena. The narrative approach was not chosen because it is best used to portray the detailed stories of a single participant (Creswell, 2013). Since the intent of grounded theory research is to generate a theory

from the collected data, it was not selected because the researcher seeks to increase understanding of a contemporary phenomenon (Yin, 2014). The multiple case study design was selected to address the problem statement by attempting to understand from the participants' point of view and reveal the meaning of the FRAC lived experiences (Stake, 2010).

I sought to understand how the FRACs develop their leader behaviors and thereby provide a rationale to investigate this contemporary phenomenon in depth. The cases examined in this study were the individual FRACs and senior managers. The multiple case study was appropriate because the boundaries between the FRAC leader behavior phenomenon and the Army environment context may not be evident (Yin, 2014).

Role of the Researcher

The researcher is the qualitative research tool (Stake, 2010). To become an effective qualitative researcher, one needs to practice reflective exercises and increase self-awareness. Maxwell (2013) cautioned that if the researcher separates himself or herself from the research they effectively isolate their primary source of insights, themes, and validity. Qualitative researchers must recognize their biases and connection to the research and be able to step outside that framework. One researcher challenge with qualitative data collection is the need for very accurate, detailed, nuanced participant response descriptions so the researcher can interpret findings and generate meaning intended by the participant, not the researcher.

I conducted the entire study from research design, data collection, and data analysis to report writing. Prior to doing any interview or document collection, all

participants were informed of and agreed to the necessary informed consent permissions. The methods employed to recruit, inform, and interview participants included the use of social network sites such as LinkedIn and Facebook, email, and telephone. The preferred interview method was face to face. However, due to the work schedules and the geographically dispersed location of the participants, only one face-to-face interview was conducted with the remainder conducted on the telephone. All interviews were digitally recorded and fully transcribed. I annotated interview summary notes for follow-on use in the analysis phase.

The population of FRACs who fit the criteria of this study is small (n=498) (MDMC, 2015). As one of the 78 female Army colonels who retired in 2012, I knew some of the participants. Since the FRACs are no longer in the Army, there were no existing military supervisory relationships to bias the data. Since all FRACs retired from the military, there were no issues of the position of power. I was cognizant of the possibility that my own experience as a FRAC, who transitioned to a civilian career, may bias my analysis. Multiple sources of data and member checks of the draft case themes mitigated the possible researcher biases.

Method

Participant Selection Logic.

The FRAC participants included those who retired from the U.S. active Army more than 1 year and less than 6 years prior to the date of IRB approval. The time constraint ensures the FRAC participants rose through the Army ranks to Colonel in the past 15 years and were, therefore, subject to similar Army regulations for educational and

experiential opportunities. The private sector senior managers interviewed had hired, worked with, or evaluated FRACs in the past 6 years. The information derived from the senior manager interviews served as a source for data triangulation.

Population.

The total population of FRACs is small. From September 2010 until September 2015, the total number of FRACs serving on active duty ranged from 473 to 503, respectively (MDMC, 2010, 2015). Each government fiscal year, October through September, from 2010-2014, approximately 83 active duty FRACs retired (DOD, 2015). The total population of FRACs who retired in the 6 years prior to February 2016 is approximately 498.

Sampling Strategy.

The objective was to collect data from participants and documents to gain specific knowledge of Army leader behaviors. Based on that goal, purposeful selection was used to recruit participants with appropriate experience and knowledge. The purposeful selection provides in-depth understanding and nuanced, contextual information (Maxwell, 2013). The purposeful sampling method is the most suitable because the researcher selects individuals who meet specific criteria and will provide the information to support the research questions.

Sampling for multiple case studies requires decisions about which participants to interview and what cases to include (Miles, Huberman, & Saldana, 2014). The strength of purposeful sampling resides in the potential for rich information about core issues to the purpose of the study from a smaller sample (Isaac & Michael, 1995). Bernard (2013)

noted that qualitative studies involving the use of purposeful sampling typically have small sample sizes. It is critical to access a particular population subset to collect and analyze data that will be relevant to the study. The intent of using purposeful sampling is to capture diverse perspectives and ascertain significant patterns or themes across individual experiences.

Participant Criteria.

Yin (2014) suggested that case study participants should exhibit similarities specific to the study context and purpose while still allowing for conceptual generalizations and transference. In this multiple case study, 14 cases were proposed. The case study participants included eight FRACs and six senior managers. The examination of FRACs now working in the civilian sector and the senior managers who have hired or worked with retired Army officers reinforces and validates the case study by offering alternative perspectives (Kelly & Yin, 2007).

The criteria for a FRAC participant was retirement as a colonel from the active Army more than 1 year and less than 6 years prior to the date of IRB approval. The time constraint ensures the FRAC participants rose through the Army ranks to colonel in the past 15 years and were subject to similar Army regulations for educational and experiential opportunities. To establish that participants met the criteria, each FRAC participant provided a statement verifying their rank and date of retirement from active duty Army service. The criteria for the private sector senior managers was that they hired, worked with, or evaluated at least one FRAC during the past 6 years. To confirm that the

senior manager participants met the criteria, each manager provided a statement verifying that in their current capacity they met the participant criteria.

Number of cases and rationale.

The standard for qualitative sample size is based on the nature of the study and interviewing to the point of redundancy or saturation (O'Reilly & Parker, 2012; Trotter, 2012). The sample size consisted of 14 cases, consisting of eight FRACs and six senior managers. Though the sample might be viewed as small, Patton (2002) defended samples of this size by proposing they are sufficient for interviews involving interaction with a homogenous group. Multiple case studies with more than 10 cases may be unwieldy (Miles et al., 2014). During the qualitative interview process, qualitative researchers attain balance and diligence when the number of participants selected is sufficient to ensure appropriate depth and diversity of perspectives and concepts presented (Rubin & Rubin, 2012). I identified more than six FRACs and six senior managers to interview in case saturation was not met. The sample size of 12 cases was determined based on the following four parameters (Zilbershtein, 2012):

- Baseline: Miles et al. (2014) suggested that the acceptable number of cases explored in a case study is 10.
- Comparable studies: Review of other qualitative multiple case studies (O'Reilly & Parker, 2012).
- Projected Saturation Point: The saturation and sufficiency point was estimated to be 12 cases. The saturation point is achieved once all questions are meticulously

explored and no additional themes or perceptions emerge in subsequent interviews (Schensul & LeCompte, 2010).

- Theoretical Replication: The goal of this research was to be able to understand how FRACs developed leader behaviors and transferred those behaviors to civilian careers. Yin (2012) suggested to achieve a theoretical replication one should consider four to six cases.

Procedures for how participants were identified, contacted, and recruited

To identify and recruit research participants, the homogeneous sampling strategy was used. Homogeneous sampling centers on the purposeful selection of a small, homogeneous sample with the purpose to describe a distinct subgroup in depth (Patton, 2002). The research included a homogeneous sample to describe FRAC's leader behaviors in-depth.

The sample was purposefully selected. For practical considerations, I employed easy accessibility, time, and familiarity to identify at least 10 FRACs and 10 senior managers as the initial sample. I identified a higher number of FRACs and senior managers than the proposed 12 total cases (six FRACs and six senior managers) to account for the number required to reach saturation and for those who may not be willing to participate voluntarily in the study.

Personal and professional contacts and the LinkedIn social network were used to identify potential FRAC and senior manager participants. Starting with the FRACs known through my military network, I developed a standard message with background information on the research objectives and emailed it to that initial group. To widen the

participant targeting, the standard FRAC study information and participant invitation message was also posted to the LinkedIn social networking website. The study invitation requested those meeting the basic study criteria respond to the provided email address for more information. Once the response was received from one of the potential participants, a consent form was emailed to the individual. Once the signed consent form was received, I emailed a short demographic survey to assess if the candidate qualified against the participant criteria.

The second set of participants included private sector senior managers who hired, worked with, or evaluated FRACs in the past 6 years. There are more than 2.2 million executives (includes CEOs, presidents, business owners, senior and operations managers) in the United States (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2015), so the challenge was to narrow the search. The literature review did not reveal any listings of senior managers that fit the predefined profile. To identify potential senior manager participants, personal and professional contacts and the LinkedIn social networking website were used. The standard study information message was emailed to contacts and posted to the LinkedIn social networking website. The study invitation requested those meeting the basic study criteria respond to the provided email address for more information. Once the response was received from one of the potential participants, a consent form was emailed to the individual. Once the signed consent form was received, I emailed a short demographic survey to assess if the candidate qualified against the participant criteria.

Relationship between saturation and sample size

Sample saturation is an essential criterion to determine an adequate sample size for interview research (Rubin & Rubin, 2012). Based on the selected number of cases, six FRACs and six senior managers, the total interviewee pool size was 10 FRAC and 10 senior manager interviewees with more available, if necessary, to reach saturation. The study nature, the range of participant views and experiences, and the sample size sufficiency for supporting adequate exploration of study research questions determine the sample size (O'Reilly & Parker, 2013).

The goal of this research was to describe the shared perceptions of a homogeneous group, FRACs. In studies with a high homogeneity level in the population, it is implausible that more than six interviews would produce new perceptions, significantly new themes, or valuable insights (Fusch & Ness, 2015). Data saturation is about the depth of the data rather than the numbers (Burmeister & Aitken, 2012; Cleary et al., 2014). Morse (1995) advocated a minimum of six interviews to achieve data saturation.

The interview questions will affect the quality and depth of data collected (Bernard, 2012) and subsequently the point of saturation (Bernard, 2012; Fusch & Ness, 2015). The sample size becomes inconsequential, as the measurement of value is the quality of data resulting from the interface between the interviewer and the interviewee. The interviews with FRACS and senior managers continued until all relevant themes and perceptions were discovered (Mason, 2010).

Instrumentation

Case study researchers generally draw from six evidentiary bases: interviewing, archival records, participant-observation, direct observation documentation, and physical artifacts (Yin, 2014). Relevant data for this research was collected from interviewing, documentation, and archival records. I developed the data collection instruments that supported this research. The data collection instruments included a semistructured interview template (Appendix C), a common study information statement for social networking and professional organization sites, an e-mail contact script, a pre-interview questionnaire and participant statement to validate they meet study criteria, and a request for documents. Peer-reviewed sources were used to develop all of the instruments in this study.

Interviewing is an appropriate way to collect data for a case study (Miles et al., 2014; Rubin & Rubin, 2012). Rubin & Rubin (2012) coined the term responsive interviewing to communicate the dynamic and iterative process of questioning. The responsive questioning styles mirror the researcher's personality and can adapt as the interview purpose evolves. The case study approach entails multiple, in-depth participant interviews.

The interview questions were developed to answer the research questions. Azjen's (2013) framework for constructing a theory of planned behavior (TPB) quantitative questionnaire provided a focus for the study interview questions but did not address the qualitative aspects required for this study. The interview questions were used to gain

insight into the participants' perception of how they developed their leader behaviors while in the Army and how those behaviors transition to their civilian careers.

The interview goal for the present study was to establish rapport with the interviewee, frame questions to engage and encourage their responses, and encourage them to provide clear, complete answers to interview questions. The researcher informed each respondent of the study purpose, goal, and confidentiality. The questions, relevant to the research, were broad, open-ended, and focused attention on data collection. The interview protocol template included the following information: interview time, date, location, brief project description, and interview questions.

Documents collected for a case study can augment and corroborate evidence from other sources (Yin, 2014). At the conclusion of the initial interview, the FRACs and senior managers were requested to provide letters, military or civilian performance evaluations, military or civilian awards, pictures, or journals that contain examples of FRAC leader behaviors. Two days after the initial interview, I sent an email reminder to the participants requesting documents.

Archival records were used in conjunction with other information sources in this case study. Examples of archival records employed in this research included military demographic information (MDMC, 2015), U.S. Bureau of Labor (2015) statistics, military personnel records, and survey data from Denver University (2013), Catalyst (2014, 2015), PEW (2011), Rand (2012), and other survey sources. The researcher assesses the accuracy and the data collection conditions to determine the relevancy of the archival evidence (Yin, 2014).

Semistructured questions were used during the study interviews. Qualitative interviewing consists of hearing, listening, and sharing social experiences (Rubin & Rubin, 2012). The researcher uses qualitative interviewing to reconstruct events and understand experiences that they did not participate in (Rubin & Rubin, 2012). Among the literature sources used to develop the research questions was the U.S. Army Performance Evaluation Guide ADRP 6-22 Leadership Requirements Model and Example Behavioral Indicators (2014).

To establish sufficiency of the interview questions to answer the research questions, I created a matrix with the research questions on the horizontal axis and the interview questions on the vertical axis (Table 3). The interview questions are detailed in Appendix C. The interview question validity and sufficiency grid is similar to a data saturation grid (Brod, Tesler, & Christiansen, 2009). In Table 3, the interview questions were transposed onto the matrix to determine if they would likely provide answers to the research questions.

Table 3

Interview Question Validity and Sufficiency

Research Questions	Research Question 1	Research Question 2	Research Question 3
1.1	X	X	
1.2	X		
1.3	X		
1.4	X		
1.5	X		
1.6	X		
1.7	X		
1.8	X		
1.9	X		
1.10	X		
2.1	X	X	
2.2		X	
2.3		X	
2.4		X	
2.5		X	
2.6		X	
2.7		X	
2.8		X	
2.9	X	X	
3.1			X
3.2			X
3.3			X
3.4			X
3.5			X
3.6			X
3.7			X
3.8			X

Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection

Source of Data Collected

Case study research involves using various data sources, a method that may increase credibility of data (Patton, 2002; Yin, 2014). The data collection consisted of semistructured interviews, documents, and archival records. One-on-one interviews were conducted with eight FRACs and six senior managers. Additional collected data sources can provide a fuller picture of the FRAC leader behavior. Case study researchers can also gather and incorporate quantitative survey data that assists in developing a complete understanding of the phenomenon studied (Baxter & Jack, 2008).

I was the sole data collector. As described above, the data included interview results, documents, and archival records. To recruit, inform, and interview participants, the social network site LinkedIn, email, and telephone were used.

I interviewed each participant once in a face-to-face or telephone interview. No subsequent interviews to ask follow-up questions were required. Each participant received their interview transcript to allow them to add or modify their statements after personal reflection. The telephone interview with the FRACs took approximately 45-60 minutes while the senior manager interviews face-to-face interview took 20-30 minutes.

To ensure transcription accuracy, all interviews were recorded with the participants' prior knowledge and written approval. All interviews were recorded using a Livescribe recording device and the Evernote software application. The interview output included written notes, written interview transcripts, and recorded interview information.

There are practical constraints on the researcher in terms of unforeseen participant attrition (Tuckett, 2004). One participant withdrew from the study prior to the interview due to schedule conflicts and he was reminded that there were no repercussions for leaving the study and informed that all documents pertaining to his participation would be destroyed and not used in the study. Once that manager participant withdrew from the study, a new participant from the previously identified pool replaced the departed member. Post interview contact via email contained requests to the participants for follow-up interviews, if needed. No follow-up interviews were required. Each participant received a copy of the interview transcript via email to review for accuracy. I requested that each participant provide comments on the transcript within five business days. All six managers and eight FRAC acknowledged receipt of the transcript. Six managers and six FRACs provided concurrence with their transcript. The remaining two FRACs did not provide comments on their transcripts.

Data Analysis Plan

Connection of Data to a Specific Research Question

The data resulting from the FRAC and senior manager interviews plus the documents collected from the participants were intended to provide the answers to the three research questions. The data collection continued until data saturation was reached. The three research questions connect to the data in the following manner:

- Research Question 1: How do women develop their individual leader behaviors during their Army career? The data for this question was derived from the FRAC interviews and the documents provided by participants.

- Research Question 2: What are the relationships between senior Army women's leader behaviors and their roles in follow-on civilian careers? The data for this question was derived from the FRAC interviews and the documents provided by participants.
- Research Question 3: When considered for possible employment, how do private sector senior managers perceive the leader behaviors women developed during their Army careers? The data for this question was derived from the senior manager interviews.

Analysis

The goals of qualitative data analysis are to develop or mature the data, empathize with the interviewees, and derive themes or comments. The researcher conducts analysis concurrent with the data collection to generate strategies to improve data collection and try to develop an interim report. For case studies, Yin (2014) suggested first playing with the data by searching for possible patterns, insights, and concepts. In a multiple case study, the patterns or insights may emerge when the researcher first compares and contrasts the data from two or more cases.

Case study research data analysis consists of several phases: data sorting, data analysis, data synthesis, and data evaluation. According to Yin (2014), a qualitative approach follows a defined three-step data analysis procedure. The first step involves bracketing, or phenomenological reduction, when the researcher attempts to identify then discard preconceived individual experiences, perceptions, and understandings. This attitude shift allows the researcher to determine their biases or viewpoints concerning the

phenomenon under study (Patton, 2002) and take measures to set it aside. The second step is horizonalization where the researchers list all relevant statements from the collected data and assigns all statements and perspectives equal meaning and weight (Yin. 2014). The third step entails clustering the statements into themes, concepts, or meaning units to reduce redundant statements.

A large amount of data generated in a qualitative study makes analysis a challenge. To mitigate the data problem, qualitative researchers' employ coding to organize the data and to categorize and describe their collected data (Bernard, 2013). Both hand coding and software assistant coding are subject to differing interpretation by the same or different researchers. The individual researcher's purpose, approach, personal background, and experience influences the qualitative data coding (Bazeley, 2012). Coding was the primary data analysis technique employed in this study.

Both deductive and inductive coding enable the detailed analysis of collected data (Bernard, 2013). The researcher reviews interview questions to identify the deductive codes and those codes help identify and separate keywords and themes associated with the study conceptual framework. The use of both deductive and inductive coding can support triangulation, the use of multiple approaches to see if they support a single conclusion (Fusch & Ness, 2015; Maxwell, 2013). The three steps of the qualitative data coding process include aggregate the collected data into information categories, review data sources (e.g. interviews), and assign a label or code. This coding process can be manual, but using qualitative data analysis software, such as NVivo, assists the researcher to organize the data and facilitate the data coding.

Analysis software

One can conduct qualitative data process manually, but using computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software (CAQDAS) such as NVivo, MaxQDA2, or ATLAS.ti assists the researcher to organize the data and facilitate the data coding (Miles et al., 2014). Researchers use CAQDAS to enable the coding process and facilitate data access. CAQDAS use provides the researcher dynamic and simultaneous access to different components of the data analysis, to include codes, annotations, and demographic data (Talanquer, 2014). Using CAQDAS can expedite and enhance, but does not replace or preclude substantial, intuitive analysis (Tessier, 2012). One unique aspect of using CAQDAS versus manual coding or analysis is the ability to moe easily develop visual data representations (graphs, trees, and charts) to help analysis (Rademaker, Grace, & Curda, 2012). While numerous CAQDAS exist to assist the qualitative researcher, NVivo Pro version 11 was the software used in this study.

The CAQDAS can assist a researcher to organize, sort, and store data. The NVivo software enables researchers to combine field notes, tapes, and transcripts and connect recorded interviews sections or video extracts to codes (Tessier, 2012). The first step in data coding in CAQDAS programs is to import and link the source documents. NVivo also makes it possible for researchers to code data directly into relevant classifications from a paper-based exercise as well as facilitating the coding of critical concepts that emerge from the data (Smith & Firth, 2011). Using NVivo, the researcher can organize known data characteristics into attributes (Talanquer, 2014). The use of NVivo enables the researcher to gain the flexibility to try multiple possibilities of visual connections and

representations, without losing their initial codes (Rademaker et al., 2012). NVivo qualitative software can be useful for organizing and managing data to prevent data loss and difficulty in data retrieval. Using the NVivo export option, one can develop robust and accurate charts and graphs to display data in an effective manner.

There are several advantages to using analysis software such as NVivo. Source tracking and visibility are essential for qualitative research. The ability to auto-code several documents to discover frequency and key phrases saves countless hours (Talanquer, 2014). Another advantage of the NVivo is the ability to reprioritize nodes as the research continues. Finally, it is much easier to stay organized and drop and drag videos, audio files, transcripts, and photos into nodes as new information becomes available (Rademaker et al., 2012). The ability to link the Evernote software with NVivo increases the quality and coherence of data and analysis.

The use of NVivo software in this study assisted in data coding steps 2 and 3, horizonalization and clustering. Using this software, the researcher focuses on analysis and potentially discover connections or themes overlooked when using a manual method. NVivo software produces word pictures, charts, and graphs to portray the study findings in a clear and defendable manner. The software assists one to visually depict the meaning given to the phenomena. The NVivo software can help the researcher to demonstrate their interpretation and results link to the collected and analyzed data.

The researcher's use of Evernote software helped to manage the research articles and literature review sources. The data were imported from Evernote using NVivo to discover relationships between the literature review data, interviews, and documents.

NVivo enables one to develop visual representations of the clusters of meaning which will support the task to identify themes.

Using NVivo, one can import the data from Evernote to discover relationships between the literature review data, interviews, observations, and photos. I used NVivo to develop visual representations of the clusters of meaning, which supported the task to identify themes. The quality of the NVivo output ultimately depended on the data choices I made about what to collect, how to collect, and what analysis strategies to apply (Talanquer, 2014).

Issues of Trustworthiness

Credibility

A qualitative researcher cannot use a fixed, structured checklist to assess quality, trustworthiness, and credibility. Instead, changes to and development of research criteria results from both ongoing applied research conducted in a particular framework and efforts to compare relations between criteria. These general criteria guidelines serve to remind researchers what to review in assessing their research (Hammersley, 2007). Importantly, these standards enhance, but do not supplant a researcher's judgment. A researcher recognizes the need for continual improvement and refinement.

A qualitative researcher cannot ensure quality, trustworthiness, and credibility; however, general guidelines improve those factors of the research. Hammersley (2007) asserted that judging the quality of complex qualitative research could not be reduced to explicit, exhaustive indicators. Instead, one must use judgment and interpretation.

Credibility requires the researcher to develop a compelling case based upon recurring observed behaviors, multiple sources of data to corroborate or contradict the findings, and critical evaluation of data by others (Creswell, 2013). A researcher can enhance credibility by describing his or her research experiences and confirming the research results with the participants (Cope, 2013). To support credibility, the researcher should exhibit engagement, identify methods of data collection, and establish audit trails (Cope, 2013).

Case study research design principles support numerous approaches that encourage data credibility. To facilitate the case study principle to view and explore the phenomena from multiple perspectives, triangulation of data types, data sources, or researchers can be employed as a primary strategy (Fusch & Ness, 2015). Once the data is collected and analyzed, the process of member checking is integrated, and the data interpretations shared with the participants. The members may review and clarify the interpretation and provide additional perspectives. To enhance credibility, field notes and memos document progress on data collection and analysis.

The two threats to case study validity include researcher bias and reflexivity (Yin, 2014). To address researcher bias or subjectivity, the researcher explicitly declares his or her personal values that will influence the framework for the study. My prior career as a women Army officer might tempt me to influence the FRAC participants. To mitigate this reactivity or reflexivity, I avoided leading questions and continually reexamined the stated assumptions (Yin, 2014). Finally, the NVivo software used for data coding, theme

development and accurate visual representation of information increased the research credibility and validity.

Transferability

The intent of this case study was not to generalize or transfer, but to develop an adequate description or explanation of the cases (Maxwell, 2013). Qualitative research commonly focuses on developing detailed descriptive studies within distinct environments. Consequently, qualitative samples are likely to be relatively small, especially when compared to quantitative population samples (Trotter, 2012). The small sample size of eight FRAC and six senior managers limit the transferability to an overall population.

Dependability

The emergent design approach relies on qualitative dependability to ensure correct data exposure, rather than quantitative measures of replicability, validity, and reliability (Bernard, 2011; Schensul and LeCompte, 2010). The redundancy test can address dependability. If the participant group is generally providing the same responses repeatedly to the questions, dependability is satisfied (Trotter, 2012). The process of triangulation provides an alternative dependability test. If the same information is attained from multiple methods and sources then qualitative replicability and dependability are achieved (Trotter, 2012).

Confirmability

A researcher establishes confirmability by following the identified methodology to support the findings. A critical challenge in case study research is a requirement to

identify, control, or set aside personal experiences and biases to isolate and understand the study participants (Creswell, 2013). My objectivity as the researcher was a potential challenge to confirmability. To safeguard against biasing the findings with personal beliefs, perceptions, and assumptions, researchers seek to achieve objectivity by using cognitive reflection and journaling, extensive field notes, code pattern matrices (Baldi, Iannello, Riva, & Antonietti, 2013; Kornbluh, 2015). In addition, soliciting participant perspective of the interview transcripts and themes can help the researcher recognize their own personal bias, discover alternative themes, and develop a complete understanding of the phenomenon (Kornbluh, 2015).

Ethical Procedures

Ethical issues include the need for informed consent, participant confidentiality, and benefit of research to participants over the risks. No participant contact occurred prior to receiving the IRB approval on February 22, 2016. Upon IRB approval (#02-22-16-0234619), I provided all participants with an informed consent form to clearly outline the study background, voluntary nature, procedures, risks and benefits, and where to address questions or concerns. The one participant who withdrew from the study was reminded that there were no repercussions for leaving the study and informed that all recordings, transcripts, and documents pertaining to his participation would be destroyed and not used in the study.

Coding of all interview recordings, transcripts, and other identifying documents protects the participants' identity. Participant names were replaced with pseudonyms. Only the researcher has access to the pseudonym key. The pseudonym key is secured in a

locked drawer controlled by the researcher and separate from the data. Participant confidentiality remained constant before, during, and after the study. To protect the rights of participants, all raw data, computer files backups, and paper sources will be kept in a locked filing cabinet for 5 years after completion of the dissertation. After 5 years, all files will be deleted and paper documents shredded.

Summary and Transition

Chapter 3 contained details about the research design and rationale for this qualitative case study. The critical researcher role and the unique qualities of qualitative case study methodology were discussed. Thorough procedures for recruitment, participation, and data collection were identified. The data resulting from the FRAC and senior manager interviews, plus the documents collected from the participants, should provide the answers to the three research questions. To mitigate the data challenge, coding was used to organize the data and to categorize and describe the collected data. NVivo software use enhanced source tracking, data visibility, and document auto-coding to discover frequency and key phrases. Finally, the challenges to and solutions for trustworthiness in a qualitative study were comprehensively detailed. Chapter 4 will contain the data collection results.

Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this multiple case study was to understand the relationships between how female retired Army Colonels (FRACs) developed their leader behaviors and how they transferred those behaviors to a civilian career. The purpose of this chapter was to present the study results. The chapter contains the study setting, demographics, data collection, data analysis, results, and evidence of trustworthiness.

The problem explored in this study was the gap in understanding how women who have achieved the rank of Army colonel developed their leader behaviors and subsequently applied those behaviors to the civilian job market after military retirement. To address the study problem, I developed three research questions to frame the study. The three research questions were:

Research Question 1: How do women develop their individual leader behaviors during their Army career?

Research Question 2: What are the relationships between senior Army women's leader behaviors and their roles in follow-on civilian careers?

Research Question 3: When considered for possible employment, how do private sector senior managers perceive the leader behaviors women developed during their Army careers?

Research Setting

The study setting remained consistent during the data collection process. I acquired participants from professional and personal networks and research invitations posted on the LinkedIn social networking website. I conducted the semistructured

interviews based on the identified protocol. Participants did not report any employment status changes that could have influenced the study results.

Demographics

The FRAC participants included those who retired from the U.S. active Army more than 1 year and less than 6 years before the date of IRB approval. Each government fiscal year, October through September, from 2010-2015, approximately 83 active duty FRACs retired (US DOD, 2015). Based on the average FRAC retirement rate (US DOD, 2015), the total population of FRACs who retired in the 6 years prior to February 2016 is approximately 498. I recruited FRAC participants over a 1-month period using three methods. I posted a research invitation on the LinkedIn social networking site, sent research invitation emails to known FRACs in my professional network, and identified new FRACs based on contacts provide by those I interviewed. In total, 10 FRACs expressed interest in participating in the study. Eight of the 10 FRACs interested in participating in the study met the participant criteria and provided consent to participate. All FRAC participants signed the consent form or sent emails acknowledging consent before completing a demographic survey and the interview.

The private sector senior manager participants had hired, worked with, or evaluated FRACs in the past 6 years prior to February 2016. I recruited senior manager participants over a 1-month period. I posted a research invitation on the LinkedIn social networking site and sent research invitation emails to known senior managers in my professional network. In total, nine senior managers expressed interest in participating in the study. Six of the nine senior managers met the participant criteria and participated in

the study. All senior manager participants signed the consent form or sent emails acknowledging consent prior to completing a demographic survey and the interview.

Table 4 contains the participant demographics. I successfully recruited and exceeded the target sample size of 12 participants, six FRACs and six managers. A total of 14 participants, eight FRACs and six managers contributed to the research study. The age, gender, work industry, years in the civilian position, military experience and rank, length of military service, and education level of these participants are reflective of the FRAC and manager demographics with the exception of the gender of the managers. Based on contacts in the professional community, I contacted three female managers who had hired or worked with FRACs, but none agreed to participate in the study. Since the study participant final sample is representative of the FRAC and generally representative of the manager potential population, the final sample size met the minimum participant requirements for the study topic. I believe the final study sample was appropriate to answer the research questions. I labeled the FRAC participants as F1-F8 and the Senior Manager participants as M1-M6. All FRACs and senior managers had a Masters' degree level of education and two FRACs were working on doctoral degrees. From 2010-2016, one senior manager had worked with four FRACs, while each of the remaining five senior managers had worked with one FRAC.

Table 4

Participant Demographic Overview (N = 14)

FRAC	Age	Gender	Service/ Rank	Years of service	Work industry	Civilian Position	Years in Position
F1	54	F	Army/0-6	30	Healthcare	Mid-level Manager	1
F2	54	F	Army/0-6	31	Non-Profit	Research Fellow	2
F3	55	F	Army/0-6	27	Government Civilian	Mid-level Manager	5
F4	52	F	Army/0-6	28	Government Civilian	Mid-level Manager	1
F5	52	F	Army/0-6	30	Government Contracting	Consultant	1
F6	55	F	Army/0-6	25	Public Service	Consultant	.5
F7	54	F	Army/0-6	30	Education	Student	2
F8	55	F	Army/0-6	30	Real Estate	Agent	1
M1	49	M	None	0	Healthcare	Senior Manager	3
M2	57	M	None	0	Healthcare	Senior Manager	27
M3	33	M	None	0	Healthcare Finance	Senior Manager	11
M4	70	M	Navy/0-4	6	Government Contracting	Senior Manager	6
M5	71	M	Air Force/0-6	26	Government Contracting	Senior Manager	22
M6	50	M	Marine/ 0-4	20	Government Contracting	Senior Manager	7

Data Collection

Eight FRACs completed a semistructured interview; seven over the telephone and one face-to-face, that consisted of 20 questions about how they formed their leader behaviors and then transitioned those behaviors to civilian positions (see Appendix C). Three of the eight FRACs provided military performance evaluations they believed represented their leader behaviors. Six senior managers completed the telephonic semistructured interview that consisted of eight questions about how FRACs transitioned their leader behaviors to civilian positions (see Appendix C). The participants received the interview questions by email prior to their interviews to allow them time to consider their responses.

The length of time for the FRAC interviews ranged from 45-65 minutes each. Each senior manager interview ranged from 20-30 minutes. All participants answered their respective interview questions, as noted in the qualitative data collection instrument (see Appendix C). I recorded the participant responses and comments using both a LiveScribe digital recording pen and the audio recording feature in Evernote software. I recorded the audio for accurate recordkeeping and comment validation purposes. I did not encounter any difficulties that resulted in an alteration or difficulty regarding the data collection process. The semistructured protocol and the recording process that I used for the study participant responses were effective. The participant responses and comments reflected a comprehensive understanding of the purpose of the questions.

Data Analysis

The software NVivo 11 and a hybrid approach were used to analyze the data from the semistructured interviews and performance evaluations. Using NVivo 11, I categorized, arranged, and managed the interview and performance evaluation information to identify common themes. Categorizing strategies were used, to include coding and thematic analysis (Maxwell, 2013, p. 105). The categorization began with open coding to identify segments of data that seemed important or meaningful regarding the participant responses (Miles & Huberman, 2014). Coding was initiated by identifying recurring words or concepts and highlighting examples and metaphors that participants used. I focused the initial categorization strategy on similarities, which enabled me to organize the data and begin to recognize emerging trends. That provided me the initial codes and indicators of possible concepts.

I iteratively analyzed the coding structure three times to ensure effectiveness and organization of the collected information. Entering the identified codes as nodes in NVivo enabled the use of the software to identify common themes. The data from FRAC interviews were used to validate the codes and themes to determine patterns and to fracture the data to allow comparison across categories (Strauss, 1987, p. 29). I used the data from the senior managers to replicate the initial codes and themes from the FRAC interviews while also developing additional codes, themes, and observations. Based on my review of the data from the FRAC performance evaluations, I derived additional observations to the established themes, but did not identify additional themes based on

those documents. Memos written throughout the data analysis allowed thought capture about the data to enable analytic insights (Maxwell, 2013, p. 105).

Next, I reviewed the codes to determine if they fit into Yukl's (2012) four metacategories of leadership behavior (Appendix B). This method of organizational categories served as a useful way to bin or organize the data for further analysis (Maxwell, 2013, p. 107). Substantive categories were also developed to capture the participants' words, examples, and metaphors that did not fit into the four Yukl leadership behavior bins.

I identified seven themes from the codes identified in the iterative rounds of analysis. Table 5 contains a summary of the a priori codes, categorizations, and themes.

Table 5

Codes, Categorizations, and Themes Derived from Interviews and Document Data

Codes	**Categorizations**	**Themes**
Vision/Path/Goals	Relationship Oriented	Experiential Learning
Guide/Influence		
Role Model/Mentor	Task Oriented	Blending Masculine and Feminine Behaviors
Selfless service		
Integrity/Humility	Change Oriented	
Emotional Intelligence		Influence of Role Models and Mentors
Communication	External Oriented	
Accomplishing the mission		Cultural and Identity Transition
Completing tasks	Gender Bias	
Business acumen		Task-Oriented Leadership Behaviors
Empower	Army Values	
Observe Behavior		External-Oriented Leadership Behaviors
Learn by Doing	Cultural Expectations	
Assignments & Deployments		
Education & Training		Change-Oriented Leadership Behaviors
Regulatory barriers		
Gender Behaviors		
One of the Boys		
Isolation		
Gender Stereotypes		
Competence		

(*table continues*)

Codes	Categorizations	Themes
Showing that you deserve the job		
Performing above the standard		
Showing you are smarter		
Maturity/ Confidence /Presence		
Performance Objectives		
Developing others		
Risk		
Driving Change/Innovation		
Networking Networking		
Level of Responsibility		
Collaboration		
Commitment/Passion		
Cultural expectations		
Preparation		
Responsibility/Take charge		
Problem solver		

Discrepant Cases

Responses from study participants did not result in any noteworthy discrepant cases. Participants were able to review their interview transcript and provide modifications. Of the 14 participants interviewed, three provided minor transcript clarifications or modifications. The participant transcript reviews resulted in an accurate presentation of their perspective.

Evidence of Trustworthiness

Credibility

Member checking was employed to increase the study's credibility by sending follow-up emails to each participant to confirm the accuracy of their interview transcripts and to request feedback on emerging themes (Cope, 2013). To enhance credibility, field notes and memos on data collection and analysis were created. To address researcher bias or subjectivity, I explicitly declared my personal values that might influence the framework for the study.

Transferability

The intent of this case study was to develop an adequate description or explanation of the cases and not to generalize or transfer (Maxwell, 2013). To address transferability, I used semistructured interviews conducted by telephone or face-to-face to collect detailed participants' descriptions and perspectives. The small sample size of eight FRAC and six senior managers limit the transferability to an overall population.

Dependability

To address dependability, I used the redundancy test. Dependability was satisfied when the participant group generally provided the same responses repeatedly to the questions (Trotter, 2012). Developing memos on collection and analysis procedures, digitally recording the interviews, transcribing the digital recordings, and conducting triangulation with secondary sources (Trotter, 2012), improved dependability.

Confirmability

To enhance conformability and safeguard against biasing the findings, I developed memos and code pattern matrices (Baldi, Iannello, Riva, & Antonietti, 2013; Kornbluh, 2015) to serve as an audit trail as the study was conducted. The primary source of study data were interview transcriptions supported by FRAC military performance evaluations as secondary sources. To recognize my personal bias, discover alternative themes, and develop a complete understanding of the phenomenon (Kornbluh, 2015), all participants received a copy of their interview transcript and emerging themes and were asked to comment on accuracy and completeness.

Study Results

Themes were considered significant if mentioned or described by more than half the FRAC or senior manager participants. The data is organized by research question with the themes that developed from the data analysis. Participant transcript excerpts are presented under the associated themes. Table 6 contains a summary of the themes aligned with the research questions.

Table 6

Themes Derived from Interviews and Document Data Aligned with the Research Questions

Research Question	Themes
1 - How do women develop their individual leader behaviors during their Army career?	Experiential Learning Blending Masculine and Feminine Behaviors Overachieving Influence of Role Models and Mentors Change-Oriented Behavior
2 - What are the relationships between senior Army women's leader behaviors and their roles in follow-on civilian careers?	Cultural and Identity Transition Task-Oriented Behavior External-Oriented Behavior
3 - When considered for possible employment, how do private sector senior managers perceive the leader behaviors women developed during their Army careers?	Cultural Transition Task-Oriented Behavior External-Oriented Behavior Change-Oriented Behavior

Research Question 1

Research Question (RQ) 1: How do women develop their individual leader behaviors during their Army career?

From the qualitative analysis, I developed common themes for the study participants in response to RQ1 and the study problem statement. Four major themes

associated with this research question emerged and are explained in the following paragraphs. The four themes align with how the FRACs developed their leader behaviors, modified those behaviors, and what behaviors they believed were effective during their Army careers.

Theme 1: Experiential learning. This theme encompasses the influence of military assignments, education, training, on the job training, and combat deployments on the leadership behavior development of FRACs. All eight FRACs, whether West Point or ROTC graduates, stated that they received useful basic education on and reinforcing opportunities to practice leadership behaviors as cadets and in their officer specialty basic courses. However, once they entered the active Army "they throw you in the mix, and it's all about learning on the job after that" (F1). Five FRACs believed it was a distinct advantage to learn by doing and that they were given experiential opportunities to develop their leadership behaviors and then demonstrate they could do their job. As junior officers they were

> Given so much responsibility, not only for missions but for well-being and safety of people in a platoon. I think that's what began part of that leadership experience where you actually on a day to day basis learn as you go and establish what kind of leader you're going to be. (F8)

The FRACs referred to the Army culture of on the job training (OJT) and experiential learning as "walking into the fray" (F2), "iron sharpens iron (F7), and learning in a "leadership crucible" (F7). The opportunity to continue OJT as a means to sharpen and mature their leader behaviors continued throughout their careers, where "living in this

leadership lab everyday was critical, and there are levels where you built leadership skills and small units and then add on to the size and scope of responsibility" (F5). All FRAC participants shared the belief that every assignment or training experience throughout their careers built upon the other and that leader behaviors were continually learned, validated, or modified.

Theme 2: Blending Masculine and Feminine Behaviors. This theme includes those behaviors developed by the FRACs to perform their duties and gain acceptance into the predominantly male Army environment. Among the actions taken by the FRACs was adopting masculine leadership behaviors as a junior officer and incorporating more feminine behaviors as they gained experience and rank. Early in their careers, six FRACs adopted stereotypical masculine leadership behaviors and minimized perceived feminine leadership behaviors. As the FRACs gained experience, rank, and confidence, they demonstrated more feminine or relational leadership behaviors. Serving as an officer in the Army was "stepping outside of an expected gender role for a woman. That was challenging and we were a pretty significant minority group" (F2). All eight FRAC participants stated or alluded to the belief that being accepted on the team and being viewed as "one of the boys", would contribute to their success, particularly early in their Army careers. The status as a minority member in the male-dominant culture was addressed by adopting masculine leadership behaviors, which are "a little bit more authoritative, commanding, and directive" (F6). Three of the eight FRACs stated they were tomboys growing up and that they believed this behavior gave them the confidence to engage with their male peers. The primary strategy adopted by the FRACs as junior

officers was to become, or continue to be, a tomboy who demonstrated assertive behaviors, swore or used harsh directive language, adapted mannerisms or voice to mimic the men, and participated in sports and social activities with their male peers. One participant stated she took this behavior to extremes and that “If the boys were going out drinking and being stupid, or driving fast cars, I was right alongside them doing all this young stupidity, just to prove that I could do it” (F4). Six FRACs felt that as they progressed in their careers they were more comfortable with feminine behaviors such as empathy, active listening, and collaboration. One FRAC commented that,

> In the end, I accepted that that was not my personality. It wasn't going to work for me to pretend to take on their role model and be that loud, aggressive person. Occasionally, I will when I really have to, but that's not my nature. (F6)

Minimizing feminine leader behaviors was met with both positive and negative response from peers, supervisors or subordinates. During a field training exercise when one FRAC did not wear makeup as she usually did in garrison, members of her unit commented that she looked disheveled, her response being "Boy, there are some double standards here. I'm damned if I do and I'm damned if I don't" (F8). Being one of the boys also met with resistance from some female spouses of the FRAC’s male peers resulting in a reticence to work closely with the FRACs.

The second subtheme, relation-oriented behaviors, incorporates the leader behaviors of supporting, developing, and empowering subordinates to complete a task or mission. While the FRACs sought to be *one of the boys*, all eight FRACs also highlighted the development and use of relation-oriented behaviors, often associated with feminine

leadership. The FRACs used their relationship building skills and adopted leader behaviors to express confidence in their soldiers and encourage their professional and personal growth. As an example, one FRAC's method was

> Not fear and intimidation, but open discussions on what you are trying to get them to do and then just letting them work through that process themselves. Because if you work it for them every time, they are never ever going to be able to do it themselves. (F3)

Supporting behaviors noted by the FRACs included being confident in individuals' abilities, empathy, encouraging them to complete their tasks, and learning to "identify the uniqueness of people that are working with you" (F4). The FRACs who adopted empowering and developing leadership behaviors sought to "provide them the opportunity to do what you did, which is learn as you go and make mistakes that are okay, and underwrite those errors for them" (F1). One participant likened her leader behavior to that of a *mother chicken* who "enables others to accomplish their tasks. Not doing it for them, but showing them, preparing them through education and training, how do you reach higher goals" (F3). One FRAC shaped her leader behaviors to focus on "knowing your people and what their capabilities were, and developing them to achieve their potential…paving the way to get obstacles out of their way so they could succeed" (F5). Four FRACs shared the sentiment they were "willing to effectively assume the risk associated with empowering my subordinates" (F1).

Theme 3: Overachieving. The third theme focuses on overachieving or working harder and being smarter. The FRACs used their self-motivation and competitiveness to

exceed the standards of their peers' in order to prove their competence and value. All the FRAC participants cited the belief that it was important to go beyond their basic job duties by becoming extremely knowledgeable in their specialty and working long hours as strategies to compete with their male counterparts. One participant emphasized, "no matter what position I was in, knowledge was the key, and I would take time to learn and master it learn and master it (F6). Becoming technically proficient and the acknowledged subject matter expert was the approach most FRACs sought, "I became very much a technical expert in maintenance (F4). As one FRAC stated "one thing I learned very early on is, you have to be 200% better than any male counterpart …You have to be able to ruck, shoot, so on and so forth, as well as or better than your male counterpart to get 50% of the credit" (F3). Six participants stated that the low number of female officers in their organizations or their token status required additional effort to gain recognition; it "made you have to work harder than your male peers. You had to demonstrate more effectiveness and capability than your male peers" (F5). Occasionally, the FRAC efforts to excel beyond their male peers were met with resistance and they felt they were perceived as over-bearing or "having a chip on my shoulder" (F8) for wanting to prove they were as good as or better than their male counterparts.

Theme 4: Influence of role models and mentors. This theme includes the positive and negative role models that the FRACs believed influenced their development of leader behaviors. Seven of the eight FRACs highlighted the impact of negative role models early in their careers. The negative role models demonstrated how not to behave and "initially, the negative experiences really stuck out… From that perspective, I

immediately went to, “well I'm not going to be that person” (F4). Early career positive role models cited by half the FRACs helped provide a source or base for effective leadership behaviors. These early positive role models included officers, non-commissioned officers (NCOs), and warrant officers who worked directly with the FRACs. In her first assignment as a lieutenant, one FRAC recalled that,

> The first influencer was the warrant officer that was assigned to me, he's the one that really grabbed me and set the foundation for me to actually be successful, and then I had a very good senior non-commissioned officer. Those two guys were the ones that really set the stage for me, and it served me very well. (F1)

The majority of FRAC participants encountered positive role models (officers, NCOs, and warrant officers) later in their career. There were few female senior officers serving when the FRACs entered and advanced in the Army. All eight FRACs noted the lack of women role models to provide advice or examples of leader behaviors. The lack of women role models meant, “that's one of the challenges of figuring out your own leadership style as what works for us as women is different than what works for men (F6). The majority of FRACs noted the lack of both male and female mentors to model successful leader behaviors and to guide career decisions. The acute lack of female role mentors resulted in

> not having somebody that looked like me, that had some of the other secondary conundrums of dealing with, "How do you handle a marriage? Being a mom?" That was probably a big hurdle, because you couldn't talk - even though I had

> some great male mentors - they didn't understand all that. I don't know that I truly ever came at having a senior mentor. (F4)

The overall gap in mentor availability left no one for "mentoring, or influencing the way I did my career" (F3).

Theme 5: Change-oriented behaviors. This theme related to the change-oriented behaviors FRACs developed to envision or advocate change to accomplish a mission. Five FRACs identified their use of change-oriented leadership behaviors. The three FRAC performance evaluations contained change-oriented behavior descriptions such as inquisitive, candid, bold, and willing to find new solutions to existing problems. Similarly, the FRACs described their leadership behaviors as audacious, unconventional, and "willing to assume the risk to challenge common thinking" (F2). Each FRAC emphasized the belief that leaders need to develop and clearly communicate a clear vision to provide a path for their soldiers to complete the mission. The vision they created served to motivate and inspire innovative problem solving. Looking for innovative solutions to ambiguous problems, the FRACs employed "creative problem solving skills and adaptation skills to be able to adapt to changing environments and circumstances (F7). Five FRACs described high risk or challenging assignments where they successfully took over a unit that was underperforming or led in a challenging combat deployment environment. The FRACs highlighted those same challenging assignments as their most effective leadership experiences. The change-oriented leadership behaviors the FRACs employed in these situations included identifying mission threats, accepting personal risk to advocate for a new approach, and implementing a "systematic review of

our processes and procedures" (F6). Five FRACs also noted their belief that promotion to colonel brought a sense of confidence or freedom to take more risks and change processes and organizations. This increased confidence was "liberating and it allowed me to take more risks, to go out on a limb a little more than-- because I never anticipated going beyond 06. For me, making 06 was a shock (F2).

Research Question 2

Research Question 2: What are the relationships between senior Army women's leader behaviors and their roles in follow-on civilian careers?

Using qualitative analysis, I identified common themes for the study participants in response to RQ2 and the study problem statement. Four major themes associated with this research question emerged and are explained in the following paragraphs. The four themes align with how the leadership behaviors FRACs developed during their Army careers transitioned to their civilian careers.

Theme 1: Cultural and identity transition. This theme incorporates the influence of leaving the military culture and joining a civilian culture on the FRACs' leadership behaviors and identity. Seven of the eight FRACs affirmed that they did very little to no preparation prior to military retirement to determine how their leadership behaviors would translate to the civilian work force. The majority of FRACs shared the sense that "all of a sudden you don't have anybody telling you what you should do, or what they need you to do, or what your country needs you to do, and you have to decide on your own, that's hard (F5). The majority of FRACs stated that prior to military retirement they had intended to transition their leadership behaviors to their new civilian

positions. However, the majority of FRACs acknowledged the civilian culture was significantly or surprisingly different from the military culture. One FRAC explained that she "took for granted we've been around people who are wired like myself. Get up early, come in, do a good job, be conscientious. The rest of the world isn't really like that and you have to adapt to that" (F7). One FRAC expressed disappointment in the inability to transfer her leadership behaviors, "I'd love to transition my leadership skills. Where I work today, they're not interested" (F3). The lack of structure, training, or standard operating procedures in the civilian culture was a challenge. One FRAC reinforced this concept by sharing that it was "so different being a leader in a military organization versus being a leader in a civilian non-profit organization…It's really more of a challenge of organizational skills" (F2). The FRACs use of directive or frank communication proved a challenge in the civilian culture. Five of the FRACs commented that frankness and directive communication were not encouraged in their civilian positions and that, "you can't be draconian in a civilian sector. Getting people to see why you are doing something, that is what I've used the most since then. You are dealing with an adult population of people that for the most part are highly educated. They have got to understand the "why" (F4). To emphasize that point, one FRAC stated, "the frankness is not appreciated. While you're bringing something to the table that really gets them to open their eyes, at the same time, they don't necessarily like folks being very blunt…It's all very touchy-feely" (F1). Among other FRAC leader behaviors not welcomed in the civilian sector were those "that tell you to be responsible for everything, within your purview, everything your unit does or fails to do you have to stand up, or sometimes get

into conflict to get to a better solution" (F5). The FRACs working in defense contracting and civil service expressed disappointment that now "they want you to just sit and be quiet. They don't want you to take charge of meetings or the processes (F3). Still, the majority of FRACs expressed a "desire and willingness to learn a new job and become successful at it" (F8). Six FRACs noted that their reduced level of responsibility compared to their high level of responsibility leading strategic Army organizations or missions. One FRAC now working below her military level of responsibility noted that "just because you were an O6 that does not necessarily translate to a senior leader's position in the military as a civil servant" (F3). Only the FRAC working in the non-profit sector assessed her current level of responsibility as higher than when she was in the Army.

An aspect of the cultural transition was the belief by the majority of FRACs on the need to examine their self-identities. None of the FRACs chose civilian professions that required a uniform and instead wore business or casual business attire to work. While the majority of FRACs felt they had realistic views of their strengths and weaknesses, it was more difficult to communicate those in a civilian culture. An advantage of the military uniform was that "they see what's on your uniform. They have an expectation based on the badges or the rank that you're wearing that you have a certain level of understanding" (F3). For the majority of FRACs, the colonel's eagle on their uniform had been accompanied by respect and prestige where

> It was less about having to prove anything, because once you have the eagle on your uniform, it speaks for itself…I could walk into any meeting, any place and at least people recognized that you had achieved something. (F5)

With no visible sign of their experience or accomplishments, five of the FRACs felt underestimated or undervalued, at least initially, by their civilian organization's peers and supervisors. The FRACs maintained the personal accountability and values they developed during their Army careers since "the idea of setting high standards and holding yourself to them, matters in any position that you have" (F6). Each FRAC mentioned several Army values they continued to apply in their current positions to include duty, respect, selfless service, and integrity. The concept of selfless service meant, "we don't have a problem sacrificing, and it translates well. You're responsive to others needs, you're serving others, you have their best interests at heart" (F8). An area of conflict existed for half the FRACs who defined themselves as humble and yet were now expected to actively promote their abilities and accomplishments.

Theme 2: Task-oriented behaviors. This theme emphasizes the FRACs use of task-oriented behaviors to achieve results through problem solving and planning. In their civilian positions, the FRACs' adhered to the Army value of *duty* and their commitment to succeed at complex tasks and missions. Five of the FRACs were comfortable with fulfilling obligations and recognized it as "the same thing that I learned as a military officer, how to take a complex mission, break it down into its independent pieces, effectively use resources" (F3). Each of the FRACs provided examples of how they applied their ability to solve problems, conduct planning, and explain objectives and

responsibilities in their civilian positions. Three FRACs highlighted their commitment to complete tasks on or before they were due. They recognized that civilian organizations desire "people who can get things done on time…need to be somebody they can count on" (F2).

Theme 3: External-oriented leadership behaviors. This theme includes the external-oriented behaviors of networking, collaborating, and representing. During their colonel years, the FRACs operated more at the strategic level and as a result, they modified or used different leadership behaviors than earlier in their careers. Six of the eight FRACs identified collaboration and networking behavior developed as colonels as key behaviors now used in their civilian positions. One collaboration behavior they found effective in the civilian culture was keeping multiple shareholders "informed and being proactive to stay on top of actions so nothing slips" (F8). One FRAC explained that her willingness and ability to collaborate enabled her "to get things done, I think that's a quality that works. I think it's a better quality than being directive" (F6). The collaborative behavior allowed one FRAC to "provide the linkage between strategic, operational, and tactical…[to] operate freely in that continuum and not have an issue with it" (F1). Four of the FRACs highlighted the role that the Army War College played in helping them develop their collaborative behavior and transition from an operational viewpoint to a strategic approach to problem solving. Key to success in their civilians positions was recognizing the impact of networking with stakeholders and that "peers, superiors, subordinates, everybody's part of either accomplishing a job or not, and a good leader can leverage all of those capabilities to accomplish things" (F5).

Research Question 3

Research Question 3: When considered for possible employment, how do private sector senior managers perceive the leader behaviors women developed during their Army careers?

Using qualitative analysis, I developed common themes for the senior manager study participants in response to RQ3 and the study problem statement. Four major themes associated with this research question emerged and are explained in the following paragraphs. The four themes emphasize senior civilian manager perceptions on the desired and demonstrated leadership behaviors used by FRACs.

Theme 1: Cultural transition. This theme includes the cultural transition process for the FRACs and the communication skills expected in a civilian organization. All senior managers acknowledged some type of cultural adjustment or transition the FRACs underwent when joining their organization. Half the managers emphasized the importance of and the ability to "take the uniform off. By that I mean you are no longer a colonel...You're now a civilian. It's a big difference and it's very hard to do" (M5). The senior managers expected that the FRACs should "being able to tailor communications and approach to different levels of audience" (M2). The managers emphasized they hired FRACs who possessed active listening skills and a "strong communication style that helped set her apart from other candidates" (M3). The position requirements used to hire one FRAC included "communication skills in all directions- (direct reports (downward), peers (sideways), and executive management (upward). Listening is most important trait in communication" (M4).

Not all FRAC communication perceptions by the managers were positive. Half of the managers mentioned the FRACs initially employed a directive communication method or "a top-down, directional approach, which I think is more consistent with the military. Where at (company) XX, we are much more of a collaborative, consensus-building type of approach…" (M1). In addition, several managers noted the FRACs' more deliberate or formal communication manner as "a level of formality that needed to soften" (M2). Overall, the majority of managers stated the FRACs navigated the cultural transition fairly well because of their maturity and communication behaviors.

Theme 2: Task-oriented behaviors. This theme incorporates the task-oriented behaviors of problem solving, planning, and monitoring to achieve results expected by the managers. Every manager expected the FRACs to possess the ability to meet or exceed "objective-measurable and outcome-related goals" (M2) and to attain "financial and budgetary goals" (M1) in challenging and ambiguous environments. The managers valued the FRAC leader behaviors learned in the high-pressure Army environment and during combat deployments and that the FRACs could "work through difficult situations and work under pressure…folks that have deployed know what stress can really be like…That experience has helped them work through challenging times" (M1). The majority of managers identified problem solving and leading the team to achieve results as expected leadership behaviors. The managers were "trying to find people who would have understood the problem set that they would be working in, and then you have to lead the team on the job" (M4). Half of the managers desired that the FRACs be able to

plan complex operations within time and resource constrained situations. An example of one FRAC demonstrating this ability follows,

> We asked her about how would you manage a situation with limited supplies, but a great need across multiple net centers and supply across the team. Many folks were not able to develop a strategy for a complex situation like that on the fly, and clearly articulate it. She, in the interview process, was able to do that on the fly, in the moment. She was able to develop a complex multi-step strategy and then clearly articulate it. (M3)

Monitoring multiple ongoing tasks and performing employee evaluations were necessary behaviors the FRACs needed to possess. One FRAC showed this monitoring ability by demonstrating "she was very good at selecting or finding those people who were just not getting the job done or was a mismatch, moving them or getting rid of them, and getting the right people on the job" (M5).

Theme 3: External-oriented behaviors. This theme incorporates the managers' perceptions of the desired external-oriented behaviors to include networking, collaborating, and external monitoring. The managers highlighted the need for the FRACs to have a strategic or macro-perspective "to implement or develop something strategic that helped across your region or across the program" (M1). Five of the managers noted that they expected the FRACs to possess leadership behaviors to operate at the strategic level which included the

> Ability, desire, and will to lead and dive into areas that maybe are not directly related to what you do every day. Show that you are building your network

> beyond your functional area and your geographic area, and really helping to improve things for the organization. (M1)

Three managers noted that external monitoring to evaluate environment trends was required to "sort out and understand what's going on in the community" (M5). Five of the six managers included collaboration or networking as an essential leader behavior they expected and saw in the FRACs they had employed. This collaboration included "talking with other industry executives so you get a feel of what's going on…see what's happening, see what those external factors are that are impacting your business (M6).

Theme 4: Change-oriented leadership behaviors. This theme included manager desired change-oriented behaviors to include envisioning change, advocating change, and encouraging innovation. The managers sought a "passion for continuous improvement" (M1), "the ability to continuously improve efficiencies and look for opportunities to do things better, quicker, smarter, or more effectively" (M2), and "the energy and perseverance to continue to push for that" (M3). To achieve organizational success, five managers stated that they perceived the FRACs' would lead change by, "articulating a vision and delivering on that vision" (M3) for their organizations. The FRACs' success would require "a desire and the initiative to grow in the organization" (M4). In addition, four of the six managers noted the need for the FRACs to be "able to inspire and motivate others" (M6) to initiate or implement change in their business sector or market. Critical to change in their civilian organizations was the ability to understand the market or business environment and the foresight to be "able to look at some of those changes and being able to prepare to drive your organization through those changes is important (M6).

Summary

This qualitative case study research design was used to explore, through participant experiences, three research questions. Table 6 contains a summary of the alignment of the research questions to themes. Research Question 1, supported by interview questions 1.1-1.8, concentrated on how the FRACs developed their individual leader behaviors during their Army career. The FRACs leadership behaviors developed from experiential learning, blending masculine and feminine leadership behaviors, overachieving, the influence of role models and mentors, and change-oriented behavior. Research Question 2, supported by interview questions 2.2-2.9, explored the relationships between FRAC leadership behaviors and their roles in follow-on civilian careers. The FRACs' leadership behaviors were influenced by the cultural and identity transition, task-oriented behaviors and external-oriented behaviors. Research Question 3, supported by interview questions 3.1-3.8, focused on civilian senior manager perceptions of FRAC leadership behaviors. The managers emphasized perceptions on the cultural transition that affected the FRACs performance and their expectations and assessment of the FRACs' task-oriented behavior, external-oriented behavior, and change-oriented behavior. Chapter 5 includes the research analysis findings summary and report, the recommendations for future studies in the area of female officer leadership behaviors, and the study conclusions.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Purpose and Nature of the Study

The purpose of this multiple case study was to understand the relationships between how female retired Army Colonels (FRACs) developed their leader behaviors and how they transferred those behaviors to a civilian career. The definition of leader behavior is the behaviors used to influence and facilitate people to accomplish shared objectives by providing purpose, goals, and motivation (U.S. Army, 2012a, 2012b; Yukl, 2012). The approach used in this study was interviews with female retired Army colonels (FRACs) and civilian senior managers. The data were collected using individual interviews and data from officer performance evaluations provided by three FRACs.

The qualitative research approach was used to seek and gain an understanding of individual or group reasons with an emphasis on descriptions rather than numbers (Yin, 2014). Use of the multiple case study method allows one to address the problem statement by attempting to understand from the participants' point of view and reveal the meaning of their lived experiences prior to any scientific explanations (Stake, 2010). I sought to understand how FRACs developed and subsequently used their leader behaviors and thereby provide a rationale to investigate this contemporary phenomenon in depth. The multiple case study method was appropriate, as the boundaries between the leader behavior phenomenon and the Army environment context were not evident (Yin, 2014).

Chapter 1 contained the study problem and objectives. The literature review in Chapter 2 consisted of information to support the theoretical and conceptual frameworks

and the three research questions. In chapter 3, I described the methodological approach and in Chapter 4, I detailed the data collection and analysis. Chapter 5 contains an interpretation of the findings, the comparison of the literature review to the findings, the limitations of the study, recommendations for future research, implications for positive social change, and a conclusion of the key messages of the study.

Interpretation of the Findings

Research Question 1

Research Question 1: How do women develop their individual leader behaviors during their Army career? Based on the data collected from the eight FRACs, I determined there are relationships between the themes that indicate influences and experiences and the development of FRAC leadership behaviors. The data support that both internal and external influences contributed to FRAC leader behavior development throughout their military careers. The key themes associated with how the FRACs learned their leadership behaviors included experiential learning, blending masculine and feminine leadership behaviors, overachieving, the influence of role models and mentors, and change-oriented behavior.

Experiential learning. All FRAC participants highlighted the influence of experiential learning as a key factor in developing their initial leader behaviors and the continual maturation and modification of those behaviors throughout their careers. This learning by doing approach builds on formal education with experience gained from leading and training soldiers and varied, increasingly challenging assignments at all levels. Similar to research on persistent women engineers who remained in the field for

20 or more years, the FRACs developed high self-efficacy and work-life effectiveness that supported their preference to find new and challenging assignments and deal effectively with uncomfortable or tough situations (Buse et al., 2013). All FRAC participants believed that each assignment or training experience throughout their careers built upon the other and that they continually learned, validated, or modified their leader behaviors.

Blending masculine and feminine leadership behaviors. This theme includes those actions taken and the leadership behaviors developed by the FRACs to gain acceptance and prove competence in the predominantly male Army environment. In an effort to prove their competence and gain acceptance, the FRACs adopted masculine leadership behaviors as junior officers, used relations-oriented or feminine behaviors as they gained rank, and overachieved by working harder and trying to be smarter than their male peers. The FRACs navigated a gender incongruent career path and developed leadership behaviors that did not fit neatly into either a masculine or a feminine box.

Military hegemonic masculinity is associated with strength, physical fitness, aggression, action, and competitiveness (Duncanson, 2015; Woodward, 1998). Typically, men are groomed to be rational, decisive, self-assured, and independent, whereas women are socialized to nurture, to empathize, to be helpful, and to be compassionate (Brandt & Laiho, 2013; Hoyt & Burnette, 2013). In order to gain acceptance and succeed in male-dominant organizations, the FRACs created gendered personas to reproduce appropriate gender behaviors as dictated by the social structure (Barratt et al., 2014).

As a minority, and at times the sole female officer in an organization, the FRACs were subject to gender stereotypes and cultural pressure to adopt masculine leadership behaviors. Gender stereotypes can be destructive to women leaders because feminine attributes are deemed less important than masculine attributes (Boldry et al., 2001; Brandt & Laiho, 2013; Kunda &Spencer, 2003). The FRACs were encouraged by peers and role models to develop masculine or task-oriented behaviors to offset their feminine or relations-oriented leadership behaviors (Eagly &Chin, 2010; Pfaff et al., 2013). Early in their careers, the FRACs adopted masculine leadership behaviors in the belief they would gain acceptance in the Army culture and become a valued member of the team (Barratt et al., 2014). Acceptance is critical to professional success in a tight culture such as the Army (Toh & Leonardelli, 2013) and the FRACs sought this acceptance by developing the high levels of independence, assertiveness, physical fitness, competitiveness, and decisiveness demonstrated by male peers.

When they adopted stereotypical masculine leadership behaviors inconsistent with their socially designated roles, some FRACs received negative comments from male peers or negative performance feedback from male supervisors (Ayman & Korabik, 2010; Neubert & Taggar, 2004). The FRACs experienced the frustration and isolation of finding themselves in a double bind. The double bind is the contradictory belief that women leaders should act compassionately to meet female gender role expectations while also acting assertively or competitively to meet Army leader role expectations (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Herrera, 2012; Kark et al., 2012).

Research indicated that women who stay and progress upward in male-dominant environments possess resilience (Martin & Barnard, 2013). Each FRAC participant described examples of resilient behaviors they developed to address overcoming obstacles, surprise, injuries, adversity, and stress while they maintained their leadership presence, mission focus, and completed their tasks. One such resilience tactic implemented by the majority of FRACs was to adopt male leadership behaviors or characteristics (Martin & Barnard, 2013).

Applying the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) to the FRACs' attitude toward adopting masculine leadership behaviors represents evaluation of the behavior and possible outcomes. The FRAC evaluates the costs and benefits of the outcome and weighs her attitude toward adopting the masculine leadership behaviors. The subjective norm correlates the amount to which other people important to the FRAC, such as peers and supervisors, approve or disapprove of the behavior. The FRAC's willingness to comply with these opinions weighs the subjective norm. Early in their careers, the influence of peer pressure and cultural expectations was high. Perceived behavioral control is the difficulty or ease of adopting the behavior. While subjective norms are predictive, Van Gelderen et al. (2008) surmised that attitudes and perceived behavioral control more strongly predict behavior. Figure 5 shows the application of TPB to the FRAC decision to adopt masculine behaviors and minimize feminine behaviors early in her career.

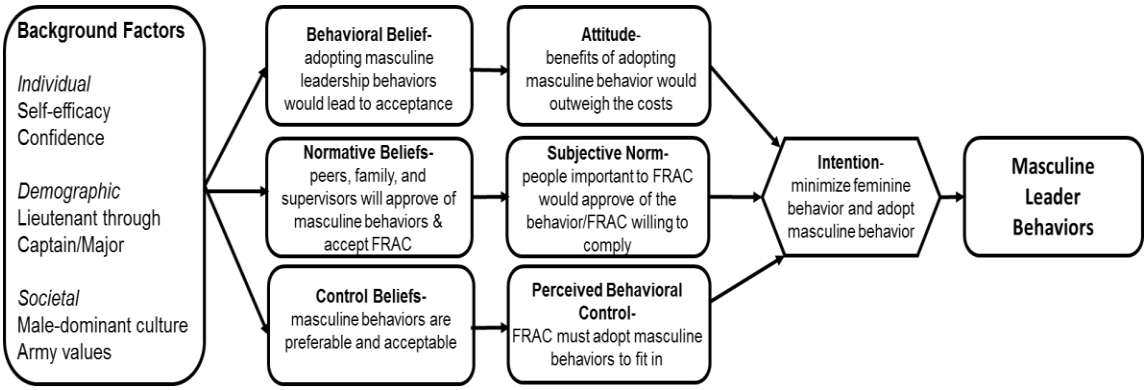

Figure 5. The application of TPB to the FRAC decision to adopt masculine behaviors and minimize feminine behaviors early in her career.

The second subtheme includes FRACs' use of relations-oriented or feminine behaviors once they attained a more senior level in the Army. As they progressed in their Army careers, the FRACs successfully performed their duties and found themselves in increasingly ambiguous and challenging leadership situations, to include leading large organizations and operating in combat zones. Consistent with Pfaff et al.'s (2013) study of senior women leaders, as the FRACs rose in rank and responsibility, they more liberally employed relational leadership behaviors in their Army leadership roles to motivate and influence soldiers. Relations-oriented leadership behaviors the FRACs developed included supporting, developing, and empowering (Wegge et al., 2014; Yukl, 2012, 2013). Aligning with the Army leadership ethos, FRACs cared for their subordinates by supporting their physical and emotional well-being, developing their individual and team skills, and establishing an environment of trust and communication between leaders and followers (U.S. Army, 2012a).

As they matured professionally and personally, FRACs displayed empathy and shared common life experiences (e.g. children and marriage) and hardships (e.g.

deployments, family estrangement, and personal loss) with their subordinates and peers. The FRACs used these relations-oriented leader behaviors to build supportive leadership climates, celebrate individual and team accomplishments, and facilitate communication and interaction (Halpin & Winer, 1957; Judge et al., 2004.; Yukl, 2013). The relations-oriented and feminine behaviors employed by the FRACs align with leadership theories focused on the leader-member exchange (LMX) and empowerment (Wegge et al., 2014) and communal behaviors of empathy, nurturing, and sensitivity (Eagly & Karau, 2002).

As the FRACs reached higher rank, lieutenant colonel, and colonel, they increasingly sought to blend the masculine leadership behaviors that proved successful early in their careers with previously minimized feminine behaviors. The androgynous leadership behavior blends culturally feminine or relational behaviors with masculine or task-oriented behaviors (Kark et al., 2012; Koenig et al., 2011). This androgynous leadership behavior is consistent with research showing that women managers reported themselves and senior leaders as having androgynous leadership behaviors (Crites et al., 2015). Androgyny might provide female and male leaders flexible options and benefits for effective leadership behavior (Kark et al., 2012; Koenig et al., 2011). By adopting the more flexible, androgynous leadership behaviors, the FRACs had additional leadership tools available to respond to senior leader challenges and increasingly ambiguous and complex environments. Using an androgynous leadership approach, the FRACs were also better positioned to navigate the double bind irony and ease their role incongruity dilemma (Eagly & Karau 2002; Kark et al., 2012; Koenig et al., 2011).

The TPB can help explain the behavior change from masculine to androgynous behavior later in the FRACs' military careers. If the FRAC successfully performed masculine leader behavior in the past, her self-efficacy increased, as did her perceived behavioral control (Bandura, 1986). The FRAC's increased self-efficacy and perceived behavioral control may explain her willingness to embrace more feminine or relational leadership behaviors and adopt androgynous leader behaviors as a senior officer. Figure 6 shows the application of TPB to the FRAC's increased use of androgynous leader behaviors later in her career.

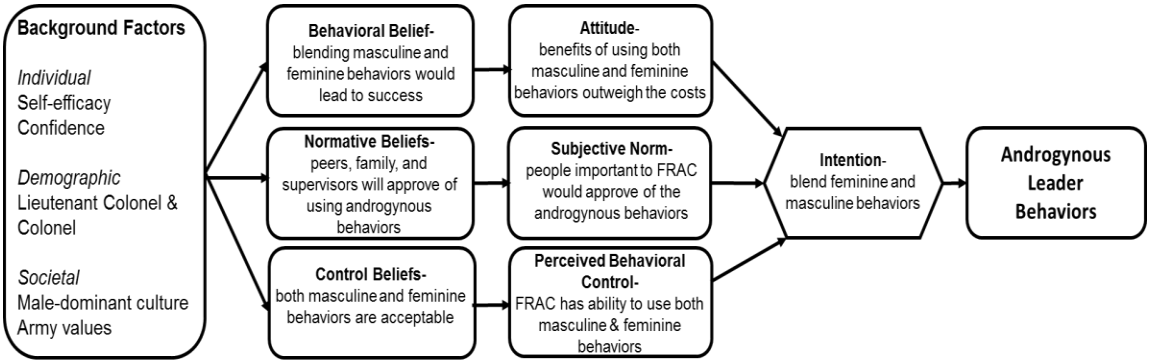

Figure 6. The application of TPB to the FRAC's decision to adopt androgynous leader behaviors later in her career.

Overachieving. The data indicated the prevalence of overachievement by the FRACs to exceed standards or precedents to prove their competence. This is in line with existing research that women are subject to amplified performance pressures due to increased attention and felt compelled to work harder for achievement recognition than male counterparts (Kanter, 1977; Powell, 2012). The Army is explicitly a male domain historically characterized by the lack of women in certain specialties and the reduced presence in others (De Angelis et al., 2013). For the FRACs, their token status resulted in

performance and integration pressures and perceived occupational inappropriateness and intrusiveness in a male-dominant culture (De Angelis et al., 2013; Kanter, 1977; Koeszegil et al., 2014).

The FRACs worked longer hours, accepted challenging assignments, deployed to combat zones, and voluntarily undertook additional training and education to prove they were as or more committed, industrious, and worthy as their male peers to receive recognition and promotion (Cha, 2013). Research indicated that women who remain and excel in male-dominant work environments do so because of varying factors such as persistence, grit, and willingness to overwork (DiRamio et al., 2015; Martin & Barnard, 2013). The Army culture values and expects persistence, commitment, and overwork (Cha, 2013; U.S. Army, 2012b). The FRAC ability to rise to senior levels or command and responsibility demonstrated grit, or long-term stamina, to operate and succeed despite a lack of feedback, stereotypes, or obstacles (Duckworth & Eskreis-Winkler, 2013; Kelly, Matthews, & Bartone, 2014). To further their efforts to gain acceptance, advancement, or equality in the male-dominated military, the FRACs adopted self-induced pressure and persistence to exceed standards and represent their gender as more than qualified to perform their duties and be leaders (DiRamio et al., 2015).

The TPB can help explain the decision of the FRACs to engage in overachieving behaviors such as overwork, voluntary additional training and education, exceeding standards, and accepting risky assignments (Cha, 2013; DiRamio et al., 2015; Kanter, 1977; Powell, 2012). Applying the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) to the FRAC's attitude toward adopting overachieving behaviors represents evaluation of the behavior

and possible outcomes. The FRAC evaluates the costs and benefits of the outcome and weighs her attitude toward adopting overachieving behaviors. The subjective norm correlates the amount to which other people important to the FRAC, such as family, peers and supervisors, approve or disapprove of the overachieving behavior. The FRAC's willingness to comply with these opinions weighs the subjective norm. Early in their careers, the influence of peer pressure and cultural expectations was high. If the FRAC overachieved early in her career and the result was career progression or recognition, her confidence and self-efficacy increased, as did her perceived behavioral control (Bandura, 1986). Figure 7 shows the application of TPB to the FRAC decision to adopt overachieving behaviors during her career.

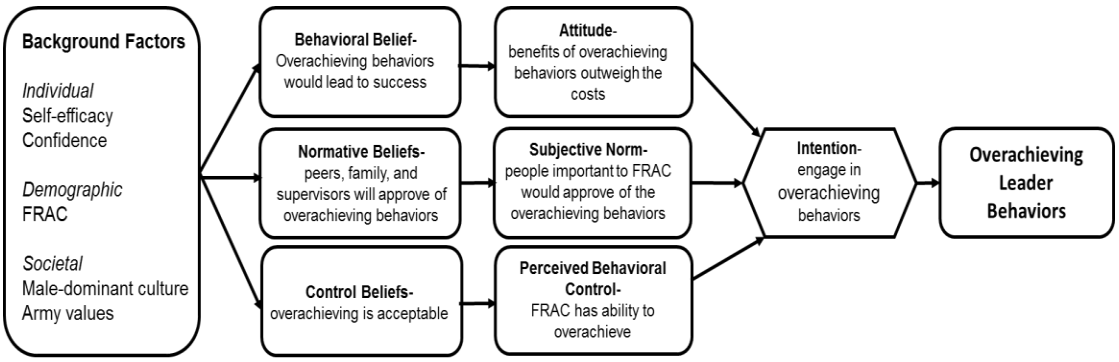

Figure 7. The application of TPB to the FRAC's decision to use overachieving leader behaviors during in her career.

Influence of role models and mentors. All FRAC participants noted the influence of both positive and negative male military role models on their individual leader behavior development. The majority of FRACs encountered negative male role models early in their careers and used those experiences to determine how they would not behave as leaders. Specifically, the FRACs determined that they would not incorporate

yelling, physical intimidation, and belittling or disrespectful communication into their leadership behaviors. Those who experienced the influence of positive role models early in their career noted that they were predominantly male noncommissioned officers (NCOs) and warrant officers rather than commissioned officers. As their careers progressed, the FRACs noted an increase in positive role models who demonstrated leader behaviors the FRACs would emulate. These positive role models may have increased the FRACs' self-efficacy and facilitated their perceptions they can have successful careers in male-dominant professions like the Army (Quimby & Santis, 2006). All FRAC participants attributed the lack of female role models to the scarcity of women in their organizations or senior in rank to them during their careers.

Mentoring is "the voluntary, developmental relationship that exists between a person of greater experience and a person of lesser experience that is characterized by mutual trust and respect" (U.S. Army, 2015b, p. 3-17; 2014a, p. 2). Only one of the FRACs identified a male mentor who guided or influenced her career. The lack of male mentors may be attributed to a *similar to me* effect where men prefer to work closely with and mentor other men or masculine women because they are comfortable with their behaviors (Barratt et al., 2014). Similar to the scarcity of female role models, there were no female mentors to guide or advise the FRACs during their careers. Though the percentage of Army women officers promoted to colonel has not increased since 2010, the larger percentage of female officers currently serving in more junior ranks should result in additional female mentors to share relevant cultural and social experiences (Kelty et al., 2010).

Change-oriented behavior. Change-oriented behavior includes understanding the environment, adapting in innovative ways, encouraging and visualizing change, inspiring innovation, and risk taking (Bass, 1996; Bass et al., 1996; Yukl, 2012, 2013). The FRACS' change-oriented behaviors complemented their use of relations-oriented behaviors to motivate followers by making the task or mission more meaningful and developing a greater sense of purpose (Bass et al., 1996). The importance of a clear and effectively communicated vision to motivate and inspire innovative problem solving was a priority for the FRACs. They sought to provide a path and then facilitate, not dictate, change. As they rose in rank, the FRACs sought innovative and creative solutions to ambiguous problems and changing environments.

To demonstrate their professional competency, the majority of FRACs sought or accepted high-risk assignments by taking over an underperforming or dysfunctional organization or leading in a challenging deployment environment. They embraced the opportunities to identify and confront mission threats and advocated for new or unconventional approaches. The FRACs highlighted those same challenging assignments as their most satisfying and effective leadership experiences.

Promotion to colonel brought a sense of confidence or freedom to adopt more change-oriented behaviors such as taking more risks and changing processes and organizations. When they were serving as colonels, the FRACs felt their value and competency were finally recognized within the Army culture. This liberation resulted in a willingness to accept more risks and less willingness to accept the status quo. They were now in positions of power to change their environment.

Research Question 2

Research Question 2: What are the relationships between senior Army women's leader behaviors and their roles in follow-on civilian careers? Based on the data collected from the eight FRACs there is a relationship between the FRAC leader behaviors and their use in civilian follow-on careers. In their civilian careers, the FRACs emphasized task-oriented leadership behaviors while expanding their use of external-oriented leadership behaviors.

Cultural and Identity Transition. The transition from the Army culture to the civilian culture after over 24 years of military service was a culture shock for the FRACs that required them to adapt and adjust after serving in the tight military culture (Bryan et al., 2012; Pease et al., 2015; Rausch, 2014). Similar to other military retirees surveyed on their transition experience (Baruch & Quick, 2009; Robertson & Brott, 2014), the majority of FRACs did not develop a deliberate transition plan prior to leaving the military and were emotionally underprepared to transition to civilian careers. Only one FRAC sought professional assistance with her resume and job search to better understand the organizational politics that influence civilian careers, outcomes, and environments.

Because of career and culture transition, the FRACs experienced an abrupt change from high status positions. The transition prompted individual quests for meaning, identity, and value in their new civilian positions (Coll et al., 2011). One's identity is essential to a sense of self and it influences how a leader cognitively processes socially relevant information and applies a certain leadership behavior in response to a situation (Yukl, 2012). Consistent with research, the FRACs carried their military identities and

leadership behaviors into the civilian world and retained values and attitudes that were distinctly military and significantly set apart from civilian norms (Coll et al., 2011). They sought to apply their military values and attitudes of discipline, selfless service, confidence, self-esteem, adaptability, and sense of responsibility to their civilian careers (Fuller et al., 2006).

The FRACs who chose defense contracting or government civilian positions in support of the Army did so because they believed these organizations most closely aligned with their military experience, leadership behaviors, and identity. However, these women expressed frustration that they were once again significant minorities in male-dominant environments that undervalued their experience and abilities. For these FRACs, the lack of female peers in the senior DA General Service (GS) pay grades, GS-14 and GS-15, and dearth of senior female role models or mentors in the DA senior executive services (SES) was similar to that experienced early in their military careers. Their experience corresponds to research showing a lack of women working in senior government senior and defense contracting positions (Martin, 2010). Women represent a minority of the top two DA General Service pay grades, GS-14 and GS-15, representing 72% and 76% respectively (U.S. Defense Equal Opportunity Management Institute, 2013). The FRACs who chose civilian careers unconnected to the military also had less responsibility than they did as colonels, but they accepted this as a condition of starting a new career and learning a new industry. Most FRACs were disappointed that the civilian organizational politics for selfish career progression conflicted with their values of selfless service, integrity, teamwork, and professionalism (Vigoda-Gadot et al., 2010).

Task-Oriented Behavior. Research supports the findings that expected strengths in FRAC civilian leadership roles align with responsibilities such as making decisions, delegating tasks, developing strategies, and allocating resources (Pfaff et al., 2013). Examples of task-oriented behaviors the FRACs highlighted as important in their civilian positions included the ability to solve problems, conduct planning, and explain objectives and responsibilities (Yukl, 2012). The FRACs understood the focus of their civilian organizations on performance and deadlines and strove to complete tasks on or before they were due. The FRACs ability to use task-oriented behaviors to reduce the ambiguity of missions is supported by research on individuals and groups as they participate in tasks, roles, and processes (Wegge, Shmela, & Haslam, 2014).

External-Oriented Behavior. In their civilian roles, the majority of FRACs were expected to engage in boundary spanning or external-oriented leader behaviors such as networking, collaborating, and representing (Yukl & Van Fleet, 2002; Yukl, 2012, 2013). The FRACs had honed their external-oriented behaviors as senior Army officers. In their civilian positions, the FRACs used those behaviors largely to provide direction, orientation, and commitment across boundaries in support of a greater plan or goal (Yip, Ernst, & Campbell, 2012). Leveraging the networks built during their military careers was expected for those in defense related industries, while those in non-defense sectors quickly established new networks. Laud and Johnson's (2013) research that successful women executives took advantage of career opportunities when they perceived they might gain an advantage through networking supported the FRAC focus on networking

and collaborating. Meanwhile, research indicated that male executives focused on ambition and self-promotion to reach their career objectives (Laud and Johnson).

Research Question 3.

When considered for possible employment, how do private sector senior managers perceive the leader behaviors women developed during their Army careers? Based on data collected from six senior managers of civilian organizations, I determined the themes of cultural transition, task-oriented behavior, external-oriented behavior, and changed-oriented behaviors reinforced the FRAC behaviors developed during their careers and used during their transition to and employment with civilian organizations.

Cultural Transition. Research by Vigoda-Gadot et al. (2010) supports, and the senior managers understood that after a prolonged career in a tight, hierarchical organization the FRACs would need guidance, assistance, and time to understand the civilian organizational politics that influence careers, outcomes, and the environment. Based on their military rank, education, and deployment experiences, the senior managers expected the FRACs to possess the senior leader behaviors required by their organizations. Most managers were concerned that the FRACs may have to soften their directive communication approach to adapt to a more collaborative, consensus-building approach. The managers emphasized the FRACs' cultural transition was aided by their maturity and active listening skills coupled with an enthusiasm to learn.

Task-Oriented Behavior. Research supports the findings of the senior manager participants that expected strengths in senior civilian leadership roles align with task-oriented behaviors such as making decisions, solving problems, delegating tasks,

developing strategies, and allocating resources (Pfaff et al., 2013). The managers highlighted the value of the FRACs' experience in high-pressure, complex environments and their experience leading teams and organizations as evidence they could accomplish the necessary objective, measurable, and outcome-related goals.

External-Oriented Behavior. The senior managers expected the FRACs to engage in boundary spanning or external-oriented leader behaviors such as networking, collaborating, and representing (Yukl, 2012, 2013; Yukl & Van Fleet, 2002). As highlighted by Yip, Ernst, & Campbell (2012), the managers needed the FRACs to employ communication behaviors to reach across organizational and community boundaries to network, collaborate, and support strategic organizational goals. Similar to the change-oriented behaviors the senior managers assumed the FRACs had experience developing a strategic vision that crossed organizational functions and would operate at the strategic level by learning about areas outside their direct control. The managers assessed that the FRACs possessed the essential leader behaviors necessary to collaborate and network to support organizational goals. The managers did not expect the FRACs to understand their industry's environment, but they did expect the FRACs knew how to assess new environments to gain information and predict trends.

Change-Oriented behavior. Research by Yukl (2012) supported the senior manager assertion that change behaviors were relevant for senior leaders in the dynamic, uncertain environments that exist across business sectors. The senior managers highlighted the need to demonstrate energy and commitment to continuous organizational improvement and to lead the initiatives to push for efficiencies. The managers were

confident the FRACs could effectively articulate a vision to inspire and motivate others. Interestingly, the FRACs did not highlight change-oriented behaviors as an area of emphasis in their civilian careers though they had developed these behaviors during their military careers. This difference in views may result in friction or misunderstandings between the managers and FRACs.

Limitations of the Study

The following were limitations of this study. The small sample size of eight FRACs and six senior managers limit the transferability to an overall population. The case study was an investigation and as such, the researcher was the primary tool. The researcher was a limiting factor in the study due to the length, detail, and costs of conducting interviews with eight FRACs and six senior managers.

Several possible biases existed which influenced this study. I served 27 years in the Army and retired as a colonel and, therefore, my biases might have influenced the participants and the analysis of the data. My assessment was that the respondents answered the questions honestly and objectively and were not influenced by unforeseen personal or professional reasons. The participants provided the data needed to answer the research questions.

To reduce the risk of personal bias, I used the validation techniques of data triangulation and member checking. Data triangulation allows a researcher to explore multiple perspectives of the same phenomenon (Fusch & Ness, 2015). Data triangulation can strengthen the validity of the study results (Cope, 2013). The data collected from the senior managers and the officer performance evaluations were used to triangulate data

collected from the FRAC interviews. The expected limitation of my relationship with the participants did not occur. During all interviews, the discussion was strictly limited to the interview questions (Appendix C) and I emphasized that candid and honest responses were crucial.

Recommendations

Recommendations for Action. Current and future Army leaders and civilian senior managers should reflect on the recommendations of this study. Through this research, I provided a rich understanding of the how FRACs developed leader behaviors. These findings should inform Army senior leadership of the influence of male-dominant culture, gender bias, and cultural obstacles on the leadership behaviors developed and used by female officers. The FRACs achieved success and there is value in understanding how they did so. These findings should inform civilian senior managers on the leadership experience and behaviors the FRACs can bring to their organizations. I identified three recommended steps for action by Army leaders and one recommended step for action by civilian leaders.

The first recommendation is for early and consistent Army leader messaging on and learning experiences with blended feminine and masculine androgynous leadership behaviors. Army doctrine and research (Duncanson, 2015; U.S. Army, 2012c) indicate the movement from military masculinity to an androgynous approach associated with conflict resolution and the skills of communication, negotiation, sensitivity, compassion, and empathy. If androgynous leadership behaviors are the preferred approach for future

Army leaders, this message needs to be consistent and reinforced in doctrine, education, concepts, and assignments.

The second recommendation focuses on female role models prior to commissioning. The presence of and interaction with both male and female role models at the commissioning sources (USMA, ROTC, and OCS) is essential to provide a foundation for acceptance and development of both feminine and masculine leadership behaviors in the Army culture. If sufficient female active duty role models are not available, develop a volunteer partnership with female retired colonels and lieutenant colonels to meet with cadets and participate in leadership activities. The majority of FRACs interviewed for this study indicated a desire to coach and interact with cadets or junior officers to share their leadership knowledge and experience as a women officer, a senior officer, and now a civilian still using those leadership skills and behaviors.

The third recommendation is to provide training on the role of mentors to officers early in their career to build their expectations on what support mentors can provide and how to find mentors. Just as important, the Army leadership should incorporate mentor training into the intermediate leadership education (ILE) course officers attend as majors, the pre-command courses, and the War College. This mentor training should focus on the unique mentor role and the gender communication skills necessary to overcome hesitancy or resistance to developing this type of professional male-female relationship.

The fourth recommendation is for senior civilian managers to consider FRACs when hiring for challenging leadership positions in their organizations. The senior managers in this study stated that civilian senior leadership positions require someone

who has the flexibility and experience to apply appropriate leadership behaviors depending on the environment and mission, can operate in stressful and challenging situations, can motivate their team, and retain valuable employees. The FRACs interviewed for this study possessed that ability and experience.

Recommendations for further research. The recommendations for further research based on this study include:

1. Initiate a longitudinal qualitative study of female Army officer leader behaviors. The study could begin with their accession through ROTC, West Point, or OCS and continue through their career or military retirement. This study could increase understanding of when and why women officers develop and use leader behaviors in response to the challenges, successes, and obstacles in their military careers.
2. Further research could comprise female retired Air Force and Marine colonels and Navy captains since this study was specific to female retired Army colonels. Female officers in the other services might provide useful insights into the leader behaviors developed to succeed in those specific cultures. The female officers in the other services may experience similar or different barriers and challenges than experienced by the FRACs.
3. Another study could include male retired Army colonels (MRACs) since this study was specific to female retired Army colonels. Male officers might provide useful insights into the leader behaviors developed to

succeed in the Army. The male officers may experience similar or unique challenges than those experienced by the FRACs.

4. Additional research could include a quantitative study of the FRACs' leadership behaviors using the TPB as the theoretical framework. This study was a qualitative case study and not generalizable to the FRAC population. To develop generalizable findings a survey of the FRAC population might provide insight into the applicability of using TPB in leadership studies and the role of intentions when adopting a leadership behavior.
5. Additional research could focus on the leadership behaviors of senior women leaders in other male-dominant occupations. An examination of other male-dominant occupations such as construction, firefighting, or federal law enforcement might reveal how women develop leadership behaviors and modify their use in response to challenges and barriers. This study might provide additional understanding within those male-dominant occupations.
6. Further research could focus on the influence of female role models on current women Army officers. This study was specific to FRACs who served during a period when there were few women present in the same units or senior in rank to them. This study might provide additional understanding of the impact female role models have on the leadership behaviors of women officers currently serving in the Army.

7. Additional research could investigate other male-dominant occupations with established mentor programs. This research on formal mentoring programs in a male-dominant occupation may provide insights into the influence of mentoring on women's career progression, retention, and accession. Additionally, the research could attempt to determine if female mentors were more successful than male mentors.
8. Further research on the transition from the Army to a civilian career could comprise female Army officers of all ranks since this study was specific to female retired Army colonels. This study could increase understanding of what leadership behaviors military women use when entering the civilian workforce and what challenges they encounter during this cultural transition.
9. To expand the research on transition to a civilian career further, a focus group for FRACs could be used. The focus group of FRACs could help identify the leadership behaviors they found useful in their civilian careers. Additionally, they could discuss the challenges they encountered during this cultural transition. A focus group would also afford an opportunity for FRACs to interact with other each other in a post military environment.

Implications

Significance to Practice

Current and future Army leaders want to know how to develop and be successful leaders (U.S. Army, 2012). There is an ongoing concern within the Department of Defense about the military's leadership diversity, especially in the more senior officer corps (Rand, 2012). With this study, I provided a rich understanding of the FRAC leadership behaviors and experiences for Army senior leadership to use in leader accession, development, and retention programs. As Army and civilian leaders consider the behaviors required or suitable for position assignments and promotion qualification, the results of this research may inform that process.

Significance to Social Change

Positive social change based on this study could occur in the US Army. An increase in an Army accession of women officers may result in a proportionally higher number of senior female officers, but may not increase the overall percentage in relation to senior male officers. Social and cultural change may occur when the Army leaders understand, encourage, and foster the leader behaviors that women develop in response to the Army's tight, hierarchical culture.

Social change within the Army ranks may occur based on the women who ascended to a senior rank. Those in junior ranks may learn from the study results and have more knowledge about how FRAC leadership behaviors formed in response to bias, situations and obstacles in the male-dominant Army environment. Currently serving women officers may gain understanding in how the FRACs modified their leadership

behaviors as they progressed to senior Army positions and then transitioned to follow-on civilian careers.

Positive social change may occur for individual female officers as they gain insight into the experiences of women officers who successfully rose through the ranks of the Army. The knowledge that the FRACs used effective leadership behaviors to overcome challenges similar to what currently serving female officers are experiencing may provide inspiration in an otherwise isolating experience. Individual FRACs may experience positive change by increasing their awareness of the experience of others who served and shared their career experiences.

Understanding the leader behaviors women developed in ascending to a senior military rank may inform private sector employers that these women have much to offer in civilian leadership positions. Those in the private sector may understand that women who achieved the rank of Army colonel have much to offer, and this could help increase the number of women considered for employment after they retire from the military. An increased awareness of the leadership behaviors the FRACs possess may motivate managers to pursue this demographic for senior leadership positions in private sector organizations.

Conclusions

The eight FRACs represented in this study achieved a high level of career success in the Army's male-dominant, traditional, and hierarchical structure. They served and succeeded during a period when cultural or regulatory restrictions limited opportunities for women to serve in an equal capacity to their male counterparts. With few female role

models, the FRACs initially adopted masculine leadership behaviors to gain acceptance and be one of the boys. Throughout their careers, they pushed themselves physically and intellectually to exceed the standards, and sought to surpass their male counterparts to prove they were willing and able to perform their duties. As senior officers, they incorporated feminine or relations-oriented behaviors with the masculine or task-oriented behaviors that had served them well. This androgynous leadership approach gave the FRACs flexibility in complex, challenging situations while reducing their role incongruity. These blended leadership behaviors served the FRACs well as they transitioned to civilian careers that required mature task-oriented, change-oriented, and external oriented leadership behaviors.

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Appendix A: Summary of the Army Leadership Attributes and Competencies Excerpted from Army Doctrine Reference Publication 6-22

Table A1

Army Leadership Attributes

Category	Attribute	Behaviors
Character	Army Values	The principles, standards, or qualities essential for successful leaders. Fundamentals that help people discern right from wrong in any situation. The Army has seven values: loyalty, duty, respect, selfless service, honor, integrity, and personal courage.
	Empathy	The tendency to experience something from another person's point of view. The ability to identify with and enter into another person's feelings and emotions. The desire to care for and take care of Soldiers and others.
	Warrior Ethos/ Service Ethos	The internal shared attitudes and beliefs that embody the spirit of the Army profession for Soldiers and Army Civilians alike.
	Discipline	Control of one's own behavior according to Army Values; mindset to obey and enforce good orderly practices duties.
Presence	Military and professional bearing	Possessing a commanding presence. Projecting a professional image of authority.
	Fitness	Having sound health, strength, and endurance that support one's emotional health and conceptual abilities under prolonged stress.
	Confidence	Projecting self-confidence and certainty in the unit's ability to succeed. Demonstrating composure and outward calm through control over one's emotions.
	Resilience	Showing a tendency to recover quickly from setbacks, shock, injuries, adversity, and stress while maintaining a mission and organizational focus.
Intellect	Mental agility	Flexibility of mind. Anticipating or adapting to uncertain or changing situations; to think through outcomes when current decisions or actions are not producing desired effects.
	Sound judgment	The capacity to assess situations shrewdly and draw sound conclusions. The ability to assess strengths and weaknesses of subordinates, peers, and enemy to create solutions and action.
	Innovation	The ability to introduce new ideas based on opportunity or challenging circumstances. Creativity in producing ideas and objects that are both novel and appropriate.
	Interpersonal tact	The capacity to understand interactions with others. Being aware of how others see you and sensing how to interact with them effectively. Expertise Possessing facts, beliefs, logical assumptions, and understanding in relevant areas.

Note. From *Army Doctrine Reference Publication 6-22: Army Leadership*, by U.S. Army Headquarters, 2012, p. 15. Reprinted from public domain.

Table A2

Army Competencies in the LEADS Category

Factor	Behaviors
Leads Others. Leaders motivate, inspire, and influence others to take initiative, work toward a common purpose, accomplish critical tasks, and achieve organizational objectives. Influence focuses on compelling others to go beyond their individual interests and to work for the common good.	
Uses appropriate methods of influence to energize others	Uses methods ranging from compliance to commitment (pressure, legitimate requests, exchange, personal appeals, collaboration, rational persuasion, apprising, inspiration, participation, and relationship building).
Provides purpose, motivation and inspiration	Inspires, encourages, and guides others toward mission accomplishment. Emphasizes the importance of organizational goals. Determines course of action necessary to reach objectives and fulfill mission requirements. Communicates instructions, orders, and directives to subordinates. Ensures subordinates understand and accept direction. Empowers and delegates authority to subordinates. Focuses on the most important aspects of a situation.
Enforces standards	Reinforces the importance and role of standards. Performs individual and collective tasks to standard. Recognizes and takes responsibility for poor performance and addresses it appropriately.
Balances mission and welfare of followers	Assesses and routinely monitors effects of mission fulfillment on mental, physical, and emotional attributes of subordinates. Monitors morale, physical condition, and safety of subordinates. Provides appropriate relief when conditions jeopardize success of the mission or present overwhelming risk to personnel.
Builds Trust. Leaders build trust to mediate relationships and encourage commitment among followers. Trust starts from respect among people and grows from common experiences and shared understanding.	
Sets personal example for trust	Is firm, fair, and respectful to gain trust. Assesses degree of own trustworthiness.
Takes direct actions to build trust	Fosters positive relationship with others. Identifies areas of commonality (understanding, goals, and experiences). Engages other members in activities and objectives. Corrects team members who undermine trust with their attitudes or actions.
Sustains a climate of trust	Assesses factors or conditions that promote or hinder trust. Keeps people informed of goals, actions, and results. Follows through on actions related to expectations.
Extends Influence beyond the Chain of Command. Leaders need to influence beyond their direct lines of authority and beyond chains of command to include unified action partners. In these situations, leaders use indirect means of influence: diplomacy, negotiation, mediation, arbitration, partnering, conflict resolution, consensus building, and coordination.	
Understands sphere, means and limits of influence	Assesses situations, missions, and assignments to determine the parties involved in decision-making, decision support, and possible interference or resistance.
Negotiates, builds consensus and resolves conflict	Builds effective working relationships. Uses 2-way, meaningful communication. Identifies individual and group interests. Identifies roles and resources. Generates and facilitates generation of possible solutions. Applies fair standards to assess options. Creates good choices between firm, clear commitment and alternatives to a negotiated agreement.

(*table continues*)

Factor	Behaviors
Leads by Example. Leaders serve as role models. They maintain standards and provide effective examples through their actions. All Army leaders should model the Army Values. Modeling provides tangible evidence of desired behaviors and reinforces verbal guidance through commitment and action.	
Displays character	Sets the example by displaying high standards of duty performance, personal appearance, military and professional bearing, physical fitness and ethics. Fosters an ethical climate; shows good moral judgment and behavior. Demonstrates determination, persistence, patience, sound judgment, and logical reasoning.
Exemplifies the Warrior Ethos	Removes or fights through obstacles, difficulties, and hardships to accomplish missions. Demonstrates the will to succeed. Demonstrates physical and emotional courage. Shares hardships with subordinates.
Leads with confidence in adverse situations	Provides leader presence at the right time and place. Displays self-control, composure, and positive attitude. Is resilient. Remains decisive after discovering a mistake. Acts in the absence of guidance. Does not show discouragement when facing setbacks. Remains positive when the situation becomes confusing or changes. Encourages subordinates when they show signs of weakness.
Demonstrates technical and tactical competence	Meets mission standards, protects resources, and accomplishes the mission with available resources using technical and tactical skills. Displays appropriate knowledge of equipment, procedures and methods; recognizes and generates innovative solutions. Uses knowledgeable sources and subject matter experts.
Understands the importance of conceptual skills and models them	Displays comfort working in open systems. Makes logical assumptions in the absence of facts. Identifies critical issues to use as a guide in making decisions and taking advantage of opportunities. Relates and compares information from different sources to identify possible cause-and effect relationships.
Seeks diverse ideas and points of view	Encourages honest communications among staff and decision-makers. Explores alternative explanations and approaches for accompanying tasks. Reinforces new ideas; demonstrates willingness to consider alternative perspectives.
Communicates. Leaders communicate effectively by clearly expressing ideas and actively listening to others. By understanding the nature and importance of communication and practicing effective communication techniques, leaders will relate better to others and be able to translate goals into actions. Communication is essential to all other leadership competencies.	
Listens actively	Listens and watches attentively. Makes appropriate notes. Tunes in to content, emotion, and urgency. Uses verbal and nonverbal means to reinforce with the speaker that you are paying attention.
Creates shared understanding	Shares necessary information with others and subordinates. Protects confidential information. Coordinates plans with higher, lower and adjacent organizations. Keeps higher and lower headquarters, superiors and subordinates informed. Expresses thoughts and ideas clearly to individuals and groups. Recognizes potential miscommunication.
Employs engaging communication techniques	States goals to energize others to adopt and act on them. Uses logic and relevant facts in dialogue; expresses well-organized ideas. Speaks enthusiastically and maintains listeners' interest and involvement. Makes appropriate eye contact when speaking. Uses appropriate gestures. Uses visual aids as needed. Determines, recognizes, and resolves misunderstandings.
Sensitive to cultural factors in communication	Maintains awareness of communication customs, expressions, actions, or behaviors. Demonstrates respect for others.

Note. From *Army Doctrine Reference Publication 6-22: Army Leadership*, by U.S. Army Headquarters, 2012, p. 16-18. Reprinted from public domain.

Table A3

Competencies in the DEVELOPS Category

Factor	Behaviors
Creates a Positive Environment/Fosters Esprit de Corps. Leaders establish and maintain positive expectations and attitudes to support effective work behaviors and healthy relationships. Leaders improve the organization while accomplishing missions. Leave the organization better than it was when they arrived	
Fosters teamwork, cohesion, cooperation and loyalty (esprit de corps)	Encourages people to work together effectively. Promotes teamwork and team achievement to build trust. Draws attention to the consequences of poor coordination. Integrates new members into the unit quickly.
Encourages fairness and inclusiveness	Provides accurate evaluations and assessments. Supports equal opportunity. Prevents all forms of harassment. Encourages learning about and leveraging diversity.
Encourages open and candid communications	Shows others how to accomplish tasks while respectful and focused. Displays a positive attitude to encourage others and improve morale. Reinforces the expression of contrary and minority viewpoints. Displays appropriate reactions to new or conflicting information or opinions. Guards against groupthink.
Creates a learning environment	Uses effective assessment and training methods. Encourages leaders and their subordinates to reach their full potential. Motivates others to develop themselves. Expresses the value of interacting with others and seeking counsel. Stimulates innovative and critical thinking in others. Seeks new approaches to problems. Communicates the difference between professional standards and a zero-defects mentality. Emphasizes learning from one's mistakes.
Encourages subordinates to exercise initiative, accept responsibility and take ownership	Involves others in decisions and informs them of consequences. Allocates responsibility for performance. Guides subordinate leaders in thinking through problems for themselves. Allocates decision-making to the lowest appropriate level. Acts to expand and enhance subordinate's competence and self-confidence. Rewards initiative.
Demonstrates care for follower well-being	Encourages subordinates and peers to express candid opinions. Addresses subordinates' and families' needs. Stands up for subordinates. Routinely monitors morale and encourages honest feedback.
Anticipates people's on the-job needs	Recognizes and monitors subordinate's needs and reactions. Shows concern for how tasks and missions affect subordinate morale.
Sets and maintains high expectations for individuals and teams	Clearly articulates expectations. Creates a climate that expects good performance, recognizes superior performance, and does not accept poor performance. Challenges others to match the leader's example
Prepares Self. Leaders prepare to execute their leadership responsibilities fully. Aware of their limitations and strengths and seek self-development. Maintain self-discipline, physical fitness, and mental well-being. Continue to improve the expertise required of their leadership roles and profession.	
Maintains mental and physical health and wellbeing	Recognizes imbalance or inappropriateness of one's own actions. Removes emotions from decision-making. Applies logic and reason to make decisions or when interacting with emotionally charged individuals. Recognizes the sources of stress and maintains appropriate levels of challenge to motivate self. Manages regular exercise, leisure activities, and time away. Stays focused on life priorities and values.

(*table continues*)

Factor	Behaviors
Expands knowledge of technical, tactical, and technological areas	Seeks knowledge of systems, equipment, capabilities, and situations, particularly information technology systems. Keeps informed about developments and policy changes inside and outside the organization.
Expands conceptual and interpersonal capabilities	Understands the contribution of concentration, critical thinking, imagination, and problem solving in different task conditions. Learns new approaches to problem solving. Applies lessons learned. Filters unnecessary information efficiently. Reserves time for self-development, reflection, and growth
Analyzes and organizes information to create knowledge	Reflects on prior learning; organizes insights for future application. Considers source, quality or relevance, and criticality of information to improve understanding. Identifies reliable resources for acquiring knowledge.
Maintains relevant cultural awareness	Learns about issues of language, values, customary behavior, ideas, beliefs, and patterns of thinking that influence others. Learns about results of previous encounters when culture plays a role in mission success.
Maintains relevant geopolitical awareness	Learns about relevant societies experiencing unrest. Recognizes Army influences on unified action partners and enemies. Understands the factors influencing conflict and peacekeeping, peace enforcing and peacemaking.
Maintains self-awareness: employs self-understanding and recognizes impact	Evaluates one's strengths and weaknesses. Learns from mistakes to make corrections; learns from experience. Seeks feedback; determines areas in need of development. Determines personal goals and makes progress toward them. Develops capabilities where possible but accepts personal limitations.
Develops Others. Leaders encourage and support others to grow as individuals and teams. Facilitate the achievement of organizational goals through helping others to develop. Prepare others to assume new positions elsewhere in the organization, making the organization more versatile and productive.	
Assesses developmental needs of others	Determines strengths and weaknesses of subordinates under different conditions. Evaluates subordinates in a fair and consistent manner. Assesses tasks and subordinate motivation to consider methods of improving work assignments. Designs ways to challenge subordinates to improve weaknesses and sustain strengths. Encourages subordinates to improve processes.
Counsels, coaches and mentors	Improves subordinate's understanding and proficiency. Uses experience and knowledge to improve future performance. Counsels, coaches and mentors subordinates, lower-ranking and peer leaders, and others.
Facilitates ongoing development	Maintains awareness of existing individual and organizational development programs and removes barriers to development. Supports opportunities for self-development. Arranges training opportunities to help subordinates improve self-awareness, confidence, and competence.
Builds team or group skills and processes	Presents challenging assignments for team or group interaction. Provides resources and support for realistic, mission-oriented training. Sustains and improves the relationships among team members. Provides feedback.
Stewards the Profession. Leaders take care of the Army profession by applying a mindset that embodies cooperative planning and management of all resources; providing for a strong Army team. Leaders actively engage in sustaining full military readiness; preventing the loss of effectiveness into the future.	
Supports professional and personal growth	Supports developmental opportunities for subordinates such as PME attendance, key developmental assignments in other organizations, and broadening assignments.
Improves organization	Makes decisions and takes action to improve the organization beyond tenure.

Note. From *Army Doctrine Reference Publication 6-22: Army Leadership*, by U.S. Army Headquarters, 2012, p. 19-21. Reprinted from public domain.

Table A4

Competencies in the ACHIEVES Category

Factor	Behaviors
Gets Results. A leader's ultimate purpose is to achieve desired results IAW organizational goals. A leader gets results by providing guidance and managing resources, as well as performing the other leader competencies. Gets results focuses on consistent and ethical task accomplishment through supervising, managing, monitoring, and controlling the work.	
Prioritizes, organizes and coordinates taskings for teams or other organizations structures/groups	Ensures the course of action achieves the desired outcome through planning. Organizes groups and teams to accomplish work. Ensures all tasks can be executed in the time available and that tasks depending on other tasks are executed in the correct sequence. Limits over-specification and micromanagement.
Identifies and accounts for capabilities and commitment to task	Considers duty positions, capabilities, and developmental needs when assigning tasks. Conducts initial assessments to assume a new task or a new position.
Designates, clarifies, and deconflicts roles	Establishes and employs procedures for monitoring, coordinating, and regulating subordinate's actions and activities. Mediates peer conflicts and disagreements.
Identifies, contends for, allocates and manages resources	Tracks people and equipment. Allocates adequate time for task completion. Allocates time to prepare and conduct rehearsals. Continually seeks improvement in operating efficiency, resource conservation, and fiscal responsibility. Attracts, recognizes, and retains talent.
Removes work barriers	Protects organization from unnecessary taskings and distractions. Recognizes and resolves scheduling conflicts. Overcomes obstacles preventing accomplishment of the mission.
Recognizes and rewards good performance	Recognizes individual and team accomplishments; rewards appropriately. Credits subordinates for good performance; builds on successes. Explores reward systems and individual reward motivations.
Seeks, recognizes and takes advantage of opportunities to improve performance	Asks incisive questions. Anticipates needs for actions; envisions ways to improve. Acts to improve the organization's collective performance. Recommends best methods to accomplish tasks; uses information and technology to improve individual and group effectiveness. Encourages staff to use creativity to solve problems.
Makes feedback part of work processes	Gives and seeks accurate and timely feedback. Uses feedback to modify duties, tasks, procedures, requirements, and goals. Uses assessment techniques and evaluation tools (such as AARs) to identify lessons learned and facilitate consistent improvement. Determines the appropriate setting and timing for feedback.
Executes plans to accomplish the mission	Schedules activities to meet commitments in critical performance areas. Notifies peers and subordinates in advance of required support. Keeps track of task assignments and suspenses; attends to details. Adjusts assignments, if necessary.
Identifies and adjusts to external influences on the mission and organization	Gathers and analyzes relevant information about changing conditions. Determines causes, effects, and contributing factors of problems. Considers contingencies and their consequences. Makes necessary, on-the-spot adjustments.

Note. From *Army Doctrine Reference Publication 6-22: Army Leadership*, by U.S. Army Headquarters, 2012, p. 22. Reprinted from public domain.

Appendix B: Leader Behavior Metacategories

Leader Behavior		
Relations-Oriented	Recognizing	commends individual's effective performance; recognizes individual achievements to the organization.
	Supporting	expresses confidence individuals can complete tasks; displays concern for individuals' needs and feelings; supports and encourages team and individuals during complex tasks.
	Developing	encourages members to pursue opportunities for talent growth; offers useful feedback and coaching; affords helpful career guidance.
	Empowering	involves individuals in critical work decisions; considers individual suggestions and concerns; delegates important task authority and responsibility; allows individuals to resolve work-related problems without prior approval.
Task-Oriented	Problem-Solving	takes decisive and confident action to solve problems; identifies work issues that can disrupt mission; makes systematic, timely assessments.
	Planning	develops detailed work plans; develops schedule and coordinates activities for most efficient use of people and resources; identifies the actions and resources required to perform a project or activity.
	Clarifying	clearly explains objectives, priorities, assignments, and individual responsibilities; assigns vital work project goals; identifies timelines; explains rules, policies, and procedures.
	Monitoring	reviews applicable information sources to determine status of critical tasks; checks task quality and progress; conducts systematic performance evaluations.
Change-Oriented	Envisioning Change	describes a suggested change or initiative with interest and optimism; connects vision to individual values and principles; communicates clear and engaging vision
	Advocating Change	explains an emerging threat or opportunity; proposes desirable changes to policies or procedures that are no longer useful or appropriate; accepts personal risk to drive for approval of difficult but critical changes.
	Encouraging Innovation	advocates the significance of innovation; encourages flexible, innovative problem solving methods and thinking; inspires and supports plans to develop new processes or services.
	Facilitating Collective Learning	uses methodical measures for learning how to improve team performance; supports indviduals understand work unit performance; encourages individuls to share new knowledge with team members.

(*table continues*)

Leader Behavior		
External-Oriented	Networking	joins professional organizations or associations; attends meetings or events; uses social networks to build and maintain favorable peer, supervisor, and outsider relationships which can provide useful information or assistance.
	Representing	lobbies for vital finances or resources; endorses and defends the organization or team reputation; negotiates agreements; coordinates associated tasks or events with afilited teams, organizations or outside entities.
	External Monitoring	evaluates information about trends and changes in the external environment to identify pressures, implications, or opportunities for the team or organization.

(Yukl, 2012)

Appendix C: Interview Guide

Interviewer _____

Date, Location, and Time of Interview _____

Interviewee _____

Interviews conducted in person, by Skype/Google chat, or telephone

FRAC Research Question 1: Leader behavior development

1.1 Describe what a leader is.

1.2 Describe what leadership behaviors encompass.

1.3 Describe what experiences contributed to your learning leadership behaviors while in the Army. What development opportunities (e.g. assignments, training, and education) have contributed or influenced your leadership behaviors?

1.4 From whom did you learn your leadership behaviors while in the Army? Describe any role models or mentors who influenced your leader behaviors during your Army career. Were they inside or outside the Army?

1.5 Describe any barriers you experienced during your career to obtain and/or sustain a leadership position. How did you overcome those barriers?

1.6 Based on your military experience, what gender-related behaviors, if any, affected leadership effectiveness? Provide an example that supports this.

1.7 Describe a situation when you felt you were very effective as a leader. What key behaviors did you demonstrate?

1.8 In reference to military performance evaluations, how accurately did the evaluations capture your leadership behaviors? Describe how an evaluation caused you to adapt or change a leadership behavior.

1.9 What leader behaviors contributed to your promotion to Colonel? What leader behaviors distinguished you from other officers who were not promoted to Colonel?

1.10 Describe if and how your leader behaviors changed when you became a colonel.

1.11 Describe what leadership behaviors make you unique.

FRAC Research Question 2: Transition to civilian career questions

2.1 How would you describe your level of responsibility when you were a colonel compared to now?

2.2 How did you prepare yourself for a civilian position? Did you complete any additional training or education prior to starting the civilian position? Since you have been in your current position? Why?

2.3 Based on the Army experiences you described, which leader behaviors have been a benefit to your civilian career? Which leader behaviors are not beneficial?

2.4 Discuss if and how mentorship(s) contributes to your current civilian position.

2.5 Discuss any leadership development programs you participated in during your civilian career. What impact did those programs have on your leader behaviors?

2.6 With respect to transferring military leadership behaviors to the private sector, what advice would you give to an officer who is within one year of retiring from the Army?

2.7 What leader behaviors do you think your organizational management look for in selecting leaders?

2.8 What measurements of success (e.g. education, skills, competencies, or behaviors) or performance evaluation does your organization use for promoting leaders?

2.9 Is there anything you would like to share that we have not covered?

Senior manager Research Question 3: Manager perceptions of FRAC leader behaviors

3.1 What leader behaviors do you think your organizational managers look for in selecting leaders?

3.2 What leader behaviors, experience, or competencies did the FRACs possess?

3.3 How did the FRACs differ from others considered for this position or serving in similar positions?

3.4 What leadership behaviors have been a benefit to the FRAC's civilian career? What leadership behaviors have not been an advantage to the FRAC's civilian career?

3.5 What leadership behaviors are necessary for individuals holding senior management or leadership? Executive positions?

3.6 Describe what you think are the necessary education, skills, competencies, or behaviors required for leaders to advance in your organization.

3.7 What measurements of success or performance evaluation criteria does your organization use for senior managers and leaders?

3.8 Is there anything you would like to share that we have not covered?

Appendix D: Demographic form sent to FRAC participants

"The relationships between senior Army women's leader behaviors and their roles in follow-on civilian careers"

Demographic Form

Please fill out this form by checking or writing the appropriate answer. Email the form as an attachment to xxxx@waldenu.edu or Mail completed form in the enclosed envelope.

Print Name: _____

1. **Gender** Male____ Female____

2. **Age** _____

3. **Marital Status**

Married___ Singled___ Divorced___ Widowed___

4. **Highest Education Level**

Bachelor degree___ Masters degree___ Doctoral degree___

5. Military status

Retired military___ Date (month/year) of military retirement_____

Active duty military___ Reserve/National Guard military_____

6. Length of service in the Army _____

7. Reason for retiring from the Army

_____

_____

8. Civilian Position status

CEO/President___ Senior/Executive manager___ Business Owner___ Mid-level manager___ Consultant___ Other (please describe) ___

9. Type of organization you currently work at (briefly describe the primary service provided by your organization)

_____

_____

10. Years in the current organization _____

11. Years in civilian management/leadership position _____

12. Professional or business organizations or associations that you belong to

_____

_____

Appendix E: Demographic form sent to senior manager participants

"The relationships between senior Army women's leader behaviors and their roles in follow-on civilian careers"

Demographic Form

Please fill out this form by checking or writing the appropriate answer. Email the form as an attachment to Sharon.hamilton2@waldenu.edu or Mail completed form in the enclosed envelope.

Print Name:

_____

1. **Gender** Male____ Female____

2. **Age** _____

3. **Marital Status**

Married___ Singled___ Divorced___ Widowed___

4. **Highest Education Level**

Bachelor degree___ Masters degree___ Doctoral degree___

5. Military status

Retired military___ Active duty/Reserve military___ Years of military service_____

Highest military grade attained _____

6. Number of Female Retired Army Colonels (FRACS) you have hired in your current position _____

7. Number of Female Retired Army Colonels (FRACS) you currently have working for or with you _____

8. Current Civilian Position

CEO/President___ Senior/Executive manager___ Business Owner___ Consultant___ Other (please describe)

_____

9. Total years in civilian management/leadership positions _____

10. Total years in the current organization _____

11. Type of organization you currently work at (briefly describe the primary service provided by your organization)

_____
_____
_____

12. Professional or business organizations or associations that you belong to

_____
_____
_____