WOMEN AND DISCOURSE: A QUALITATIVE STUDY OF WOMEN'S PERCEPTION

OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF DISCOURSE IN A MALE-DOMINANT

ORGANIZATION

by

Avies Gray Gennaro

DON NOWILL, PhD, Faculty Mentor and Chair

CHERYL BANN, PhD, Committee Member

GARY ROBINSON, PhD, Committee Member

Todd C. Wilson, PhD, Dean,

School of Business and Technology

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Philosophy

Capella University

September 2019

Abstract

Researchers have extensively studied gender, power, and discourse as it relates to management status. However, a gap in the literature exists regarding women's perception of the effectiveness of discourse in male-dominant organizations. This generic qualitative study explored women's perception of the effectiveness of discourse when transiting to management status. The research question, How do women perceive the effectiveness of discourse as they transition from employee to management status? focused on how women's discourse is accepted, valued, and understood, and whether women's patterns of discourse affect women's professional development. A criterion sample of 13 in management level positions within the Southeastern area of the United States were interviewed and narrative analysis employed. Content and themes were determined from transcribed interviews. NVivo Pro 12 computer software was used to link relationships in the study's entirety. Themes emerged that were associated with women's perceived effectiveness of discourse were communication, respect, experience, and openness and honesty. These themes are deemed important in building positive and effective relationships between male and female genders in organizational settings and enabling professional development. The study leads to positive social changes by raising the awareness of organizational leadership and women helping to set an agenda for overcoming the intersectionality of the gendered glass ceiling. Organizations can learn and thrive through the inclusion of females' voices of diversity.

Dedication

I dedicate this research to my husband for all his patience and encouragement during this stage of my life's journey. You are my hero. I can fly higher than an eagle, for you are the wind beneath my wings- I would be nothing without you (Silbar & Henley, 1982). Without you, none of this would have been possible. You are amazing. To my children, Shayla, Chandra, and Charles, who are the love, light, and pride in my life, I dedicate this research. I hope to continue to grow with you. To my beautiful granddaughters, Ginger and Clover, you encourage me to grow and learn with you. To my fun-loving grandsons, Sawyer and Merrick, you have been so patient and understanding with me for my absence at many of your sports events. All of you have inspired me with your joy, patience, and grit. You are loved. To my siblings, Larry, Judy, Wayne, and Johnny, I love each of you. You are special. I also dedicate this to my beloved Grandmother, who from my early years instilled in me that anything is possible if you set your mind to it. You taught me never to give up. To my Mother, who gave me life and love, I miss you. I know both are looking down on me with smiling faces. Most importantly, I dedicate this research to God, my higher power, who gave me the stamina to accomplish this journey as I faced many adversities during the process. God is awesome.

Acknowledgments

I owe an incredible amount of appreciation and thanks to Dr. Don Nowill, the previous mentor and chair of my committee in the latter milestones of my dissertation. Also, thanks to Dr. Geoffrey Laendner for his commitment in seeing me through this arduous journey. I will forever be grateful for your words of encouragement and support. Moreover, your sense of humor and hilarious comments always pepped me up when I was down. Thanks to my previous committee members, Dr. Don Nowill, and Dr. Sherri Braxton. Also, thanks to Dr. Cheryl Bann and Dr. Gary Robinson for whose support I am grateful in the final milestones of my dissertation. Each of you brought distinctive perspectives to your feedback, making my work whole. I want to acknowledge the faculty and staff at Capella University who have been supportive throughout this journey.

Thanks to Dr. Mitchell Carnell, who has encouraged me to start this journey for many years. He has been a true inspiration and teacher and will always hold a special place in my life. Thanks to Dr. William Lampton, who for many years has encouraged me to put pen to paper. Your words and encouragement have been an awesome gift.

To my amazing friend, Margie Peden-Adams, you are an extraordinary woman. Thank you for availing yourself and being honest and candid with me. When paralyzed with anxiety and fear, your words, "breathe, breathe, and breathe some more," and your special chocolate treats boosted me up. Her wisdom and generosity are beyond words. I wish to express my gratitude to the amazing women who graciously volunteered to make this study possible. Thank you for your trust in me, your willingness to be open and honest in sharing your stories. You are an inspiration to the women of the next generation,

I must give enormous credit to my husband, whose hugs kept me motivated and strengthened my soul. Together, we laughed, we prayed, I cried, and we made it. This goal has been an amazing journey of growth with you. To my children for their spirit and continuous reminders to believe in myself and dream big, I am grateful. To my granddaughters, my biggest cheerleaders, you make my life interesting every day. To all my family and friends, thank you for your words of encouragement, prayers, love, and unwavering support. I would be less of a person without all of you. In my final words of thanks to my Awesome God, my relationship with him gave me the strength to preserve. Through him, I breathe and have my being. Peace!

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

x

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

Introduction to the Problem

"If you believe in yourself and have
dedication and pride – and never
quit, you'll be a winner.
The price of victory is high, but
so are you."

~ Paul "Bear" Bryant

Research, literature, and statistics over the past forty years show that women have become a major part of the American workforce, yet they are underrepresented in power and leadership in organizations (Calas, Smircich, & Holvino, 2014; Weyer, 2007). In 2013, of all of the women in the U.S., 57.2% of them were working (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2014) compared to 43% in 1970 (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2003). Despite this upward trend of women in the workforce, the representation of women in power and leadership is lacking (Metz & Kulik, 2014). Statistics show that men still have a firm grip on positions of power, leadership, and decision-making (Bates, 2014; Baumann, 2017; Sever, 2016). According to Agars (2004) and Sheridan (2007), although women are underrepresented in power and leadership, they have managed to be successful in professional careers. However, women only hold a small number of powerful positions in organizations (Tutchell & Edmonds, 2015). Current literature on leadership primarily focuses on men and women gender differences, roles, and stereotypes (de Lemus, Spears, Bukowski, Moya, & Lupianez, 2013; Glaeser & Ma, 2013). Bakker-Pieper and deVries (2013) stated that communication effectiveness linked to power and leadership is less frequently discussed in the literature.

Conscious and unconscious views of women's ambitions, abilities, and potential are most often shaped by gender stereotypes, which can negatively affect decisions relevant to their

1

advancement to positions of power and leadership (Ashcraft & Mumby, 2004). Attention to

gender differences and discourse is required to understand the relative absence of women in power

and leadership positions (Paustian-Underdahl, Walker, & Woehr, 2014). Ashcraft and Mumby's

(2004) research expanded that different behavioral stereotypes exist for women and men in

general. Men are implicitly viewed as go-getters, self-starters, decisive, and agential, while

women are expected to be kind, supportive, helpful, and communal (Ashcraft & Mumby, 2004).

The author further stated that, in essence, a woman is not a leader. A woman is often viewed to be

aggressive, pushy, and overbearing when acting outside such gender stereotypes (Ashcraft &

Mumby, 2004; Sever, 2016). These conscious and unconscious views manifest in reports by

women as barriers to organizational advancement (Catalyst, 2001).

A *Wall Street Journal* article by Hymowitz and Schellhardt (1986) popularized the term,

glass ceiling, in relation to barriers women face in the work force. The term was described as "an

invisible, yet quite impenetrable barrier that serves to prevent all but a disproportionately few

women from reaching the highest rank in the corporate hierarchy, regardless of their achievement

and merits" (DeLaat, 2007, p. 346). Effectively, the ceiling represents obstacles in upward

progress and 'glass' represents restrictions to progress that are not openly observable or formerly

written work ethos (Jasielska, 2014). It is "a phenomenon that portrays the relative disadvantage

regarding career opportunities for women, revealing dilemmas that women experience when

reaching an advanced stage of their career" (Kolade & Obasan, 2013, p. 79). Sever (2016) stated

that the glass ceiling syndrome is unbreakable. The glass ceiling is an invisible barrier that keeps

not only women but minorities from progressing in their careers regardless of their qualifications.

The Federal Glass Ceiling Commission was created by the Civil Rights Act of 1991, which

conducted a study of "artificial barriers to the advancement and decision-making positions" in

corporate America (U.S. Department of Labor and Federal Glass Ceiling Commission, 1995, p. 3). According to the Glass Ceiling Commission's (1995) study, the number of women decreased as the level of power increased in organizations (Kantola, 2008). Despite dramatic increases in numbers of women in the workplace, artificial barriers are still inhibiting women and minorities (Johns, 2013). Conscious and unconscious views on not only gender but age, marital status, and pay are also considered contributing factors that affect the glass ceiling syndrome (Sever, 2016). The obstacles that career women face reveal discrimination and borders on the line that demarcates the progress of their career compared to male counterparts (Ganiyu, Oluwafemi, Ademola, & Olatunji, 2018).

Additionally, Ng and Bradac (1993) indicated that as women's presence disappears in management, they become invisible in a discourse which is more than conversation. Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) saw discourse in a narrow lens "as a form of spoken dialogue and in contrast to written texts" (p. 34). Greyling (2018) revisited Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) model of discourse noting that discourse is language in use, the written text of all kinds, spoken and conversation in forms of talk and that discourse yields patterns of invitation, response, and feedback. According to Gilbert and Mulkay (1984), a contemporaneous lens sees discourse as spoken and written text. Potter and Wetherell (1987) stated that such a lens describes discourse as "all forms of spoken interaction, formal and informal, and written texts of all kinds" (p. 7). Phillip and Oswick (2012) emphasized how discourse brings phenomena into existence, such as talk, text, metaphor, myth, narratives, and images. Discourse creates pathways of action, giving prominence to relationships and transforms the impact on society more broadly, creating pathways of action (Phillips & Oswick, 2012). Maier, Meyer, and Steinbereithner (2014) favored discourse as patterned conduct, manifesting cognition, and ways of saying and doing. Sebba (2012) viewed

3

discourse simply as a combination of spoken language in use and language within written text of all kinds. Powell (2014) favored discourse as creating pathways of actions and patterns of conduct. Other researchers found a lack of definition in the literature linking the effectiveness of communication and discourse between men and women (de Lemus et al., 2013). There is a need for research of the challenges and issues that surround organizations due to limited literature regarding discourse and women's perception of its effectiveness when moving into power and leadership positions.

Background of the Study

Gender differences in communication and management in the workplace have been studied (de Lemus et al., 2013; de Vries, Bakker-Pieper, & Oostenveld, 2010; Greyling, 2018; Sever, 2018). Issues of power, gender, and discourse significantly impact organizational culture. Organizational theorists have shown a keen interest in discourse and its challenges faced by women seeking to advance upward in organizations (Grant, Keenoy, & Oswick, 2001). Research has only begun to interrogate issues such as social norms that constrain organizational culture. Berger and Reber (2006) explored power and gender to examine how professional status is gendered. The work of the authors brought together the research of Aldoory, Reber, Berger, and Toth (2008) to analyze how power and gender influence meaning through communication. Accurate and effective discourse/communication act as crucial factors in relation to power and organizations (Luthra & Dahiya, 2015). Spicer (1997) related how power and gender occur through an organization's members and their interactions, which can be affected by perceptions, beliefs, opinions, attitudes, discourse, and individual's behaviors. These barriers keep women from progressing in their careers (Ganiyu et al., 2018; Sever, 2016).

4

Research, focusing on gender, discourse (language), and its social construction, has inspired the understanding of the why, the how, and the what of social construction of gender in the workplace and to what extent its impact permeates leadership (Holmes, Schnurr, & Marra, 2007; Sever, 2016). The literature on discourse indicates that the role of discourse is of importance in constructing and maintaining social reality, acting "as a powerful ordering force in organizations" (Alversson & Karremen, 2002, p. 1127). Throughout the years, increasing research has been conducted on discourse. Although past research has been conducted on discourse, gender, and power, little research has focused on women's perception of the effectiveness of discourse in management that add to theoretical perspectives. Harrison, Leitch, and McAdams (2014) and Fiona (2012) used masculinity as a lens for connecting women and men being positioned differently by dominant discourse. Gender stereotyping against women's careers continues to erect barriers against women despite the growing need for diversity and international talent in organizations (Volpe & Murphy, 2011). Grissom, Nicholson-Crotty, and Keiser (2012) addressed the understanding of gender bias and lack of equal representation in management levels as a result of differences in women and men. Such differences in communication can generate conflict in power within the hierarchy of leadership discourse (Isaac & Griffin, 2015). More needs to be known about communication strategies and women's perception of its effectiveness on leadership behaviors of women who are successful in leadership positions or those aspiring to move upward in organizations (Powell, Butterfield, & Parent, 2002).

Discourse, in the traditional view, is seen as a form of spoken dialogue (J. C. H. Mills & Mills, 2017; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975). Research has been conducted highlighting the increasing significance of discourse in organizations and outlining ways in which discourse contributes to the study and understanding of organizations (Hardy, Palmer, & Phillips, 2000; Jo &

5

Parks, 2016; Sever, 2018). There has been a growing interest in discourse in organizations since the early 1990's (Drew & Heritage, 1992; Jo & Parks, 2016). Until recently, literature has focused on specific organizational settings, emanating from outside of the field of organizational theory (Marin, 2015). Bargiella-Chiappini, Nickerson, and Planken (2013) researched how individuals use spoken language and writing in organizations to get work done and achieve organizational and personal goals. The authors also addressed the many factors that contribute to language usage in organizations (Bargiella-Chiappini, Nickerson, & Planken, 2013). Only in the last few years have theorists and management begun to show interest in discourse and females' perception of discourse in organizational culture, which has led to a discernible increase in organizations' discursively, based studies (Drew & Heritage, 1992; Greyling, 2018). Greyling (2018) and Madlock (2012) offered support that communication satisfaction and power are directly related to organizational culture.

The study of discourse, within itself, is not new. Discourse is defined as patterns formed by actions, both verbal and non-verbal, which forms and builds meaning shared over time and across space (Brewis & Linstead, 2009; Foucault & Gordon, 1980; Huang, 2018). Only in the last decade have theorists become interested in discursively based studies relevant to women and their perception of discourse effectiveness in organizations. Although the importance of discourse in organizations has gained ground steadily concerning females, studies are lacking concentration on the discursive construction of females' perception in a male-dominated society. The discursive construction of females' perception is necessary to bring awareness of female discourse as being significant for organizations, as well for females to learn, adapt, and evolve (Lerner, 1979; Marin, 2015).

6

The organization science field lacks examinations of communication processes and how they intertwine with social dynamics (Greyling, 2018; Oswick, Keenoy, Grant, & Marshak, 2008; Uhl-Bien, 2006). Discourse, defined by Vicente and Martinez-Manrique (2011), is a conscious process of communication and cognitive functions, which clarify one's thinking, planning, decision- making, and identity construction. Grant and Marshak (2011) and Marshak and Grant (2008) termed discourse in organizations as the role of language, the creation of relationships, and meaning at intersections of discourse, gender, and power. Although Laclau and Mouffe's (1987) discourse theory utilized by management researchers in constructing an analysis of language/discourse and its meaning in organizational phenomena, research to expand the knowledge of understanding the effectiveness of discourse as perceived by females (Greyling, 2018; Phillips & Oswick, 2012) is necessary. Discourse, as the role of language in organizations, may reinforce the reasoning of underrepresentation of women in traditionally male-dominated organizations (Menegatti & Rubini, 2017). Further research will benefit how women deal with established forces and bring together different discourse in intersectionality (Corlett & Marvin, 2014) and experiences of women whose voices have subsumed due to their gender.

Need for the Study

The understanding of gender, discourse, and power in organizational settings is important. Discourse, which is a social action, both verbal and non-verbal, constructs the social worlds of organizations. Current studies have addressed the lack of underrepresentation of women in management levels and gender bias as a result of differences in communication styles between men and women (Grissom et al., 2012). Such discourse differences generate conflict in power within the hierarchy of leadership discourse (Isaac & Griffin, 2015).

7

Freire (1973) argued that an individual's perspectives could increase awareness of social issues, breaking a culture of silence. Women's dialogue about their everyday experiences in male-dominated organizations can greatly impact gender distribution. A woman's rational, thinking process, and systemic ways of communication are crucial to the survival of organizations (Burgess & Tharenous, 2002; Greyling, 2018; Lopez-Fernandez, Martin-Alcazar, & Romero-Fernandez, 2009). Identifying and eliminating barriers that women perceive as especially challenging in discourse and gender discrepancies is essential to understand the features of the organizational climate that are objectionable and unwelcoming to women. Research is lacking regarding communication styles, behaviors, and women's perception of the effectiveness of discourse. The approach and design of a generic qualitative methodology, best suited for this study, provides a more personal encounter involving the research participants in their experiences (Amon, 2017). Qualitative research provides a unique opportunity to synthesize the complex experiences of women in organizations by identifying the common themes that are underlying in their career narratives (Amon, 2017).

Statement of the Problem

Attempts to pinpoint the barriers of gender, discourse, and power, the number of women in leadership remains minimal in organizations (Catalyst, 2009). Research by Calas, Smircich, and Holvino (2014) and Sheridan (2007) on discourse, gender, and power indicate males dominate positions of power in organizational structures with the organizational discourse hallmark being masculine rationality (Ionescu, 2012). Knowledge is lacking about the effectiveness and its perception of discourse as perceived by women in organizational structures and how it provides insight into the complex ways that gender impacts management practices (Airo, Rasila, & Nenonen, 2012). Discourse, according to Isaac and Griffin (2015) constructs understanding in

8

creating gender-boundaries. As women continue to break traditional boundaries in male management organizations, differences in discourse boundaries become blurred, becoming more fluid and negotiable and can intersect and merge (Isaac & Griffin, 2015). Literature exists on discourse and its structure in organizations; however, the interest in the perception of discourse effectiveness in management relative to power in organizations is missing in current research. This study seeks to address the gap in the current literature by examining the different aspects of women's perception of the effectiveness of discourse in areas of gender and power, rather than as it pertains to the bearing on organizational performance.

Purpose of the Study

The study intended to provide a thorough understanding of interactions and connections between the effectiveness of discourse, power, and gender by women in management positions. The study sought to reveal implications and the effects of discourse to include women's identity as a member of an organization. The study contributed to existing literature. It provided additional understanding of the relationship between organizational discourse and women's experience of the glass ceiling, which is an intangible barrier based on an organizational bias that prevents qualified women and minorities from advancing upward in organizations (U.S. Department of Labor, 1991). The glass ceiling involves issues of a gender stereotype, negative attitude, formal networking, exclusions, double standards, and lack of work-related assistance (Amon, 2017).

Increased awareness of women's ongoing subordination is needed to help pave the way to the individual, organizational, and social change (Amon, 2017). Sullivan and McCarthy (2008) stated that masculine behaviors and discourse are stereotypically effective for management positions. Management theories have focused primarily on management, giving less attention to discourse effectiveness between male and female and interactions in organizational settings. Few

9

studies have concentrated on the discursive construction of female's perception in male-dominated workplaces.

Significance of the Study

Hujala and Rissanen (2012) stated that there is a need for understanding the discursive perspectives of females in male-dominated societies. One of the biggest challenges in male-dominated fields is combating perceptions of discourse between men and women. The study expanded current knowledge through women's perception of the effectiveness of discourse relevant to power and gender while gaining insight into the advantages and disadvantages when navigating career paths. The study examined factors women encounter that affect their power and place in organizations. The study uncovered the effects of discourse and its implications along with female's identities as members of organizational social settings. The study contributed to a gap in the knowledge from multiple views of diverse voices and discursive perspectives, which question traditional approaches of upward mobility in organizations.

The study focused on participants that provided narratives of their experiences of discourse in organizations, thus exploring the necessary components to gender equality advancement in organizations and society. The study was beneficial in expanding scholarly knowledge to understanding discourse and its effectiveness as perceived by females in organizations. The study encourages understanding of how women deal with established forces.

This study was beneficial in helping increase awareness toward equality and diversity in organizations and society. From a psychological perspective, this study gathered information about the perceptions and what may govern them, which can damage or enhance organizational diversity and society. Also, this study allowed for an understanding of perspectives of the underrepresented groups in organizations, thus helping shape the social world and social worlds of

10

relationships. By adding to the body of knowledge and addressing the gap in the literature regarding women's perception of the effectiveness of discourse in upward mobility in organizations, this study speaks to the millions of women desiring promotion equality and diversity in the workplace.

<div align="center">**Research Question**</div>

The research question was, How do women perceive the effectiveness of discourse as they transition from employee to management status? This question was designed to address how women, in their own experiences, perceive the effectiveness of dialogue between males and females when women are aspiring to move upward in organizations. The question was created to aid the researcher in determining the pressing challenges that females endure during their transition period. Semi-structured questions were designed for females to articulate how they experienced discourse to include actual events and how they perceived them by conveying them in narratives.

<div align="center">**Definition of Terms**</div>

The following definition of terms is provided to facilitate the understanding of the context of this study on women's perception of the effectiveness of discourse when aspiring to move upward in organizations.

Communication. "The dynamic, situated, embodied, and contested process of creating systems of gendered meanings and identities by invoking, articulating, and/or transforming available discourses" (Ashcraft & Mumby, 2004, p. 116); shaping social reality; the ongoing of social construction of meaning; a two-way process of involving the exchange of ideas (Deetz, 2005).

Agarwal and Garg (2012) noted communication as being like a dance in some way; "each partner plays off the other, basing his or her steps on the other person's, while simultaneously

<div align="center">11</div>

maintaining a certain amount of individuality" (p. 42); traditionally defined as the ways in which individuals affect others and ways individuals are affected by others (Hardin & Banaji, 1991). Simply said, communication is the exchange and creation of meaning (Nordquist, 2019).

Communicology. The science that studies all forms of discourse using a comprehensive approach. This encompasses communication as not only speech (verbal), but includes non-verbal messages from gestures, math, media, art, and social interactions to information theory (Catt, 2010; Catt & Ericher-Catt, 2010; Lanigan, 2010).

Communication style. The way individuals share information with others, characterized by the way individuals appear in communication, how individuals intend to relate to those they communicate with, and how their messages are interpreted (Greyling, 2018; Snyder & Morris, 1984).

Culture. The distinctive patterns of ideas, beliefs, and norms in which the way life relates to a society or a group within a society (Reeves & Baden, 2000).

Discourse. Verbal and non-verbal communication methods (Vaara, Kleymann, & Seristo, 2004); "special ways of speaking and constructing social reality" (Vaara et al., 2004, p. 4); shapes social interactions and constructs identities in and through talk (Warriner & Anderson, 2017).

Gender. The socially determined idea and practices of what it is to be female or male (Reeves & Baden, 2000).

Gender boundaries. The psychosocial interface between typically male and female activities and roles (Isaac & Griffin, 2015; Linstead & Brewis, 2004).

Gender stereotyping. The ubiquity of unconsciousness regarding the behaviors and traits associated with male or female (Schein, 2001).

12

Glass ceiling. Artificial unbreachable barriers that deny women and minorities the opportunity to rise to the upper levels of the corporate ladder, regardless of qualifications or achievements (The U. S. Federal Glass Ceiling Commission, 1995).

Non-verbal communication. Also known as language; conveying meaning in the form of non-word messages, which include gestures, posture, facial expressions, eye contact, chronemics, and haptics (Agarwal & Garg, 2012).

Perception. Recognition and interpretation of sensory information and how one responds to the information; allowing sensory information to create something meaningful (Nugent, 2013).

Semi-structured interview questions. A set of structural questions combined with open-end questions, which gives the responder complete freedom to respond (Marshall & Rossman, 2012).

Verbal communication. Sharing information between individuals in the form of speaking, writing, and sign language (Egolf & Chester, 2013).

Research Design

A generic qualitative study, analyzing women's narratives of experiences of how they perceive the effectiveness of discourse, was the design for this study. Narrative inquiry is a methodological approach and applies to issues surrounding voices and their representation (Byrne, 2017). Lincoln (2005) and Marshall and Rossman (2012) explained that narrative inquiry views life experiences holistically, focusing on different understandings of the reality of discourse during the process, and values language that expresses feelings and navigates how the interviews construct meaning. Thomas (2012) explained narrative inquiry as views through interpretive lenses with theoretically diverse approaches that are inspired by human experience in which individuals lead storied lives individually and socially. Caine, Estefan, and Clandinin (2013) addressed narrative inquiry as shared interest through interviews of specific aspects of individuals'

13

lives that views different conversations in specific organizational contexts. The narrative inquiry must view experiences of individuals narratively and consider the artistry of and within the experiences as they overlap stories bringing individuals together in research relationships (Byrne, 2017). A great deal of trust and openness is necessary between the researcher and the study's participants during narrative inquiries for the study participants to be open, sharing their experiences. Emotions, thoughts, and interpretations are expressed in narrative inquiry and highlight the uniqueness of individual actions and events (Caine et al., 2013). As a process entering into the lives of individual, narrative inquiry requires high levels of ethical engagement (Kupers, 2013).

The critical characteristic of narrative inquiry is due to "its focus on the individual rather than on the social context" (Marshall & Rossman, 2012, p.153). Although the narrative inquiry is relatively new to social sciences, it is valuable to the expression of feelings in the language (Marshall & Rossman, 2012). Eisner (1988), Grumet (1988), and Riessman (1993) expanded the discussion on narrative inquiry by explaining the narrative is especially useful in developing critical and feminist theory. Further, Elliott (2005) stated that narrative inquiry is significant when exploring social identity issues, social change issues, and participants' experiences in the phenomena. Also, Pitre, Raine, Kushner, and Hagadoren (2013) noted that identities are inextricably linked with experiences in particular places or place with experiences told in stories.

The study's research question addressed how women perceive discourse effectiveness in the work place. The theoretical framework derived from the interpretive lens, drawing on critical theory, social constructionism, and feminist critical discourse theory aided the researcher in determining challenges endured by females when moving upward in organizations. Therefore, this

14

theoretical framework contributed to understanding women's perception when engaging in discourse and dealing with established forces in organizations.

The purpose of the current study was to explore discourse in male-dominated organizations and to determine how women perceive its effectiveness. The researcher concluded that a generic qualitative approach would allow for the data to be gathered through the voices of the participants, telling their stories, and interpreting their reality. This selected research design allowed the researcher to draw connections between gender and organizational discourse, from a female perspective of its effectiveness, lacking in the literature (Marshall & Rossman, 2012). Although there are many useful and flexible methods for exploring the connections of gender, power, and organizational discourse (Thompson, Rickett, & Day, 2018), O'Reilly and Parker (2012) agreed that a generic approach is the best method as an analytical approach to capture gender and power connections within organization and social relations. Organizational power and gender asymmetries between men and women are perplexedly intertwined with social identities and vary across culture (Lazar, 2013; Sever, 2016). There is much need to understand discursive interaction in sustaining gender hierarchically in social worlds (Lazar, 2010; Lazar, 2014).

<h2 style="text-align:center">Assumptions and Limitations</h2>

Assumptions

As the researcher, the assumption was that men and women communicate in disparate manners. Although the researcher had no theoretical assumptions, application of any theories on discourse, gender, and power could have negatively impacted the study results and colored the researcher's approach. One assumption is that gender biases are deeply rooted in language, which is something that constitutes ones' identity. In language, hidden meanings can lead to how one perceives its effectiveness.

15

From a methodological approach, this qualitative study was to understand the issue of discourse effectiveness from a women's perspective and not from numerical analysis. This assumption from a methodological approach allowed women to articulate their experiences with discourse in a gender-dominated society. It was also assumed that during the interview answers to the questions were credibable.

Limitations

As with all studies, there were limitations. The study focused on the experiences of women in management and those aspiring to move upward into management. The study was small, with only thirteen women interviewed from a particular geographical area.

Organization of the Remainder of the Study

This research study includes five chapters. Chapter 1 provides background and justification while identifying the study questions, definitions, and the methodology for the study. The researcher's assumptions were noted, and the limitations of the study were identified. Chapter 2 provides a review of the literature relevant in the areas of discourse, gender, and power in a gender dominated society. The literature review identifies the gaps in the literature. Chapter 3 describes the qualitative research design, and the detailed description of the participants in the study to include the qualifications of the participants, methods of recruiting the participants along with anonymity and confidential issues. Data collection is addressed, followed by discussions of the data analysis and its methods. Chapter 4 provides the results of the study, including the themes that emerged from the data. Chapter 5 contains the discussion and conclusions of the study, implications, and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The research question for this study, How do women perceive the effectiveness of discourse as they transition from employee to management status? established the requirements that guided the research and the literature review. This chapter presents a literature review on the topic of gender barriers embedded in organizations and how women experience these barriers relevant to discourse. Critical theory, social constructionism, and feminist critical discourse analysis aided the researcher in exploring such barriers. The literature review is organized to understand discourse, gender, and power in male dominated work places and the concepts involved. The research has documented the barriers and challenges that women experience in discourse when aspiring to management status.

Methods of Searching

A literature review aids in understanding the depth and breadth of relevant literature already accomplished on a specific topic (Aveyard, 2010). Therefore, gaps in specific topics were determined that needed further study. A literature review requires a systematic approach to search for evidence that can help reduce bias for the researcher (Booth, Sutton, & Papaioannou, 2016). Of paramount importance in research is understanding the difference between methods and methodology. Method is a component of research, a tool, for example, such as interviews in qualitative research (Choy, 2014). The justification for using a particular research method is methodology. To understand the motivation and women's perception of the effectiveness of discourse in organizations, the researcher chose a qualitative method. Having a clear idea of methods and methodology for research made the task of searching the literature for this literature

review straightforward allowing the targeting of studies for the research topic and critique of the approach (*i.e*., the method used) to studies similar to the topic.

The availability of research documenting and presenting the rationale for the difficulties of women's experiences in discourse is rich. There is an enormous selection of material from which to choose on discourse, gender, and power. There are references from journal articles that lead to the possibilities of numerous other articles, journals, and relevant resources on the research topic. However, there is little research on women's perception of the effectiveness of discourse in male-dominated organizations.

The method of researching sources used for the literature review began with an exploration of gender in organizations and the social construction of the doing gender concept in organizations. This literature addresses how women in the workplace face gender barriers and how they compare to men in terms of discourse and power. Further research addresses the difficulties that women encounter in advancement in the workplace compared to men (Mattis, 2001; Wood, 2008). Some studies address initiatives that are instrumental in promoting women in the workplace (Hopfl & Matila, 2007; Voss & Speere, 2014). Lacking in the literature is the voice of women in response to these initiatives, which are efforts designed to identify and resolve gender issues.

 Literature is available on the differences in the gender discourse/language barriers in the workplace, but little is available documenting how women experience and perceive this. Although there is little literature available on the topic of this current study, much of the literature could be applied and, in doing so, made meaningful contributions to the body of knowledge in this study. The literature review is organized to review and explore the theoretical foundation of the study. By combining terms, such as gender, discourse, and power with discursive processes and social construction of reality across social domains, research was conducted utilizing journal articles in

18

management, psychology databases, sociology, communication textbooks, and scholarly articles. Also utilized were peer review articles on management, power, gender, communication, discursive analysis, and sociology. Psychology journals' databases also served as a method of searching sources for the literature review. This method of research linked the broad focus of language/discourse, gender, and power for the study.

Conceptual Framework for the Study

The conception of this study was to explore the differences in the discourse between men and women in organizations and how women perceive its effectiveness as they aspire to move upward in organizational levels. Human discourse is interactive in configuring organizational power, identities, and relationships (Champagne, 2009). According to Ng and Deng (2017), discourse reveals power and reflects power. Further, the authors, Ng and Deng (2017), stated that language/discourse is for power and communication and the language that an individual uses is influential in intergroup and interpersonal contexts. It is important to form a basis for understanding the current state of women in organizations by first examining feminist critical discourse analysis, social constructionism, and critical communication theory to understand women being under-represented in management positions. See Figure 1 for the theoretical framework.

Feminist critical analysis is to advance a rich and nuanced understanding of the complex workings of power and ideology in discourse in sustaining hierarchically gendered social arrangements (Walton, 2014). Feminist critical discourse analysis focuses on social justice and transformation of gender and contributes to the growing body of feminist discourse literature. Feminist critical discourse analysis is a useful and flexible method when exploring identity and power (Thompson, Rickett, & Day, 2018). By applying the feminist critical discourse analysis in

19

the study, it provides a means of difficulties and possibilities in the lives of women in the workplace (Gatenby & Hume, 2004; Lazar, 2007).

A key issue to the lack of female representation in management levels in organizations is the misunderstanding and undervaluing of conversational and communication styles as perceived through social reality (Gatenby & Hume, 2004). Adesaogun, Flottemesch, and Ibrahim-DeVries (2015) claim that the level of underrepresentation of females in management is a result of communication barriers creating a non-cohesive environment. Research articulates how social established beliefs regarding communication of genders are embedded and considered as part of organizational structures (Seo, Huang, & Han, 2017). Organizations must consider fostering organizational cultures that encourage the understanding of the gendering discourse; communication is a key barrier (Wolfram & Gratton, 2014). The results of non-fostered organizational cultures are deterrence of females from attaining management positions (Metz & Kulik, 2014; Seo et al., 2017). For women's representation in management levels to be equal to men, one must uncover and understand discourse gendering. Therefore, clarity about women's experiences as to how effective their language is perceived and "discursive phenomena" (Marshall & Grant, 2008, p. 34) was explored to understand the study's identified problem.

Social constructionism is based on the belief that the social world is constructed by individuals through their social practices (Cassell & Symon, 2000), rather than being a fixed entity (Cohen, Duberly, & Mallon, 2004). Social constructionism challenges "assumptions about truth, neutrality, and objectivity, as well as the primacy of the individual as the unit of analysis for generating knowledge" (Weenink & Bridgman, 2017, p. 92), when viewed through the constructionist lens. Since the 1980s, social constructionism has turned attention to the

20

constructive force of discourse and language (Burr, 2018), viewing knowledge as being

constructed rather than created (Andrews, 2012), where meaning is shared.
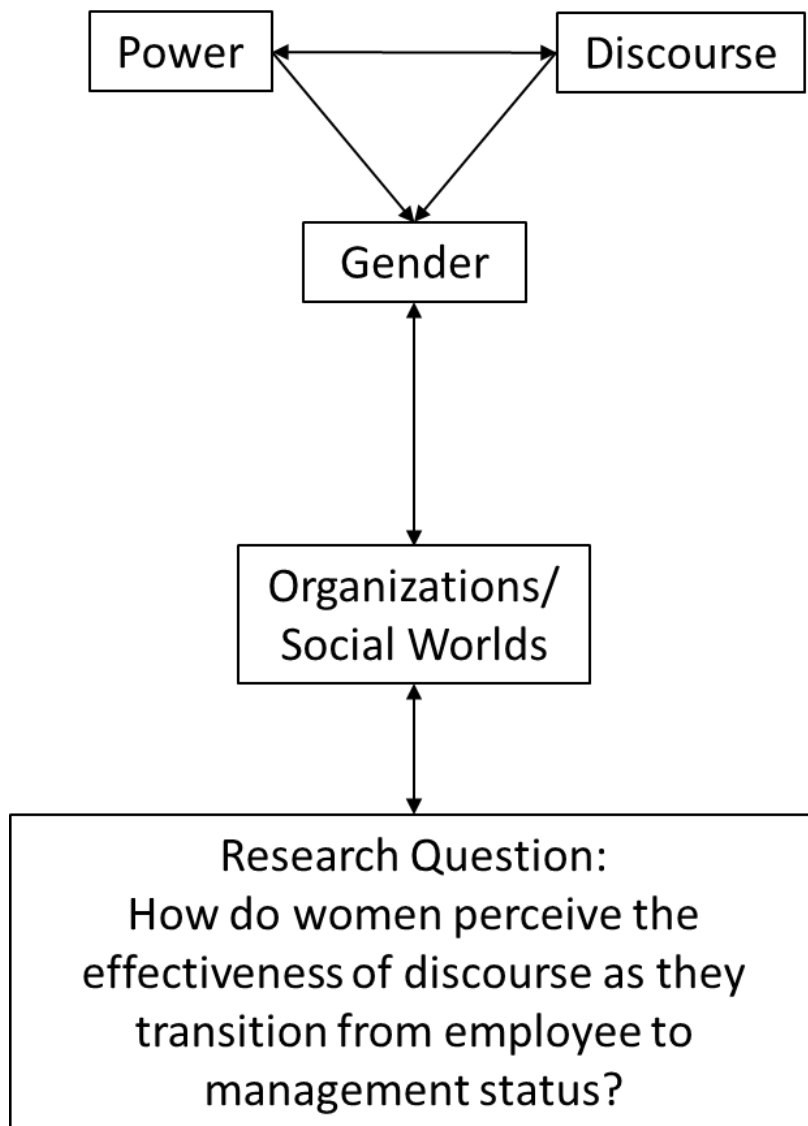
Figure 1. Theoretical framework for the study.

Elder-Vass (2012) addressed de Beauvoir's (1997) social construction of gender to show when constructing something socially and understanding it, by constructing it differently, change can begin. Crotty (1998) stated, "all meaningful reality, precisely as meaningful reality, is socially constructed" (p. 55), and "social constructionism is at once realist and relativist" (p. 63). From an ontologically perspective, social construction is how a shared language is created and shaped, specifically through perceptions and experiences (Burr, 2018; Burr & Dick, 2017; Crotty, 1998). Oakley (1974) sagely advised that "a way of seeing is a way of not seeing" (p.27). The author further expanded that interaction is natural or social, and meaning arises "in and out of the interactive human community" (Oakley, 1974, p. 27).

Hujala and Rissanen (2011) stated that the essence of social constructionism is in the status of language and discourse. Language creates and constructs the reality of the social world, not reflecting the world as it is (Berger & Luckmann, 1967), buas it's perception by human beings, such as feelings, values, and intentions which are not described only by language (Alvesson & Karreman, 2002).

The critical theory seeks to balance organization and human interests and can be used to diagnose distorted decision making of elements of organizational culture: workplace language, information rituals, and stories (Caza & Carroll, 2012; Klikauer, 2015; Deetz, 2005). Hassard, Hyde, Cox, Granter, and McCann (2017) offer critical theory as the interpretation of:

> Social action and the symbols of society in order to understand the ways in which social groups are ideologically dominated, For critical theory, 'knowledge is power'- it asks questions about the ways in which competing interests clash and the manner in which conflicts are resolved in favour of particular groups. (p. 572)

22

Therefore, communication is a major focus of critical theory (Hassard et al., 2017). Fay (1987) asserted that critical concerns are empowering humans to transcend constraints that may be placed on them by gender, class, and race. According to Kincheloe and McLaren (2002), critical theory seeks not to reproduce society but to understand and change society, stimulating change for the better (Koepnick, 2016), both constructive and descriptive in its theoretical intent. Critical theory aims to transform an existing society into a more humane structure (Koepnick, 2016).

The theoretical orientation for this study derives from interpretive lenses drawn on feminist critical analysis, social constructionism, and critical theory. As a form of feminist interpretive inquiry, feminist critical discourse shows how discourse is or is not in alignment with feminist values and practices (Richards & Schmidt, 2013). From a feminist critical discourse perspective, the concept of gender is understanding a structure that divides individuals into two classes, male and female on a hierarchical relation in which men are dominant, and women are subordinate (Ely & Padavic, 2007; Foucault, 1990). Social constructionism supports critical feminist qualitative research in that it questions tradition and different ways individuals and the world around individuals (Andrews, 2012; Burr, 2018). Women are just different from men, noting that women's underrepresentation in management positions is a result of their discourse effectiveness. For the study, critical theory has been narrowed to "oppressive power and its ability to produce inequalities and human suffering" (Kincheloe & McLaren, 2002, p. 287).

Discussions of feminist discourse, social constructionism, and critical theory were not possible without reference to discourse, gender, and power and vice versa. This theoretical framework helps to guide the researcher in the study as well as offer an internally coherent and intellectually comprehensive rigor perspective from which qualitative research is successfully framed.

23

Review of the Literature

Research on the topic of women's perception of effective discourse in management is limited. The majority of the literature available is related to power, gender, and leadership differences in the workplace. This study explored and identified the experiences of women's perception of the effectiveness of discourse when transitioning to management status; the research question, How do women perceive the effectiveness of discourse as they transition from employee to management status? Initially, the theory was that women's barriers that hindered advancement in the workplace were a result of take-for-granted dominance in discourses in organizational societies. The literature review is organized according to discourse, gender, and power. Literature in the three major areas, feminist critical discourse, social constructionism, and critical theory, are reviewed. See Figure 2 for the conceptual frames for the literature review.

Theories suggest that women are predisposed genetically to roles that ascribe traditionally to women (Udry, 2000). Udry (2000) further expands on how socialization and environment shape discourse and gendered behavior and how realities are constituted through language. Language/discourse is critical, telling how individuals see the world and what to see in it, creating the natures that are known (Anderson, 2000). Characterized by Barge (2014), the concept of discourse/language and its perceptions and its context is determined by local conditions and individuals' interactions with other enduring discourses. Realities and its elements are knowable, and its elements are described, replicable, discovered, and used by human beings (Anderson, 2012; Barge, 2014).

24
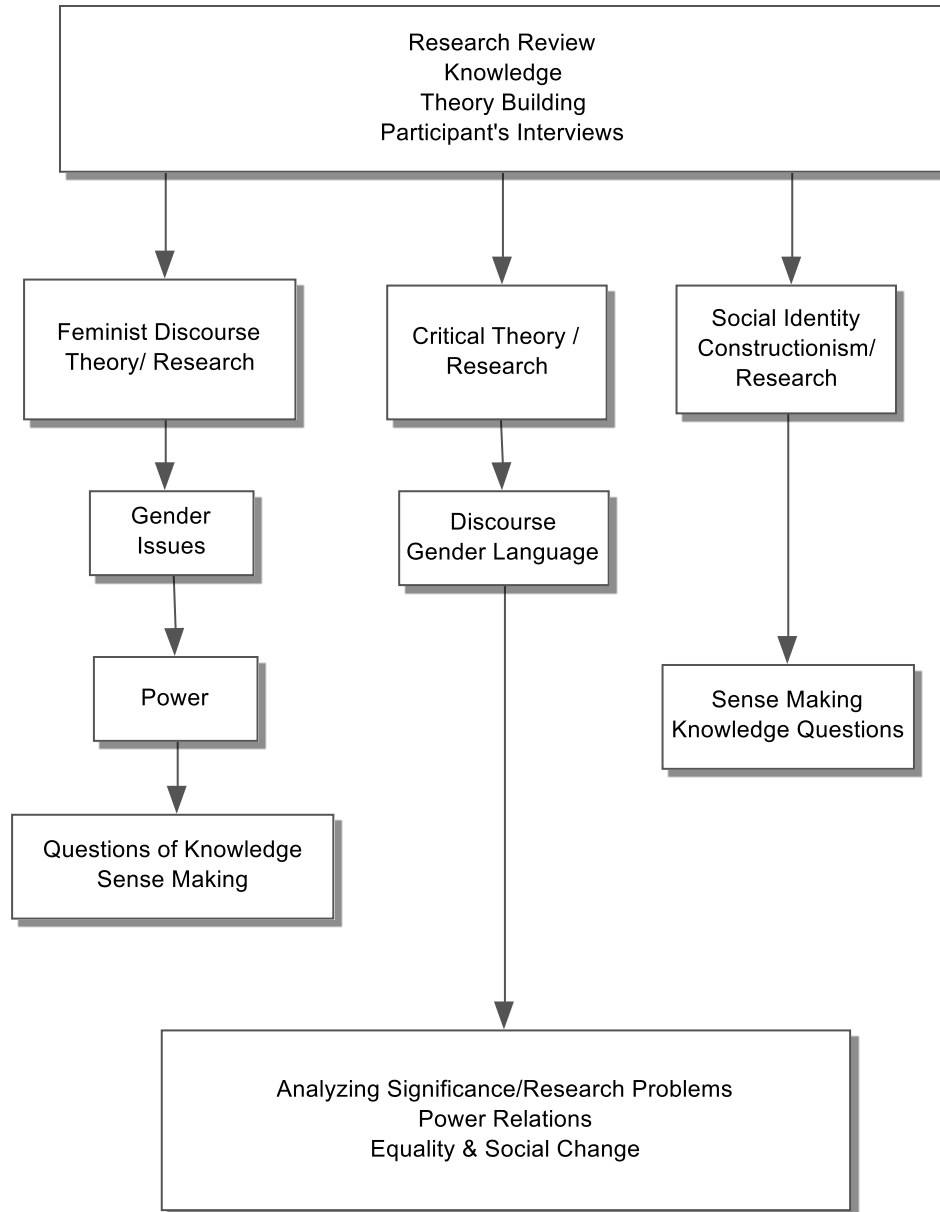
Figure 2. Conceptual framework for the literature review.

Discourse

Literature offers numerous definitions of discourse (Mills, 2004). Concentration on

Foucault's (1972) essential understanding, embodied in the concept of discourse, is his

understanding of the relationship between discourse and reality. A study by Hanmrin (2016)

concluded that discourse is constructed through a multitude of interfluences, therefore, generating meanings to texts (Caidor & Cooren, 2019). In his works, Foucault (1972) tries to determine how these two elements combine precisely. As Hekman (2009) ascribed that most importantly, Foucault's (1972) method "entails that no single element in combination has priority" (p. 441). Dreyfus and Rabinow (1982) gave the argument that Foucault is "always interested not just in the discourse, but in discursive practices, how discourses are used and what role they play in society" (p. xxv). Foucault's strongest element, as a theorist of discursive and non-discursive, is his concern with power and the discourse of power and that power is everywhere (Hekman, 2009).

Reflecting on Foucault's (1972) work, discourse can be defined as verbal and non-verbal patterns of social actions, shaping shared meaning structured across space and time. Vaara, Kleymanm, and Seristo (2004) described discourse as communication styles, perceptions, values, and beliefs, as well as ways of acting. Not only does discourse shape ways of speaking about the subject matter, it "shapes the real of what is normal, natural, and true" (Karreman, 2014, p. 205). Depending on who is asked, discourse can mean interaction linguistically, talk, text in any form, articulating exchange on a particular matter, and systems of ideas defined (Ravazzani & Maier, 2017). Discourse also forms identities in another dimension of social life (Magalhaes, 2005), being a determinant power that is influential in defining social reality (Heracleous, 2006a). From a collaborative approach, it draws on interpretative beliefs of reality and language coordinated in behavior and philosophies challenging knowledge (Heracleous, 2006b). Seminal works of Kirschenbaum and Henderson (1989) noted that influences included social construction, contemporary interpreting hermeneutics, and narrative theory, all of which are conceptualizations of human beings in their realities

26

Foucault's (1972) analysis of discourse asserts that reality is constructed entirely through through social enteractions; however, Reese (2000) suggests that this focus could constrain social action. Karreman (2014) and Reed (2000) argued that while discourses are important, they operate within structures that constitute natural and social reality while shaping truths. Critical theorists would oppose and warn against post-moderist conotations suggesting that all discourses could be equal when their thought would be that certain discourse types are more powerful than others (Fairclough, 2003). Fairclough (2003) affirmed that interpretation could be an ongoing hegemonic struggle.

Gergen (1995) argued that conceptually discourse is not reflective of practice, but a mutual interchange of how one speaks, therefore, discourses and discursive practices. From a social constructionist perspective, Karreman (2014) and Ruona and Lynham (2004) inked the importance of conversations to constructing common truths to what is false and what is the truth. From an ontological perspective, Beck, Dumay, and Frost (2017) agreed with Torraco's (2004) argument that understanding of how individuals make sense of the social world in everyday lives offers "insight as for how social experience is created and given meaning" (p. 172). From his historical research, Torraco (2004) attempted to persuade how this may have been and could still be.

Through feminist lenses, Foucault's (1972) work has been criticized for its lack of attention to the gendering of intrinsicality (Butler, 1990; Sawicki, 1994). Foucault's (1972) theories of power and knowledge for feminists were absent in any consideration of gender (Flax, 1990; Sawicki, 1994). Therefore, the lack of attention to gender has led to changes of androcentrism by feminists Ozkazanc-Pan (2012). Because of Foucault's (1972) earlier work on inattention to gender and his later work explicitly focusing on the male subject, feminists want resistance to male bias, which "ignores inequalities of gender and class" (McLaren, 1997, p. 1997). McLaren (1997)

27

suggested that the relationship between Foucault and feminism and the struggle in power relationships is of great concern in social worlds.

Mills (2004) acknowledged that Foucault's (1972) discourse is useful for women's discourse, but he must adjust his ideas to it. Feminist researchers, expanding on Mills (2004), noted that Foucault's (1972) discourse addresses the problems, but does not provide a solution. Sarup (1989) criticized Foucault as not explaining where the resistance to power comes. The advantage of Foucault's (1972) discourse is that gender, race, or class are not dominant in explaining oppression (Mills, 2004). Greyling (2018) and Weedon (2008) expand on this, saying that the oppression of individuals sometimes can be hidden in discourse. Foucault's (1972) discourse aids in realizing that individuals have different access to discourse, which can be taken as the root of inequality (Weedon, 2008).

Fairclough's (2000) conceptualization of discourse distinguished between power in and behind discourse when identifying that "the whole social order of discourse is put together and held together as a hidden effect of power" (p. 46) when ideologically working through language (Luthra & Dahiya, 2015). Patterson (1997) and Pennycock (1994) questioned this ideological power. Fairclough's (2000) assumption was that discourse/language idealistically carry power relations. Regarding organizations, power and its relations are the heart of the organizational policy process, and it matters to implementation and organizational policy outcomes (Erasmus & Gilson, 2008). Patterson (1997) pointed out that the idea to uncover what is hidden behind discourse relevant to power, revealing the truth of power relations and contradicts the constructed nature of reality, can be problematic.

Fairclough (2000) defined discourse as language being "social practice determined by social structures" (p. 14), generally used in designating forms of patterns of language and habits

28

which produce historical and cultural meaning (Agarwal, 2016). Discourse references how individuals think and resonate their beliefs, values, and ideas (Agarwal, 2016). Fairclough (2000) argued that his works on the power of discourse provided a better grounding than Foucault when it comes to the analysis of social reality (Agarwal, 2016). Fairclough set forth that language and society have a relationship that is dialectic with each other therefore; significantly shaping the other (Agarwal, 2016). Halliday's (1985) work in linguistics influenced Fairclough's (1992) theory of discourse. Halliday's (1985) definition of language is how individuals construct and communicate meaning. Taking in Halliday's (1985) account, Fairclough criticized that language ideology is too narrowly conceived and ignores significant aspects of narrative structure (Agarwal, 2016). The consciousness of language ideology and social constructs is supported by the works of many theories, such as writing together and separately. Fairclough (1992), van Dijk (1997), Clark and Ivanic (1999), and Bakhtin (2006) bridged the gap between the consciousness of language ideology and social constructs (Agarwal, 2016).

Researchers share an opinion that discourse is something one does and not something one is only subject to (Greyling, 2018; Mills, 2004). Chong and Druckman (2007) stated that discourse organizes everyday reality by providing meaning to unfolding events and promotes particular definitions of interpretations of issues. The effectiveness of discourse in interpretations resides in the ability to orchestrate efforts in such a way that results are purposefully achievable, which, according to Chong and Druckman (2007), is never simple or rarely pure.

Discourse has its merits and weaknesses. Awareness of discourse can be instrumental in making judgments and assessing how it affects individuals and organizational culture (Western, 2008). Collectively, discourse can be transformed along with the power and social relations that emanate from it. Thus, through social construction, social change occurs (Western, 2008).

29

Increasingly, discourse has become a more conforming word rather than the word language in the empirical investigation in social science research (Alvesson & Karreman, 2002).

Organizational Discourse

Organizational discourse involves the notion of power through narratives, myths, and silence (Boje, Oswick, & Ford, 2004). For Sillince (2007), "organizational discourse has very little meaning outside of its context" (p. 363). Because discourse gains meaning within the interaction of its usages, organizational discourse is situational (Hardy, Palmer, Phillips, 2000; Heracleous, 2002; Sillince, 2002). More precisely, organizational discourse allows organizations to create a more diverse environment (Caidor & Cooren, 2019) and focus on best practices and reduces societal biases (Nishii, Khattab, Shemla, & Paluch, 2018). Organizational discourse influences organizational creativity. It also works to understand what either enhances organizational creativity or inhibits influences (Blomberg, Kallio, & Pohjanpaa, 2017). There must be an understanding of the multitude of voices as they relate to each other to understand organizational discourse (Torp, 2015; Turner, 2007). Understanding this approach acknowledges multiple and competing views of discourse and meanings that permeate society (Turner, 2007). Turner (2007) averred that discourse is what one does and who one is, which is process and product.

Organizational functioning and discourse are basic to the social construction of reality (Grant et al., 2001; Heracleous, 2006a; Marshak, Keenoy, Oswick, & Grant, 2000). Mumby (2012) and Westwood and Linstead (2004) viewed the organization as constituted in discourse or as a text focusing on internal and external relationship building by exchanging information through writing and speaking. Boden (1994), Taylor and Robichaud (2004), and Weick (1995) contend that discourse in the form of conversation is where organizing occurs, where organizational

30

individuals relate to each other through a common object of concern in sense-making. Struggles around sense-making are played out in organizations where it is created and contested through discourse interaction among organizational members with divergent interests (Lowe, Rod, Hwang, 2016). Expanding on these authors view, Cooren (2000) explains that conversation, in effect is "to establish a basis of action and to maintain the coordination of members of the organization in responding to a mixed material and social environment" (p. 221). From this perspective, text intertwines the role of discourse and human actions (Mumby, 2012; Westwood & Linstead, 2004). In the words of Fairhurst and Putnam (2014), "discourse accomplishes communication" (p. 271) within organizational members.

The study of organizational discourse has increased in popularity with organization discourse analysts with a concentration on organization aspect rather than the previous concern with a discursive aspect of organizations (Marin, 2015). Research studies have shown that discourse is central to the construction of social reality (Huang, 2018). Therefore, discourse affects, influences, and shapes behaviors and attitudes in organizational groups/members (Huang, 2018). Marin (2015) examines organizational discourse within organizations as ways in which organization individuals interact with each other through discursive properties. The complexity of examining discourse, Marin (2015) contends the following:

> Issues of power status, affection, and affiliation are always resolved through the process
> of interaction based on features like speaking in turn, domination of conversation and
> the choices of language that capture the attention, classify and indicate similarity or
> difference, take action. (p. 109)

Thus, organizational progress and process become established through discourse properties.

31

Johns (1998) shared his belief that "man is a social being because he can only live together with his peers" (p. 4). From Johns' (1998) belief, Marin (2015) was left with the definition of social organizations as "social entities designed to achieve common goals through group effort" (p. 109). Therefore, the association between both individuals and structure and individuals and purpose is distinct in organization formation. The organizational purpose builds and is responsible for organizational existence.

As researchers examine the organizational properties of discourse, a brief definition of organizational discourse must be understood as it varies widely; thus, discursive organizing takes place (Grant, Hardy, Oswick, & Putnam, 2004; Grant et al., 2001). Grant et al. (2004) stated:

It concerns the whole context in which people who represent a company enter into a relationship/interact with other people. In other words, we call organizational discourse those instances of discourse, text, and conversations that occur between organizational boundaries, manifested orally, or in writing. (p. 16)

Relevant to organizational discourse, written communication, which is determined and codified by organizations' prescribed rules, involves a style that is objective and impersonal in tone and observance of particular strategies (Marin, 2015). Marin (2015) expanded by stating that in an organizational context, there is a difference in oral communication than in usual communication. Written communication between individuals and the author is established, and particular procedures are followed. Through structure, content, and style that broadcast communications/messages, the language used may cause attitudes and change beliefs of the intention of the communication/message (Huang, 2018; Marin, 2015). In conclusion of his study in the field of organization, Marin (2015) stated, "language in use organizes because it places participants in relation to other participants, contexts, goals, and objectives" (p. 112).

32

Studies have sought to understand discourse in organizations through relationships between practice and knowledge rather than patterns of language (Pritchard, 2006; Rodriguez, Holvino & Nkomo, 2016). Practice and knowledge are the most prominent concern (Pritchard, 2006). The study of the field of organizational discourse derives from traditions surrounding critical and interpretive traditions. Similarly, Huang (2018) and Marshak and Grant (2008) contend that the key aspect of organizations discourse pushes toward evolving social structures and multiple realities, creating an attitude and reinforcing ways of thinking. Distinguishing features of this approach include "particular media in which…discourse is articulated, performed, or inscribed" (Marshak & Grant, 2008, p. 214), and as a concept discourse "explores the ordering…of speech, meanings, and behavior" (Marshak & Grant, 2008, p. 214). Therefore, discourse is the key to understanding how social structure is accomplished (Huang, 2018),

Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) view discourse, through traditionally narrow lenses, as a form of spoken dialogue and in contrast to the written text. From a contemporaneous view, Gilbert and Mulkay (1984) view discourse as a spoken and written text combination, allowing for discourse to be described as "all forms of spoken interactions, formal and informal, and written texts of all kinds" (Potter & Wetherell, 1987, p. 7). Van Dijk (1997) remarked that discourse could also be the mode of thinking. These interpretations capture discourse as the social construction of reality (Van Dijk, 2001). In turn from these differences perspectives of discourse, Karreman (2014) presented arguments that daily behaviors, attitudes, and perceptions of reality are molded by the practices of discourse and interactions that individuals are exposed to and involved in. This is echoed from earlier studies by Berger and Luckmann (1967) and Searle (1995). These perspectives offer an interesting lens for researchers to give greater attention to analyzing ways of discourse as being born, generated, and changed (Janson, 2014). Therefore, from the authors

33

looking through different worldviews, organizational discourse takes on the definition of the "languages and symbolic media we employ to describe, represent, and theorize . . . the facticity of organizational life" (Grant, Keenoy, Oswick, 1998, p. 1). More specifically, as stated by Mumby and Clair (1997):

> When we speak of organizational discourse, we do not simply mean discourse that occurs in organizations. Rather, we suggest that organizations exist only in so far as their members create them through discourse. This is not to claim that organizations are 'nothing but' discourse, but rather that discourse is the principal means by which organization members create a coherent social reality that frames their sense of who they are. (p. 181)

Grant et al. (2001) highlight four particular ways that organizational discourse contributes to studies' of organizations that merit attention. These four ways relate to organizational ability in (a) broadening the function of discourse, socially constructing reality to the organization's members; (b) demonstrating how discursive roles and practices inform an order of organizational issues; (c) application to all levels of organization analysis; (d) offering a wide range of methodological approaches to organizational studies. These perspectives allow for identifying the key discursive processes of how ideas are formulated and continue to influence and shape behaviors and attitudes of the organization's members (Alvesson & Karreman, 2002).

The role of discursive practices emphasizes the importance of the connections between context and discursive practices in day to day organization settings and process (Ravazzani & Maier, 2017), as well as shaping and creating behaviors within the organization (Alvesson & Karreman, 2002). From the perspective of having the ability to be able to study all levels of the organization, discourse can be deployed to study individuals relevant to language offering sense-

34

making, attitudes, motives, and organizational orientations of individuals (Grant et al., 2001). This is a significant strength of discourse that offers an alternate perspective to generate new insights to organizational issues (Grant et al., 2001). From a methodological approach, organizational discourse offers the opportunity to study specific forms and features of rhetoric, dialogue, conversation, and text (Grant et al., 2001).

In recent studies of organization and management, there has been growing interest in the relationship between organizational structure and discourse (Ozkazanc-Pan, 2018). "The organizing properties of language hold the key to understanding how social structure is locally and practically achieved" (Fairhurst & Cooren, 2007, p. 132). Alvesson and Karreman (2002), referring to discourse, noted that "language put together as discourses arrange . . . the social word in a specific way . . . thus, informs social practices" (p. 1128).

Discourse is basic to the structure of organizations and their rules. It is embedded in the structure of organizations and guides an individual's thinking at every level. Structure of an organization is comprised of all the people's specification of positions, processes, procedures, rules and regulations, role definitions, technology, and culture, including all other elements related to defining how all these parts and processes work together. Referring to Whyte's (1959) model of human relations, these parts and processes work at a social psychological level describing how an organization's internal environment affects individual attitudes, attributes, and relationships (Onday, 2018). Other models in structural levels of organizations emphasize components that characterize informal organizational structure relevant to interpersonal systems of communication/discourse, power, and status (Onday, 2018), which impacts the formal organizational structure. Discourse is basic to structuring organizations, shaping behaviors,

35

shaping what individuals agree with, what individuals take for granted, and what they will or will not allow (Vayaynen & Laari-Salmela, 2018; Mumby, 2012; Weick, Sutcliffe, & Obstfeld, 2005).

Gender

> *"She is determined and differentiated in relation to*
> *man, while he is not in relation to her;*
> *she is the inessential in form of the essential.*
> *He is the subject; he is the Absolute. She is the other."*
> ~de Beauvoir

Gender is a cultural and social way of speech, behavior, and dress, linked to the world by sex classification as either male or female (Marvin, 2009; Sever, 2016). Bruni, Gherardi, and Paggio (2005) explained gender as being constructed and as a product of cultural, historical, and social meanings. Gender identifies the way that individuals interact socially (Sheridan, 2007).

Research related to women's experience in the workforce has been extensive and continues and grow (Whittingham, 2017). Publications on the issues of gender in conjunction with management within the last seven years are more than half the number published over forty years prior to 2010 (Eagly & Heilman, 2016). A wide variety of career-related studies in gender differences include role stereotypes, leadership barriers, work engagement, promotion, retention, and career capital, but studies on how women perceive the effectiveness of discourse in a male-dominated society is lacking.

The definitions and limitations of gender and gender-related roles must be examined relevant to discourse to understand why females are underrepresented in management positions. Also, worth noting is the different perceptive on sex and gender about discourse effectiveness. Mikkola (2017) notes that many feminists use the biological theory in which they "distinguish men as human males and women as human females" (p. 559), and that sex is a biological assigned

36

category. Ely and Padavic (2007) expanded that biology is the foremost determinant of male and female behaviors.

In the later 1960s, feminist researchers, Padavic and Reskin, began to point to a new notion "that gender is a concept distinct from sex" (p. 3). Padavic and Reskin (2012) continued by acknowledging that these feminists posited:

> Sex as biological associated with a person's chromosomes . . . whereas gender socially associated with a complex set of social processes that create and sustain differences between women and men. Gender is thus constructed not in a vacuum but in a hierarchy that privileges men, thus raising the notion of power. (p. 3)

Elaboration of gender differences, gender being hierarchical, society's tendency to distinguish functions as belonging to one or the other gender "legitimates the differential treatment of women and men" (Padavic & Reskin, 2012, p. 3). This biological theory leads the way of explaining the disparity of females in management positions within organizations and institutions.

More than a biological concept, other concepts of gender, through a gender lens, are iterated using discursive processes which stem from a psychological, sociological, and symbolic construct (Wood, 2009). Gender identities are constructed through a system of cultural meanings through discursive praxis (Coats, 2004). Recent social psychology studies have increasingly emphasized how gender is constructed in situations and interactions (Ye, Bose, & Pelton, 2017). Sociologist, Urbanekand (2017) noted that human values are used to predict the behavior of individuals as respondents, rather than having an awareness of individuals' relations to human personality. Further, the author expanded that from the sociological aspect, there is little interest in an individual's life stories and experiences; interest is in seeking to "understand general tendencies

37

in society – for example, to learn whether certain similar or identical value changes in a social group under particular similar conditions" (Urbanekand, 2017, p. 434).

An exemplary qualitative study, applying a narrative analysis conducted by Smith, Santucci, Xu, Cox, and Henderson (2012) examined the challenges of 1,200 professional women, the power and gender relationship in the workplace, and the nature of the women's roles in society. The approach used for the data analysis was post-positivist, relating to the uncovering of individuals regarding their multiple interpretations of discourse and reality. The purpose of the study was to examine women's perception regarding their careers and expectations for their future. Following the definition of gender and organizational culture as shaped by power, the authors asserted that women's perception regarding their careers appeared to be somewhat negative based on how they negotiated their areas of influence in work-related motivation, workplace culture, and obligation to family. Smith et al. (2012) averred that the greatest barrier of the male-dominated culture in society and organizations was discourse, ways of speaking and communicating. The data reflected that women might love the jobs, but the barriers presented by organizational and gender constraints can have a negative influence on their careers.

In a qualitative research study, Soklaridis et al. (2017) used a constructivist grounded theory approach for data collection and analysis. This qualitative strategy of Charmaz's (2006) grounded theory gave way for the researchers to derive a general process of actions and interactions grounded in the participants' views in the study. This grounded theory approach was used to examine the experiences of gender bias among female CEO's in a hospital setting, and to explore what these females attribute their success to within a male-dominated hospital milieu.

The study's researchers used purposeful sampling techniques and in-depth interview methods to facilitate the discussions of the participants' experiences of leadership and gender. The

38

purposeful sampling, the rationale in which to select rich information to illuminate the study's research question, was used to elicit stories of the participants' views and experiences. The use of purposeful sampling elucidated particularized specific factors that influenced career trajectories into management, their perceptions of the impact of gender in their journey as they moved into leadership status, and their views of the women entering into leadership in the hospital environment.

In-depth qualitative interviews, open-ended questions were conducted on twelve women in leadership positions in the hospital to discover information on gender bias and leadership. Individual interviews offered participants confidentiality in sharing personal stories and difficulties they encountered as they moved into leadership positions, as well as their interpretations of any difficulties in their voice and words. Soklaridis et al. (2017) used inductive and deductive analysis to analyze the data. Interviews were transcribed, coded, and categorized to examine common themes related to gender bias in organizations. Organizing the identified themes created two categories: (a) "Yes, gender bias is alive and well" (p. 257) and a second category: (b) "Gender" (p. 257).

The narratives of the participants in this study presented major findings, which showed individual differences in each theme. By using the narrative analysis, each participant's narrative spoke for itself as the participants' experiences addressed discourse as vibrant, multi-faceted, and well contested.

Power

> *"I would love to see women able to be powerful,*
> *complex, smart, opinioned, and taken seriously,…*
> *Even more, I would love to see women held to different*
> *standards, other than the superficial one that we're held to."*
> ~ Amber Heard

Power hierarchies in all societies are consistent (Salin & Hoel, 2013), in which social groups or one or more individuals dominate other social groups or other individuals. Power varies by expectations and social norms, and social norms may increase in social standings (Salin & Hoel, 2013). Research shows that an important aspect of social power is gender and that researchers argue that the significant primary relationship of power is gender (Berdahl, 2007; Beale & Hoel, 2011).

The traditional views that power plays in organizations ignore what Lukes (1974) calls a dimension of power, which shapes cognitions, perceptions, and preferences. In Jo and Park's (2016) critical review on power, they viewed Lukes' (1974) definition of power as the "organizational capacity to secure performance by binding units in a system when the obligations are legitimized concerning their bearing on collective goals" (p. 394). Jo and Parks (2016) further asserted that pioneers Weber's (1947) and Parson's (1954) views on power from a classic perspective is a social resource "which can be acquired, distributed, allocated or transferred" (p. 394). Although these views have similarities, an argument is made as to how power is generated and operated (Jo & Park, 2016).

Kanter's (1977) traditional view is that power is the ability to accomplish goals. According to Pheffer (1992), power is a "potential force" (p. 14). Ng and Bradac (1993) extended their understanding of power as the ability to be the "production of intended effects" (p. 3). The definition of power is the ability to get things accomplished by the influence of the will of one individual on another individual (Bolman & Deal, 2008; Pfeffer, 1992). Power produces reality (Bolman & Deal, 2008). Connecting the concept of power to status, authority, and levels of hierarchy, thus, structures of organizations, power is understood as the ability to get things done (Clegg, Courppasson, & Phillips, 2006).

40

From a theoretical perspective on power in organizations, Jo and Park (2016) identified Foucault's (1982) analytical perspective of power attributes. Foucault's (1982) conceptualization, divided power into "norms and standard practices as products of moral, medical, sexual and psychological regulations . . . power resides in every act" (p. 399). From a positive sense, power enables and makes something possible (Jo & Park, 2016). Foucault (1982) focused on power as a product of the relationship rather than being depicted as something shared or seized.

According to Jo and Park (2016), the most critical attribute of power is knowledge. Power controlled through discourse is managed and governed (Trehan, 2004). Thus, through the discourse of knowledge, power in professional practices in management is constructed (Trehan, 2004). Foucault (1982) acknowledged a traditional distinction between knowledge and power "whereby knowledge may lead to power" (Jo & Park, 2016, p. 395) or the acquisition of knowledge might enhance power. The two, power and knowledge, do not exist but co-exist (Jo & Park, 2016). Also, drawing on the work of Foucault (1977), N. Newman and Newman (2015) asserts that power molds the "development of new truths and forms of knowledge" (p. 66). Therefore, this development of the two, knowledge and truth, are indivisible of power (N. Newman & Newman, 2015).

Social Constructionism

Social constructionism was first viewed as an attempt at coming to terms with the nature of knowledge and its creation in reality, with the acceptance that there is an objective reality (Andrews, 2012). Researchers acknowledged that social constructionism proposes that the understanding and perceptions of the world are a product of reality represented through language (Burr & Dick, 2017). Burr (2018) and J. C. H. Mills and Mills (2017) pointed out that at the heart of social constructionism is knowledge. Social constructionism focuses on understanding the

41

social world of experiences from the perspective of individuals who have lived it (Andrews, 2012). Marecek, Crawford, and Popp (2004) describe social constructionism as a theory of knowledge focusing on two main concepts: the creation of meaning and that knowledge is produced collaboratively by a community. Emerging from Gergen's (1985) criticism of objectivity, social constructionism challenges the concept of knowledge in that "empirically-proven truths are mind-independent" (p. 286). Knowledge being a social product, social constructionists focus on knowledge as a product of a situated society of reality depending on time and place (Marecek, Crawford, & Popp, 2004). Underlying social constructions, power and hierarchy are results in how individuals differ in status, self-respect, entitlement, and other traits based on human interactions (Marecek et al., 2004). As a dynamic process, social construction is complex in how knowledge and meanings are created through social interactions and co-constructed in interactions with others, and how it is negotiated, modified, and shifted (Marecek et al., 2004). Therefore, sharing and understanding knowledge acquired from individuals' social milieu and perception is evident. Knowledge comes through social discursive epidemiologically, and individuals construct knowledge through discourse (Burr, 2003). Language, the core of knowledge, is the building block of culture, which conveys meaning to the system of knowledge that individuals participate in (Marecek et al., 2004). Language, being the creator of reality, has a large influence on how individuals perceive reality.

Gender is a social construction rather than a natural category (Allen, 2005). Gender as a social construction is something that individuals do in the interaction with others, not something that individuals are (Ahl & Marlow, 2012; Marlow, 2014). Concerned with the structure of reality and nature of existence, ontologically, social constructionism is attentive to how experiences and perceptions are created and shaped by the language individuals share (Crotty, 1998). Crotty

42

(1998) stated that "all meaningful reality, precisely as meaningful reality, is socially constructed. The social in social constructionism is about the mode of meaning generation and about the kind of object that has meaning" (p. 55).

Andrews (2012) viewed knowledge as being created rather than being discovered by the mind and reality. Described in multiple ways, knowledge is formed through interactions and social relations (Wight, 2018). The undertaking of what is real and true may vary, depending on space and time (Burr, 2003). Drawn on social traditions and practices (Hackley, 1998), making sense of social worlds is dependent on the individual's point of view, the social relationship, and communication process taking place (Gergen, 2009). Hackley (1998) gave support to meanings as ineluctably social constructions, and so are individuals. Individuals create their self-identity through discursive practice and things they do "fractured in time" (Hackle, 1998, p. 96).

Discourse is the process of building meaning through both verbal and non-verbal language. Discourse is a "set of meaning, metaphors, representations, images, stories, statements . . . that . . . together produce a particular version of a particular way of representing it" (Burr, 2003, p. 61). Making sense of social worlds is dependent on one's point of view (J. C. H. Mills & Mills, 2017). Thus, being created through discourse, social worlds cannot be reproduced, are not consistent, and are not dependable (Burr, 2018).

Crucial to social construction and organization is the importance of social processes (Allen, 2005). Language and practice patterns create structures of organizations. Language is not only a way of connecting individuals but also a way individuals exist in language. These structures influence actions, conversations, and the continuous process of meaning-making (Gergen, 2009; Weick, 1987). Using a lens that focuses on the awareness of how experiences in the world are

43

perceived, the theoretical paradigm of social constructionism can be useful linking relationships between power, gender, discourse, and organizations (Burr, 2003; Burr, 2018).

Accordingly, to Galbin (2014), social constructionism focuses on relations and sustaining individuals' roles in the social construction of realities. Galbin (2014) further acknowledges this by stating that individuals form maps from their own experiences and how they perceive these experiences. "All maps are differing maps of the same world from our perceptions of the actual world" (Galbin, 2014, p. 82). The language, the speech, and communication, as viewed by social constructionism, are the central role of the interactive process in which individuals understand the world and themselves (Galbin, 2014).

Basic assumptions of social constructionism support this research, a critical feminist study of power, gender, and discourse in organizational settings in articulating the sphere of knowledge. Social constructionism examines how the world and individuals are understood (Gergen, 2009). Second, social constructionism emphasizes the nature of knowledge as being influenced by political, social, and historical factors in time and of culture, and third, social worlds are given meaning and bound by relationships (Gergen, 2009). Sustaining and producing social worlds are through discourse, with discourse being communication, patterns, and collaboration of thoughts (Gergen, 2009; Pearce, 2007). Pearce (2007) noted that perceived knowledge predicts social actions. Therefore, social actions can be encouraged as well as barred. This constructs the world of reality as inherent to power relations, daring ways of actions, interactions, and being (Burr, 2003; Pearce, 2007).

Research studies show that realities and knowledge are acceptable and shared only through the action of human beings through communication interactions (Andrews, 2012; Searle, 1995). Through pre-existing assumptions of communication interactions, gender is reality and knowledge.

44

Searle (1995) further expanded that organizations and institutions are formed, maintained, and sustained through communication interactions in which symbols of discourse and language form interpretations. Through the interpretations of language, individuals are exposed to culture practices of their social worlds (Burr, 2003).

Discourse, as the use of symbols of communication both oral and written, creates the individuality of human beings, facts, organizations that are the structure of reality, perceptions, and social patterns (Burr, 2003; Pearce, 2007). Hassen (2015) discussed the power of discourse as shaping realities of society, conceptualized by individuals sharing tradition, culture, history, and their way of life. As a systemic way of thinking, "discourse takes on the role of building, producing, accumulating, reinforcing, constructing, resisting, legitimizing, criticizing, and transmitting knowledge"(Hassen, 2015, p. 127) through language. Research studies by Borne (2013) and Treyidga, Kearins, and Milne (2013) suggested that discourse, embedded in society's cultural belief and social practices, plays a role in the mediation of transmitting knowledge. Discourse is a formative power. Power, in turn, produces gender, and a product of power is gender (Foucault, 1977; Foucault & Gordon, 1980; French, 1985; Polkinghorne, 1988). The three, discourse, power, and gender, are intertwined in creating social worlds, such as institutions and organizations.

Feminist Critical Discourse

Feminist critical discourse analysis has been instrumental in determining the most pressing challenges that females endure during transitioning periods to management status. The importance lies in the understanding of how women's discourse is acknowledged and accepted within organizations, as well as how women deal with established forces of equality, inclusion, and diversity. Feminist discourse analysis aims to "advance a rich and nuanced understanding of the

45

complex workings of power and ideology in discourse in sustaining, hierarchically, gendered

social arrangements" (Lazar, 2007, p. 141). Through feminist discourse lenses, insights on patterns

of social actions, verbal and non-verbal language, building and shaping meanings shared over

space and time, are addressed. To further understand feminist critical discourse analysis, critical

discourse analysis must be addressed in relation to feminist critical discourse (Lazar, 2014).

Critical discourse analysis, based on the assumption that discourse is a form of social

behavior, has its origin in linguistic aspects and text, addressing social problems of culture and

social structures (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997). Lazar (2007) discussed the aim of feminist critical

discourse studies as ways in which relations of gendered assumptions, most frequently taken for

granted, and the relations of hegemonic power are produced discursively, negotiated, sustained,

and "challenged in different contexts and communities" (p.143). It is suggested that feminist

issues are complex and subtle (Crotty, 1998; Kilgour, 2013; Lazar, 2014). Therefore, complexity

and subtlety are necessary for feminist research. Cameron (1992) and Gordon (1986) explain that

language and discourse, being bias in patriarchal ideology, needed to establish and claim a feminist

perspective in language and discourse research across male-dominated disciplines in social

science.

Feminist theory mainly reflects the concern of inequality of women with the intent to

concentrate on female issues in society (Calas et al., 2014). Roberts (1990), through the feminist

perceptual lens, focused on feminist theory as challenging functionalist assumptions, especially

"those that disproportionately serve the interest of men . . . seeks a fuller understanding of both

overt and suppressed gender conflict" (p. 339). Roberts (1990) continued by describing how

female interest have been subordinated to those of males, with the goal of "eradicating that

subordination and transforming relations between men and women" (p. 339). Karam and Jamali

46

(2017) attempted to introduce a starting point requiring new lenses through which to understand the reality of business-social operations and practices from a perspective of social interactions to create changes in existing power, foster growth, and empower women in society.

Feminist theory has been described as waves of feminism (Calas et al., 2014). The first wave of the feminist movement provided the way for women's right to vote (Calas et al., 2014). The second wave of the feminist movement began in the 1960s and focused on political issues; thereby, opening the door to feminist research studies (Calas et al., 2014). Weedon (1997) also defined feminist as a politic directed at changing existing power between men and women in society. Therefore, feminist studies connect through personal and political issues, relevant to knowledge, power, and methodology (Calas et al., 2014). The movement gave women liberation to add meaning to their lives and experiences in growing in cultural influence where feminine voices could be heard (Gumport & Snydman, 2002). This lead to research conducted from the perspective of women's life experiences and to challenge the notion of research being neutral and objective (Rose, 1993). The third wave of the feminist movement, beginning in 1980, feminist theorizing began to include personal narratives (Yu, 2014). Miller (1991) noted:

> If one of the original premises of seventies feminist (emerging out of the sixties slogans) was that 'the personal is the political,' eighties feminism has made it possible to see that the personal is also theoretical: the personal is part or theory's material. (p. 21)

In 2012 a fourth wave of the feminist movement began, targeting sexual harassment. This wave has drawn significant focus on violation of women's rights to dignity, equality, as well as all human right (Srivastava, Chaudhury, Bhat, & Sahu, 2017). The prevalence of wave of the feminist movement has brought legal action to harassment issued and created the 2012 sexual harassment act "to cease the silent menace" (Srivastava et al., 2017, p. 112).

47

Green (1993) argues that personal criticism, rather than practice "pitted against theory and reinforcing the usual binaries (personal against public, female against male, concrete against abstract) may be imbricated in theory" (p. 20). Therefore, feminist theory is close to and built often from personal experience (Yu, 2014). Since the second wave of the feminist movement, controversial research and topics on females regarding power and gender have increased (Eagly & Carli, 2007).

Although the traditional norms of feminist research have not been accepted easily, through qualitative research and over time, feminist research has gained a degree of respect. From feminist movement roots, the dedication of women's studies is women's issues related to patriarchy, gender, and social worlds (Lather, 1992). Also, female scholars have pushed for more female orientation in organizations and institutions that is relevant to power, gender, and discourse to be dedicated to the research of feminist (Rose, 1993).

There is a multitude of knowledge on feminist theory (Jackson & Jones, 1998) based on traditional belief and disciplinary knowledge in relations to women (Lorber, 2005). Never the less, feminist theories are united in that socially constructed and gender-biased inequalities exist in social life, realities, and ways in which social institutions and organizations are structured (Lorber, 2005). Baxter (2003) and Perreault (1984) believed that gender inequality could and should be eliminated through social change. Further research by Srivastava et al. (2017) draws upon Baxter's (2003) and Perreault's (1984) belief that society of all social and economic contexts in which male supremacy exits should be eliminated. Within feminist research, the oppressive situation of inequality is both challenged and described (Tong, 1998). The feminist research goal is not just about women, but also about emancipation. It works toward the eventual end of the social oppression of women that has been created by perceived differences (Lorber, 2005). Before

48

the second wave of the feminist movement in 1960, the created perceived differences that men are inherently superior and that men and women are different in psychological nature were not seen as being inconsistence in extreme differences in women's and men's rights (Lorber, 2005).

For research to be considered feminist, the research must challenge gender oppression and must work for social change by informing and providing avenues for change (Hart, 2006). Hart (2006) noted that for feminist research to be true, it is rooted in activism and social change. By far, not all gendered research is feminist. The consciousness of feminist is still in the construction stage and struggling for recognition. Feminist scholars will continue to study the gendering of organizations and their practices to understand why gender inequalities continue to stay situated in certain organizations despite attempts to eradicate them (Acker, 2004).

Critical Theory

Critical theory, according to Horkheimer (1972) works, creates "a world which satisfies needs and power" (p. 246) of human beings. Critical theory has emerged within social movements that connect and identify "varied dimensions of the domination of human beings" (Horkheimer, 1972, p. 216) in modern societies. Critical theory aims' to provide bases, both normative and descriptive, for a social inquiry which is aimed at increasing freedom and at decreasing domination in all at the same time (Horkheimer, 1972). This study of discourse effectiveness and how women perceive it serves as a way to observe systemic bodies of discourse and knowledge and examine these bodies regarding gender and power. The critical theory comes from critical discourse analysis foundations (Caza & Carrol, 2012; Horkheimer, 1972). By defining activity through its social organization between the researcher and participants, knowledge is gained and reshaped (Epstein, 1996).

49

Critical discourse analysis is positional in critical theory (Klikauer, 2015). As defined by Horkheimer (1972), the adequacy of critical theory must meet three criteria. First criteria being, at all the same time, it must be explanatory, normative, and practical and explain what is wrong with the social reality currently. Second, participants or actors to change, it must be identified. Third, both criticism of clear norms and practical and achievable goals for social transformation must be provided (Horkheimer, 1972). In later writings, Horkheimer (1993) defined the true critical theory of society as it must have as its object "human beings as producers of their historical form of life" (p. 21). As suggested by Fairclough (1992), critical discourse theories consider the notion of power and recognize that language is integral in maintaining dominant positions in a community. Critical theory of social inquiry emphasis that society can be transformed only by becoming more democratic, that "all conditions of social life that are controllable by human beings depend on real consensus" (Horkheimer, 1972, p. 249) in a rational society. Habermas's (1988) approach to critical theory is social science in unified practically rather than epistemically or theoretically and has become a modern inquiry that can be adopted by participants in relations to others in their world. This approach is favored more now by critical theorists and their research (Habermas, 1988).

Critical theory in society today is recognized in many feminist theories, and feminist approaches in conducting social science, relevant to race, gender, and culture theories in ways of seeing the world (Deetz, 1996). Critical theoretical approaches rest on dialogue methods and combine interviews and observation with approaches that foster reflections and conversations. This allows the researcher and participants taking part in the study to question and challenge the natural state, claiming conflict in the situation. Critical theorists' purpose is to try to change the situations rather than describe them from the existing values (Bohman, 2016). The ultimate goal

50

of social cultural theory is to emancipate individuals by becoming aware of alternate interpretations of their situation (Caza & Carroll, 2012; Klikauer, 2015).

Synthesis of the Research Findings

Literature is abundant on discourse and organizational discourse. As a method of a new inquiry on discourse, gender, and power, a review of the literature was conducted relevant to the complex interplay between gender, power, language, and ideology. The literature revealed that language/discourse is resourcefulness for the channeling of social, political, and cultural meanings. Social reality and ideology are constructions of language/discourse. Consistent with the construction views of language, there are intricate interactions between gender, power, ideology, and language in the context of social worlds and how language awareness is perceived as serving the intended purpose. Foucault's (1977, 1980) ideas of discourse, power, and knowledge manifest in gender.

Discourse in the social world consists of words and statements across texts in time and space (Foucault, 1972). Through meaning, the words and statements are not static or fixed, but rather, they are identifiable. Meanings change and language shifts are results in discourse being dynamic. Discourse, when creating a common sense, can be disrupted by discourse analysis, which reveals the way that language serves to maintain power relationships (Chouliaraki & Fairclough, 1999). Power and inequality are enacted, reproduced, and resisted through the language of the text, talk, and visual images (van Dijk, 1997). Discourse contributes to the awareness of what is, how it came about, and what it may become (Chouliaraki & Fairclough, 1999)

Research shows that power and leadership positions in organizations are predominately held by men. Experts have suggested that there needs to be an additional inquiry on the interactions of discourse, gender, and power in a male-dominated society (Baxter, 2003). In

51

synthesizing the findings, there are enormous studies that connect discourse, gender, and power and how they are embedded in the social world. Although research has been conducted on the intersections of gender in leadership, what has been found to be constant is that men's style of interaction in organizations is taken for granted as being the normative way of communication and has been the foundation of enactment of power and authority (Baxter, 2003; Walsh, 2016). Through research, it has been found how stereotypes have constructed the thought of how males and females are suited best regarding taking on different roles in organizations (Baxter, 2003). Smith et al. (2012), using data from their exemplary qualitative study, noted that the greatest barrier to women's career is the male-dominated culture in organizations. The barriers presented by gendered constraints can negatively influence their careers. Identified themes, using inductive and deductive analysis in analyzing the data of the majority of the studies of organizations, indicated that gender bias is present in organizations and creates barriers relevant to females' advancement in their careers (H. K. Kim, Lee, & Kim, 2015).

An investigation of previous literature determined that hierarchies of power are consistent in all societies in which there is domination, and that reality is formed through the results of power (Salin & Hoel, 2013). Foucault's (1977, 1980) works expanded on the use of language/discourse to construct sociocultural relations in a highly gendered environment. Scholars suggest that there is a need for new methods of inquiring to understand the perceived effectiveness of discourse experienced by females as they continue their journey into organizational leadership.

Critique of Previous Research Methods

The specific focus in this critique of the previous literature is the dated literature of discourse, power, and gender. Through traditional views, power was the ability to achieve results in organizational structures (Kanter, 1977; Luke, 1974). Previous research examined gender

52

influence on perceived effectiveness and the constant conscious struggle of feminist in social worlds through methodological approaches. Many qualitative research studies on gender and discourse utilized critical theory as a direction to analysis the various dimension of power. Works of Foucault (1972) broke the grounds for Fairclough's (2000) emphasis on the mode that language/discourse constitutes social relations and identities as well as knowledge and belief systems. Through Foucauldian, the relation between language/discourse and power play a major role in constructing reality.

Roberts's (1990) works on language and gender called for feminist and ideology research from a feminist perception. Thus, sociolinguists have attempted to bring together the attempts of sociologists and linguist on issues of men and women's language and the place of such language in society (Roberts, 1990). As the feminist movement continues to move forward, everyday knowledge and power dynamics continue to impact females in their communal style.

Qualitative research studies investigate and explain meaning attributed to human and social issues by individuals and groups (Silverman, 2016). Such is the focus of social constructionism, understanding the world of experiences of human beings (Andrews, 2012). Assumptions of social constructionism are supportive of qualitative research studies in that tradition, and different ways of understanding individuals and the world are questioned. Although literature exists on gender division, few scholarly researchers have addressed the effectiveness of discourse/language as it is perceived by women who aspire to move into management in an organization or institution. The majority of the research findings suggested that male bias continues to restrain the progress of women in their aspirations. In Lorber's (2005) words on gender bias:

In the social construction of gender, it does not matter what men and women actually do; it does not matter if they do exactly the same thing. The social institution of gender insists

53

only that what they do is perceived as different. (p. 26)

Research literature lacks an explanation of how women may overcome this bias and move upward in organizations. Until the creation of a diverse gender environment and the removal of constant barriers in organizations, women, aspiring to move upward in organizations, will be less and less in the future. Thus, gender diversity in organizations will falter, and existing organizational cultures will suffer.

Summary

The literature review is reflective of the purpose of the research and provides a better understanding of the connection and interaction between discourse, power, and gender as experienced by women in management. It uncovered implications and the effects of discourse and perceived the effectiveness of discourse, gender, and power through a feminist perspective, and it explored the relationship between organizational discourse and women's experience of the glass ceiling. The literature covered in this review centered around discourse, gender, and power. The literature review looks at the methodological use, referring to theories and concepts.

The literature review consists of six sections. The first section discussed discourse and its numerous definitions. This section also discussed discourse as a means of organization structure. The literature review then moved to gender. Gender has discussed the order in which individuals interact socially and the importance of gender to social relationships. The review then moved forward to discussions on power, social power, and gender. The link between gender, power, and social reality was examined with emphasis on power as the ability to get things accomplished (Clegg et al., 2006). From a theoretical perspective, Foucault (1982) identified and discussed the analytical perspective of power attributes. Discussion of constructionism revealed the way language shapes experiences and perceptions. Through language, knowledge is created and

54

sustained through social action; language is an instrument for experiencing thought. Discussion of the basic assumptions of social constructionism discussed the relationship of power, gender, and discourse in organizational settings. The last sections focused on feminism and feminist critical discourse perspectives and critical theory.

Throughout the six sections of the literature review, discourse, gender, and power appear entwined with the concepts of social constructionism, language, knowledge, and meaning that impact social worlds, organizations, and institutions. These concepts, along with the theories' views, were instrumental in adding to the depth of the research. The review has supported the notion that literature on the current research topic is lacking.

The next chapter outlines the design and methodology of this research study. The following chapter delineates the qualitative research approach, as well as the researcher's method, process, and intention in discovering the experiences of women's perception of the effectiveness of discourse as they move into management status.

CHAPTER 3. METHODOLOGY

Chapter 3 outlines the methodology used for this study, beginning with restating the purpose of the study and the research question. In-depth information is presented regarding the research design and methods. Detailed information follows describing the selection of participants, the data collection procedures, and the data analysis process. The appropriateness of the research design, target population, and methods of the data analysis are justified. Finally, the ethical considerations that took place to protect the participants of the study are stated.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to ascertain a thorough understanding of the connections and interactions between the effectiveness of discourse, power, and gender as experienced by females in management positions. The study illuminated female perceptions of discourse when transitioning to management positions. The most appropriate way to answer the research question and interview questions were through the qualitative method of inquiry. Qualitative method of inquiry allowed the researcher to capture the true meanings of the participants' individual and personal stories (Patten, 2012). In-depth qualitative research is an excellent method to utilize in telling individual stories and determining themes and patterns that are similar across various individuals (Patten, 2012). The in-depth knowledge provided a more accurate picture allowing insight into the patterns conveyed by the participants that otherwise may have gone unnoticed. See Figure 3, for the diagram of the research study.
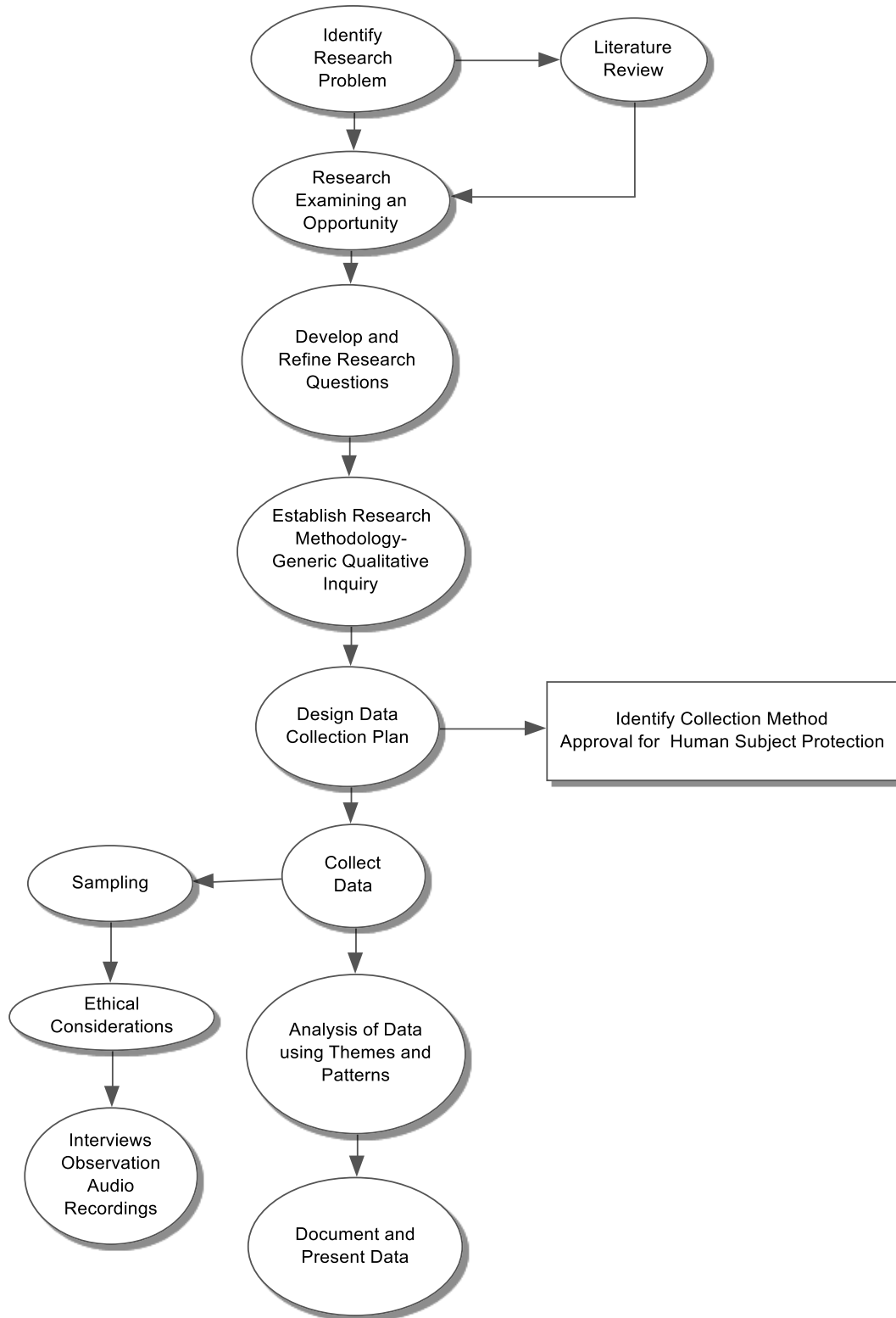
Figure 3. Diagram of procedure for research study.

57

The specific researcher designed question guiding this study was, How do women perceive the

effectiveness of discourse as they transition from employee to management status? Thirteen

researcher designed interview questions supported this central question. The semi-structured

questions used in the study were open-ended questions, created to address concepts of discourse,

gender, power, and participants' experiences. The researcher-designed interview questions utilized

were:

    1a. How do individuals in your organization in management positions experience and

        describe the intersections of gender and discourse? b. What are the challenges of these

        intersections of gender and discourse?

    2.   How do you experience gender and discourse at these intersections?

    3.   How do you construct and negotiate your self-identity at these intersections?

    4.   What are the structures of power that influence and shape your discourse and gender in

        your organization?

    5.   What are the implications for understanding your self-identity of discourse and gender

        in the intersection of these two?

    6.   How would you describe or identify the level of influence you have in your

        organizational setting?

    7a. How did you achieve this level of influence? b. Is there any way in which you could

        be more influential?

    8.   What is your perception of the effectiveness of discourse in your organization?

    9.   How does discourse construct social reality in your organization?

10a. What is your participation role in your organization's goal-setting processes? b. How have you experienced your ability in the organization's goal-setting processes?

11. What is your description of the influence your discourse has on goal-setting processes?

12. What is your perception of gender, power, and your discourse effectiveness in your organization?

13. How does the relationship between discourse, gender, and power affect your level of productivity in your organization?

Research Design

A generic qualitative inquiry was chosen as the best fit for the research design to explore the real-life experiences and to describe the phenomenon. This method allowed flexibility deemed necessary for achieving an in-depth understanding of females' perceived effectiveness of discourse in organizational environments and social worlds. This methodological approach particularizes the epistemologies and theoretical perspectives of the study, these being qualitative social constructionism, feminist, and critical theory. The methodological frames for the analysis were social constructionism, feminist critical discourse to include organizational feminist communicology, and critical theory in understanding meaning and its management. The study focused on the experience of professional women and explored their experiences and the meanings they attribute to their experiences of discourse effectiveness in a male-dominated society.

Qualitative studies seek to answer questions of relationships of how social reality is constructed and sustained. Qualitative research, from a social constructionism mode, is dependent on the relationships that are built by the study participants and the researcher, in which themes and patterns emerge from the dialogue from the participants (Gergen, 2009). From the feminist critical research mode to challenge the status quo, qualitative research was the approach for the study

59

(Crotty, 1998). Specifically, the research addressed the cultural role of women in organizations and theoretical feminist through the focus on women's experiences and challenges that support oppression in the workforce.

For credibility, the data was collected through narrative inquiry with a focus on each participant with interview questions to provide additional details to the narrative. Narrative inquiry is significant when exploring participants' experiences and social issues in the phenomena (Elliott, 2005). The data collection included semi-structured, in-depth interviews of participants, using open-ended questions to ensure the collection of adequate and quality data to support the study question. Reaching saturation where no new information or data are observed allows for additional flexibility of specifics in the discussion of the research topic. By asking the same questions to the study, participants allow for comparisons among the interviews by the researcher. Both the researcher and study participants engaged in dialogue during the duration of each interview.

The research design allowed the researcher to explore discourse in male-dominated organizations and how women perceived its effectiveness. The research design demonstrated how the data collection and analysis were reliable as it followed a logical process, moving from one phase to the next phase (Ahmedshareef, Petridis, & Hughes, 2014). The connection between the problem researched, the data collection process, and data analysis techniques were appropriate, and the findings produced were valuable in answering the research question. The next section of the chapter describes the target population and sample for the study.

<div align="center">**Target Population and Sample**</div>

The growth of women in the American workforce has increased over the past forty years. Although there has been a major increase in growth, women are still underrepresented in power

<div align="center">60</div>

and leadership in organizations (Calas et al., 2014; Weyer, 2007). Consciously and unconsciously, gender stereotyping often shapes views of women's ambition, abilities, and potential that negatively affect decisions relevant to their advancement to positions of power and leadership (Ashcraft & Mumby, 2004). The following sections discuss the target population and the sampling process for the study.

Population

For this qualitative study, the larger population was females who have transitioned from employee to management status and those females who are aspiring to move into management. Therefore, from this population, those females who were in management for two to twelve years or being groomed for entry-level management positions were selected using these inclusion criteria. The exclusion criteria were identified as not meeting the inclusion criteria.

Sample

The sampling strategy for this qualitative study was homogenous purposeful sampling to identify individuals who could best generate information in understanding the phenomena relevant to the research (Patton, 2002; Yu, 2014). Homogenous purposeful sampling, offering a large scope of perspectives, served as the selection process from the population for individuals who were invited to participate in the study. While there are no existing rules for the number of participants needed, qualitative studies generally require a smaller sample size (Patton, 2002), that is large enough to capture rich information from the participants. Benoot, Hannes, and Bilsen (2016) noted that Patton's (2002) homogenous purposeful sampling allowed for picking a small homogenous sample which reduced variation and simplified the analysis. Suri (2011) found that homogenous purposeful sampling was critical to quality research synthesis. Therefore, this sampling was crucial "to overcome the critique of mixing apples and oranges" (Benoot Hannes, &

61

Bilsen, 2016, p.18) when making explicit connections between individuals' experiences that were not visible before. A smaller sample was utilized, focusing on information and perceptions to better understand the occurrences surrounding the topic studied. Thirteen professional females participated. These participants provided adequate, in-depth information to answer the question meaningfully. Data saturation occurred when capturing the perceptions of these thirteen participants was enough adequate information to replicate the study, and when there was little ability in creating new data. Failure to reach data saturation could have hampered content validity, impacting the quality of the research (Fusch & Ness, 2015).

The study included inclusion and exclusion criteria. The inclusion criteria for participating in the study were females who have transitioned into management within the last five to ten years and those females who are aspiring to move into management status. In looking at the inclusionary criteria to determine participants for the study, it is also necessary to discuss what notes the exclusion of those who do not meet the criteria. The exclusion criteria were defined up-front to those individuals as well as those who met the inclusion criteria but exercised no interest in participating in the study. Exclusion included males working in the industry, whether meeting the inclusion criteria or not.

Procedures

The data collection included individual face-to-face interviews, taking approximately one hour each, an audio recording of the interviews, observations, and notes taken by the interviewer. The notes are also known as field text (Bengtsson, 2016). The audio recordings were transcribed verbatim and compared to the field notes to ensure that all information was captured and supported the handwritten field notes. Three participants were contacted with follow-up questions. Critical to the study was accurately capturing the participants' words and non-verbal features, such as

62

expressions, gestures, and body language. Each participant received an informed consent form to review and sign before the start of the scheduled interview. The signing of the informed consent form by the participant was not audio recorded. All documentation of the participants' interviews was archived on a hard drive to protect all information gathered through the interview process.

Participant Selection

For this study, participants were identified who met the inclusion criteria. Participants were volunteers. Thirteen individuals were recruited to participate in the study. This number was sufficient, allowing for a broad interpretation of the narrative data by articulating their experiences (Creswell, 2014) and to the point saturation was present. Upon full approval of the Institutional Review Board (IRB), recruitment for study participants was through women's professional organizations. Permission was requested and granted to hold recruitment meetings at the professional organizations. A recruitment meeting was held at the organizations' monthly meetings at public locations. The research topic and purpose of the study were presented along with the criteria for inclusion. An invitation to participate in the study was handed out to those present. An informed consent form was discussed and handed out to potential participants. The individuals interested in volunteering for the study were informed to contact the researcher privately to indicate voluntary participation and answer any questions that they may have. The selected participants who met the inclusive criteria were contacted to schedule a convenient time to conduct the one-on-one, face-to-face interviews for data collection, noting that the interviews would take place in a public location of their convenience.

Protection of Participants

The protection of the participants was taken seriously, as the information for the data collected is private and personal. Any identifying information about the participants' personal

63

information was removed. Each participant was given a number as identification. All interviews were transcribed and moved to a hard drive that is accessible only to the researcher. This information will be stored for the required seven-year time frame, then destroyed, according to Capella University's policy. Participants involved in the study were given an informed consent form, stating the overall explanation of the study and how the information is stored to ensure confidentially and anonymity along with any potential risks that could occur as a participant of the study.

Expert Review

Dissertation committee members reviewed the ten interview questions created by the researcher for the study. Committee members reworded and expanded the questions which resulted in thirteen questions created and approved. These thirteen researcher designed questions were adequate for gathering data for the study.

Data Collection

The data collection included face-to-face interviews using semi-structured interview questions with the selected participants of the study. Semi-structured interview questions encouraged participants to provide information related to their personal experiences relevant to their perception of discourse effectiveness in a male-dominated environment. The interviews were conducted outside the participants' work hours at a public library convenient to the participant and a time that was agreeable to the participant. The interviews were conducted at a public library to maintain confidentially and instill a feeling of personal safety in a secure environment. By ensuring confidentiality, the informed consent document was reviewed orally at the beginning of the interview before being signed by the participants. The participants had the opportunity to ask questions for clarification of the interview process. Before the recording of the interview session

64

began, participants signed the informed consent form. In addition to the audio recording of each interview, field notes, also known as interviewer's notes or journal, were taken to capture the non-verbal features of the participant's interaction during the actual interview member checks conducted ensured accuracy, credibility, and validity of the recorded interviews. Member checks were to substantiate the accuracy of the interpretations of the participants' experience.

Once completed, each participant's interview was transcribed and coded by common themes. All information obtained during the data collection was secured under lock with the destruction date in seven years, which complies with the federal employment laws and Capella University's policies. The researcher tracked and managed the data and moved into data analysis.

Data Analysis

The social constructionism and feminist critical discourse epistemologies along with feminist research goals and critical research aims were used in the data analysis. Narrative inquiry analysis was used to obtain interview responses. Hermeneutics analysis was used to interpretate interview responses. Contact analysis determined the patterns in the interview responces. Inductive and deductive analysis coupled with contact analysis identified themes in the interview responces. Each method bought strengths and rich description of the data.

Narrative inquiry analysis constructs a coherent story from the data, looking at in a perspective of the research question (Patton, 2002). The analysis began with reviewing and grouping the interview responses and memoing into themes and patterns. The narrative inquiry analysis allowed the researcher to gather and document the rich responses to the interview questions. Though there was a wealth of data, not all of it was meaningful. The narrative inquiry was the process in which the researcher became familiar with the content aspects of the data providing an easily interpreted description of the emergent themes and patterns.

65

A data reduction process, inductive and deductive thematic analysis, was used to identify and focus on what was meaningful and relevant to the study's research question (Bengtsson, 2016). The data reduction process was significant in transforming the data into a simplified format that was understood in the context of the research question. In discerning what was meaningful data, referencing back to the research question and interview questions were the framework. By reducing the data, only the data that was most meaningful, usable, and relevant data were recorded.

The inductive and deductive analysis served as the leading method of descriptive and specific reporting of the collected data that emerged from the interviews of the participants' responses. At all times, the researcher remained open to identifying any new themes or patterns that emerged that were relevant to the central research question.

Hermeneutics analysis was used as the interpretive methods to assess the words and the narratives from each participant's interview in understanding their meaning. The researcher searched for ways the meanings were culturally expressed. This analysis was useful in understanding the participants' perceptions, attitudes, and feelings of the male-dominated organizations in which they worked.

Content analysis, the method to code categories by using words and symbols deriving from the data (Patton, 2002), was used to identify the frequency of patterns and themes across the interviews. The content analysis involved sorting through the transcribed interviews, the interviewer's notes to identify similar phrases, patterns, and themes to compare them in common sequences.

NVivo Pro12, a computer software program that supports qualitative research was used to organize, analyze, and classify the coding data through coding modes of the contents from the interview. NVivo Pro 12 was useful in organizing and analyzing the unstructured data of the

interviews, classifying, sorting, and arranging information, and examining and linking relationships in the data's entirety.

The guiding steps to the analysis of the study were as follows: (a) reading the participants' interviews in their entirety to gain a sense of the participants' experiences; (b) re-reading and scanning of the data multiple times; (c) coding and characterizing significant phrases from each transcribed interview and comparing them with the field notes; (d) clustering and positioning themes into meaningful units. Conclusion drawing and verification is the final step in qualitative data analysis. The researcher, to draw reasonable conclusions, stepped back and interpreted what all the findings meant, and determined how these findings help answer the research question. Drawing implications from the findings and revisiting the data multiple times to confirm the conclusions was important in the analysis.

Instruments

There were four instruments utilized for this study. The researcher, as the data collector, used interviews as the primary source in gathering the data. The researcher designed semi-structured, open-ended questions were used to gather data from the study's participants. An audio recording was used to record each participant's interview. The audio recording ensured that each participant's experiences were documented verbatim, not to overlook any information that is not caught written in the field notes. NVivo Pro 12 computer software was used to help uncover connections in the data in ways that were not possible manually.

The Role of the Researcher

The role of the researcher for this study was the human instrument for the data collection. For this inquiry, the researcher, is the human instrument for the study, was responsive to the environmental cues and was able to interact with the situations around the recruiting process for

67

participants and the interviewing of participants. The researcher's ability to be sensitive to the data and make appropriate decisions during the study lends credibility to the readers' confidence in the study. The researcher possessed the ability to collect the information at multiple levels simultaneously and perceived the situations holistically. The researcher processed the data as soon as it was collected to provide immediate feedback if needed. Although the researcher is the primary instrument in generating the data, the interview questions are at the heart of interviewing (Majid, Othman, Mohamad, Lim, & Yusof, 2017).

Before conducting the research, the researcher bore the burden of understanding the characteristics of the naturalist paradigm and of developing the skill level appropriate for the data collection and interpretation. The researcher also prepared a research design using strategies for naturalistic inquiry which, according to Stallings (1995), is a useful concept with which a researcher must accomplish before attempting to conduct a qualitative study. The researcher was aware of the oppression of females in male-dominated organizational culture but acknowledged little awareness of the experiences that the study covered.

The study explored the phenomenon through semi-structured interview questions conducted by the researcher. Probing questions were used to create open-ended conversations and add to elicit further in-depth information with the study participants. To build a good rapport with the participants to facilitate better responses, the researcher began with social conversations before the interview. According to Jacob and Furgerson (2013), this is essential to creating a comfortable environment for the participants, which can lead to more open conversations during the actual interview. Also, the researcher journaled the participants' responses to compare with the audio recording, ensuring all experiences of the participants were captured. The researcher had over twenty-five years of experience with a Fortune 500 company conducting interviews for hiring

68

professionals. Understanding that qualitative interviews offer rich and detailed information in understanding individuals' experiences, the researcher realized that the interviewing experience already acquired needed more substantial experience and training to completely understand and appreciate the process of interviewing necessary for a qualitative study. The researcher took the initiative to purchase and study resources on research interviewing for research studies. Also, the researcher searched scholarly resources in understanding the integral aspect of conducting interviews for qualitative research. Therefore, the necessary skills for successful interviewing participants for the study were obtained.

The researcher shared the understanding that the situation has improved, but there is not enough known about women's perception of the effectiveness of discourse in a male-dominated society. The researcher used bracketing to migrate potential harmful effects of any preconceptions, to set aside presumptions and biases that could have tainted the research process, to improve the rigor of the study and enhance the implementation of the study. Utilization of bracketing aided the researcher in enhancing the data collection, conclusions, and analysis of the study (Tufford & Newman, 2012) without any personal opinions or modifications of the data collection.

Guiding Interview Questions

To create a precise understanding of the study, semi-structured, open-ended questions were used to conduct the participants' interviews. These questions were created to address the concepts of discourse, gender, and power of participants' experiences. The open-ended questions allowed the participants to respond more freely in their own words, in which the responses tended to be more complex than 'yes' or 'no' responses (Jacob & Furgerson, 2013). Participants were able to respond in greater detail and elaborate more on details, exploring their position in their work

69

environment, their feelings, and experiences. The degree of flexibility reflected a better understanding of the problem researched. By asking open-ended questions, the researcher was able to conclude an accurate account of how females perceive the effectiveness of discourse in their organization. A list of the guiding interview questions for the interviews is in the research question section of this chapter (pages 60-61).

A field test of the semi-structured interview questions was conducted. The field test was conducted to ensure that the design of each interview question was successful in order enhance communication and collaboration between the participant and researcher to provide usefully and quality for the research study, and test the validity (Patton, 2002). The field test acknowledged that interview questions were clear, stable, and suitable for the subject matter of the research study. The field test participant was a member of the industry but not a participant in the data collection participants. According to Gillham (2005), the field testing "requires careful planning in the selection of those on whom you are experimenting. They should be the same kind as the research but not the same people" (p. 74).

Ethical Considerations

The ethical considerations in qualitative research are complex and intrusive into the everyday world of the research participants. Ethical interaction is created through the role of the researcher-participant relationship (Greenwood, 2016). Therefore, the researcher bracketed personal encounters, suspended assumptions, and knowledge from the data collection to be open-minded and focused on the viewpoints of the participants. Although no study is completely risk-free, the researcher projected little ethical concerns within the study. The Principles outlined in the *Belmont Report* were applied principles of beneficence, respect, and justice related to human participants (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1979). The study received approval

70

from the Capella University IRB. This approval ensured that all steps taken were risk-free and conducted professionally. The principles included doing no harm, respecting the privacy and confidentiality of the participants, following the institutional honesty and ethics guidelines, and rather than for personal gain, researching for the great good of the social world. Participants of the study are considered members of the protected group. As predicted by the researcher at the onset of the study, there were minimal, if any ethical risks in the study.

The utmost importance to the researcher in this study was the participants' privacy, confidentiality, and anonymity (Taylor & Land, 2014), specifically about data analysis and interpretations. The participants remained protected and anonymous by being assigned a code for the computer software program used in the analysis. The assigned code list remains in a secured location separate from the participants' personal information. Use of names and identifying information of the participants was avoided in the analysis. Once the data collection was complete, assigned pseudonyms identified the sample collection for the analysis of the data. All data, paper records, audio, and transcription tapes were locked in a file and will be destroyed in compliance with Capella's policy. Once the study was complete computer files were deleted. Protection of organizational anonymity and individual confidentially was significant in this study. The researcher took responsibility for the protection of both. The researcher has had over twenty-five years of experience in maintaining and storing confidential documents of individuals within a Fortune 500 company.

There was no conflict of interest in this study. The researcher knew little about the study participants before the study. The researcher was retired and had little to no contact with individuals in the organizations. Being retired, the researcher had no involvement in the participants' organizations. There was no personal gain for the researcher as a result of this study.

71

Summary

Chapter 3 of the study examined the methodological approach of the study. The study's purpose was to examine and describe how women perceive the effectiveness of discourse in management in organizational environments. The generic narrative qualitative research design resulted from knowledge being from experience, depending on the connection to individuals, space, and time; knowledge is variable, never absolute and is formed through situations and circumstances. These were the epistemological assumptions underlying the study.

The criteria for participants' selection and data collection process were discussed. Instruments used for the study's interviews were identified. The methods of the data analysis for the study taken from Crotty's (1998) four element framework were described and discussed: narrative inquiry, inductive and deductive thematic analysis, hermeneutics/interpretative analysis, and content analysis. The thematic analysis included relational coding, creating categories showing causation, aspects of the interaction, interaction association, and contrast (Guest, MacQueen, Namey, 2012; Woods, 2011).

Ethical considerations were discussed in support of the entirety of the study to include the process for participant understanding and confidentiality. Secure treatment of the data gathered from the participants was discussed. The IRB requirements of ethics and research standard were presented and discussed thoroughly. Potential risks were identified, weighed, and considered.

The next chapter, Chapter 4, presentation of the data, will showcase the findings of the study as it sought to ascertain the effectiveness of discourse as women perceive it in management roles within organizational society.

CHAPTER 4. PRESENTATION OF THE DATA

Introduction: The Study and the Researcher

The purpose of this generic narrative qualitative research study was to ascertain a thorough understanding of the interactions and connections between the perceived effectiveness of discourse, power, and gender by women in management positions. The analysis is in answer to the research question, How do women perceive the effectiveness of discourse as they transition to management status? The study reveals problematically the ways women's discourse is accepted and valued. Chapter 4 outlines the process utilized to collect and analyze the data for the research study. This chapter describes the researcher's interest in the study, the description of the participants of the study, along with study results.

The Study

The study displays individuals' perception of discourse on women's advancement in a male-dominated industry. The current chapter discusses the application of the research methodology to the data analysis. The qualitative data is presented, followed by the analysis of themes and patterns which emerged, telling the story of the themes and key findings. Chapter 4 serves as the foundation for the results and conclusion discussions presented in Chapter 5.

The Researcher

The topic of this study was strongly influenced by working in the package delivery industry for over twenty years. Recognizing the stereotyping of gender in the dominant organization, the researcher made personal observations of effective communications and constructive disagreements that seemed to be contrary to what the assumed norm should be. This background strengthened the study by providing an experience based perception of the study topic. Specifically, the researcher had an interest in learning how women, from their perspective,

73

perceived discourse effectiveness, which influenced the design of the questions, the interviews conducted by the researcher, as well as the theoretical orientation of the study. The design of the research questions, in turn, influenced the literature review and the interview protocol design. Being a female in a male-dominated industry, the researcher understood that these interests in this study could lead to researcher bias; therefore, the researcher had to practice epoch to mitigate any bias.

The methodological understanding specific to this research study was a result of knowledge gained through coursework and research leading up to the dissertation. Also, the researcher brought some experience and training to this dissertation. The researcher had more than twenty years of experience with face-to-face interviewing, which stemmed from experience in recruiting and screening applicants for both hourly and professional positions. Although prior interview experience was helpful, the researcher did not justify this experience as being proficient in qualitative interviewing. Research and review of the literature on conducting qualitative interviews and practicing qualitative interview techniques prepared and equipped the researcher for the qualitative interview process. The researcher played a significant role in the research study, the development of the interview questions, recruitment of participants, and the execution of the interviews. Bracketing technique was used by the researcher to check for possible biases. Bracketing method was used to mitigate any effects of preconceptions the researcher that may have tainted the process of the study (Sora, Kukkala, & Astedt-Kurik, 2014). Using the bracketing technique allowed the researcher to remain open to new and emerging ideas during the thematic data analysis (Chan, Fung, & Chien, 2016).

Resources for analyzing qualitative data and tutorials on the use of NVivo 12 pro software were utilized to support the findings from the theoretical thematic analysis. The data from the

74

deductive and inductive analyses were input into the software. This software, NVivo 12 pro, was used for coding, nodes, creating categories, subcategories, and word frequencies. The literature review was motivation to contribute to the knowledge to fill a gap in the current literature on women's perception of the effectiveness of discourse in management status in a male-dominant organization.

Description of the Sample

The research design included recruiting participants that met the eligibility criteria required for answering the research question of how women perceived the effectiveness of discourse during the transitioning into management status in a male-dominated industry. Therefore, all participants were women. All participants were willing to share their experiences, positive as well as negative.

The demographic questionnaire was available to each participant before the interview; completion of the questionnaire was optional. The information from the questionnaire consisted of three categories. The first category concern was education; the second is time in service; the final category was the participants' reason for participating in the research study. Thirteen females, ages ranging from 32 to 47 and meeting the inclusive criteria, completed the questionnaire. All thirteen participants resided in the Southeastern Region of the United States. None of the thirteen participants meeting the criteria withdrew from the study. The participants for the research study consisted of an ethical group of females. Three of the participants were African American, one was Latino, and nine were Caucasian. Four of the participants have a master's degree. One has a master's degree in addition to post-graduate studies. Five of the participants have a bachelor's degree. One participant has an associate's degree and was working on a bachelor's degree. One of the participants has some college work and noted that she wanted to continue her education in the future, and one participant has a high school education, but no post-secondary education. She was

75

an employee in the company for over nine years. The majority of the females interviewed noted that the primary factor for advancement in the industry was education or the number of years in service. The number of years in service with the company was a factor in crediting years of service relevant to education regarding advancement in the company.

Participants' length in time in the industry varied from two to twelve years. Ten of the participants have worked in the industry for more than nine years. Three of the participants have worked in the industry for two or more years, but less than five years. Ten of the participants hold entry-level management positions. Three are being groomed for entry-level management positions. Therefore, the majority of the participants have substantial experience and knowledge in the daily operations of their industry.

An informed consent form, outlining the study, was given for each participant to sign. Also, each participant had an opportunity to ask questions about the study processes that were unclear to them. The researcher ensured that participants' identities were protected. Each participant was assigned a number, which was used to identify her responses to the interview questions. Participants conveyed no concerns about the protection of their identities. The interviews of each participant were completed promptly.

Participants were asked, Why are you interested in taking part in the research study? The rationale behind asking participants this question was to assess how each participant felt that they might benefit from the study and each participant's motivation for her participation Table 1 displays participants' reasons for participating in the study. Table 1 shows that the major theme that emerged was "help." The theme of "help" was indicated by phrases and words used by the - participants, such as "to facilitate, to support, to be helpful" and "help." As the impetus in their participation in the study, ten participants identified "help" or "helpful" in some form. Study

www.manaraa.com

Table 1. Participants' Reasons for Participating in the Current Study

Participant	Reason for Research Study Participation
1	Tell my story, help support the study by participating
2	To further knowledge of females in a male-dominated society
3	To help further knowledge of females in a male-dominated society
4	Giving back, helping women in the business world
5	To help break resistance in a gender-dominated society
6	To be effective in reinforcing the mindset in industries to increase gender diversity in leadership
7	To engage in this process, allowing to express opinion and perceptions
8	To be helpful and encourage women in organizations
9	To help re-shape the pipeline and its odds for breaking the glass ceiling phenomenon
10	To help women to be beware of the challenges women face when in management positions
11	To facilitate changes for working women who want to become leaders
12	Interesting research study
13	To support the potential outcome of the research study

participants articulated helping fellow females in business by giving back. Two participants were

interested in the research study and supporting the potential outcome of the research study. These

participants' responses showed vagueness of the major theme, yet in support of women in male-

dominated societies. The demographic data paired with the screening questions offered an

77

overview of the sample population for the research study and the ascertainment of those who volunteered for the study in meeting the study criteria.

Research Methodology Applied to the Data Analysis

The purpose of the research study was to explore discourse and how women perceived its effectiveness in a male-dominated organization. A systemic approach was used in applying the research methodology to the data analysis. Four methods of analysis were applied to the research study: narrative inquiry analysis, hermeneutics/interpretive analysis, content analysis, and inductive and deductive thematic analysis. A generic qualitative design was appropriate for this study allowing the researcher to capture the true meanings of the research study participants' individual and personal stories (Creswell, 2007). The narrative inquiry was significant in the research study to explore social identity issues and the experiences lived in the phenomena (Elliott, 2005). Participants' interviews were recorded and transcribed. Recordings of each interview were listened to numerous times. The transcriptions were read several times. This process was repeated. Then, a final step was taken, listening to the recordings of each participant's interview while reading each one's transcriptions. The recurrent process of the narrative inquiry identified similarities as well as differences of each participant's story and all the participants' experiences collectively.

The narrative inquiry analysis, along with the hermeneutics analysis, was applied to the interview transcripts. The experiences of each participant were compared and contrasted for understanding the similarity of the experiences of other participants. Through continual interpretation and re-interpretation of the participants' narratives, words, and phrases, hermeneutics (interpretative) analysis aided in reconceptualization and understanding of the social world of the study participants.

78

Content analysis and inductive/deductive thematic analysis were used. Codes were generated from the research study sections on power, discourse, and gender. Using NVivo Pro 12 software, notable data were entered into coding nodes. NVivo Pro 12 was instrumental in keyword identification and the frequency counts of nodes from the individual interview data's entirety. Review of coded data, identification of patterns, and rigorous examination of themes were instrumental in developing the pattern codes and identifying connections.

The data collection for the research study included semi-structured interviews, field notes, known as journaling, and member checks. Semi-structured interviews, conducted face-to-face, allowed for personal contact with the interviewee (Vogl, 2013). Non-visual communication appears less personal but more anonymous (Vogl, 2013). The semi-structured interview questions allowed for an open-ended conversational style during the interviews, permitting the phenomenon to emerge and take a holistic shape. "The more open-ended the questioning, the better, as the researcher listens carefully to what people say or do in their life settings" (Creswell, 2009, p. 8). The researcher kept a journal as a means to gathering data of the reflections of the interviews, which also provided "another opportunity for triangulation of data sets at multiple levels" (Janesick, 2011, p. 257). The researcher used field notes, known as memoing when documenting the research study. The function of the field notes to record "what the researcher hears, sees, experiences, and thinks in the course of collecting and reflecting on the process" (Groenewald, 2004, p. 13). To further validate the collected data, the researcher used member checking, allowing each study participant to review her interview transcript, which improves accuracy, validity, and credibility of the recorded interview (Barbour, 2001; Rager, 2005). Member checking was used for a means of triangulation of the data, in which the triangulation included

79

interviews, observation, and field notes. By assessing through triangulation, validity is ensured (Denzin, 2009). Also, participants' confidentiality is protected through member checking.

By applying triangulation to the research study, the reliability of the results enhanced and aided in attaining data saturation (Denzin, 2009), which is reached when there is adequate information to replicate the research study (Fusch & Ness, 2015) and when additional coding is feasible no longer (Guest, Bunce, & Johnson, 2006). Data saturation usually occurs between nine and sixteen interviews (Hennink, Kaiser, & Marconi, 2017).

Presentation of Data and Results of the Analysis

The data was collected from a sample of 13 participants. Interviews revealed insight into their experiences as females in management roles and transitional status to management positions in male-dominated industries. The participants' interviews collected the textural data for answering the research question. The open-ended interview questions allowed the researcher to collect rich information from each participant. Thematic, inductive, and deductive analysis were employed to analyze the data.

Interviews with participants were conducted face-to-face to address the research question of: How do women perceive the effectiveness of discourse as they transition to management status? Thirteen interview questions addressed the research question. Transcripts of answers were available for 10 participants (Table 2). Transcription errors occurred with three of the participants' interviews (Participants 2, 3, and 13); therefore, responses from these participants were not available for analysis (Tables 3 and 8). In some cases, participants did not adequately answer the interview question asked. Based on the answers given, the participants that did not effectively answer some questions, seemed to skirt around the answer, and even after probing, and explanation

80

seemed to misunderstand the question. Thus, in certain instances, not all interview questions had appropriate answers for analysis (Table 2 and 8).

Data Presentation: Summary of Participant Responses

In question 1a, How do individuals in your organization or your previous organization in management positions experience and describe the intersections of gender and discourse?, the overall theme identified was respect (Table 3). Of the ten participants, four adequately answered the question, while six did not answer the question adequately (Table 2 and 3). Of the four participants that answered the question, 100% responded with answers related to the theme of respect (Figure 4). In question 1b, What are the challenges of these intersections of gender and discourse?, the overlapping themes identified were communication and respect (Table 3). Of the 10 participants that transcripts were available for, 80% answered the question adequately, while only 20% did not answer the question (Figure 5). Participants indicated that there are challenges in communication at the intersections of gender and discourse.

In Question 2, How do you experience gender and discourse at these intersections?, the main theme was communication, and the secondary theme was respect. Of the 10 participants, all 10 participants answered the question (Table 3). Sixty percent of the responses related to communication while 40% related to respect. In question 3, How do you construct and negotiate your own self-identity at these intersections [gender and discourse]?, 90% of participants adequately answered the question (Table 4; Figure 6). In question 4, What are the structures of power that influence and shape your discourse and gender in your organization?, no themes were identified because 8 out of 10 participants indicated that there was no structure of power in their organization that shaped discourse and gender relations (Table 4). However, Participant 11 responded, "We have mentorships. We have sponsorships. I think some of the informal structures

81

like the informal mentorships . . . those influence and shape almost more than anything else."

Participant 5 stated, "that's some of the things we talked about in conflict class, you know the gender and social constructs and discourse."

In question 5, What are the implications of understanding your self-identity of discourse and gender and the intersections of these two?, the overlapping themes that emerged were better management and increased success/performance (Figure 7). Out of the 10 participants, five adequately (50%) answered the question, and five (50%) did not give an adequate response to the question (Table 2 and 4). Two participants stated that understanding their self-identity has made them a success and helped them become better at managing their staff and in their treatment of people (Table 4). The evidenced in the statement of Participant 5, "The way I understand my self-identity of discourse and gender helps me relate to my co-works in general." Similarly, Participant 7 stated that "for understanding my self-identity of discourse . . . the more I know myself, the more I understand. I think that's helped me be a better manager of people."

The remaining three participants stated that the importance of understanding their self-identity was through knowledge and success, which leads to increased performance in the workplace (Table 4). Participant 6 exemplified this by stating,

The implications of me understanding my professional self-identity of discourse in gender is I think the fact I do understand it. It allows me to work and do my job and perform. . . . It allows me to perform well in my role. . . . I'm not trying to figure out where I fit because I understand my professional self-identity. . . . So, I think it impacts performance, and I think it impacts [the] level of contentment or degree of contentment with my current position. (Participant 6)

82

Success is gained through knowledge as expressed by Participant 11, "I learned more [knowledge] about my discourse style . . . what I like, what I dislike, what works for me, and what ways I work better." About success, Participant 11 stated, "I know what I like, and I don't mind going after that and asking for what I like and telling people that you know it doesn't work." Participant 1 remarked that understanding the implications of self-identity of discourse and gender relations could be a means to being successful or not being successful, "I think the implications would be whether you're happy with how you've succeeded." In this quote, Participant 1 understands the importance of knowing your self-identity of gender and discourse to be successful in a male-dominated society.

In question 6, How would you describe or identify the level of influence you have in your organizational setting?, the overall theme that emerged was experience. Having influence, required having experience. Out of 10 participants, 100% of the participants answered the question adequately (Table 5). The theme, experience, related to the importance of expertise, respect, and value with being influential in the workplace.

In question 7a, How did you achieve this level of influence?, of the 10 participants, nine (90%) answered the question, while only one (10%) did not answer the question adequately (Table 5). The theme that emerged strongly in the participant's narratives was, again, experience (Figure 8). The participants' focused on their knowledge, education, and age (maturity) as being a key in achieving their levels of influence within their organizations. In question 7b, Is there any way that you might reiterate in which you could be more influential?, of the 10 participants, seven (70%) answered the question adequately, while three (30%) did not (Table 5). The emerging theme from the question was active (Figure 9). Participants' responses expressed the importance of engaging

83

in activities within the organization and outside the organization by volunteering, networking, and becoming involved in community activities.

In question 8, What is your perception of the effectiveness of discourse in your organization (your perception as a female)?, 10 out of 10 (100%) of the participants answered the question adequately (Table 6). Two themes emerged from the question. These were top-down driven and respect. Four (40%) of the participants defined discourse as top-down driven embodied within the sphere of organizational culture. Six (60%) of the participants defined the effects of discourse as respect embodied within the communication. In question 9, How does discourse construct social reality in your organization?, of the 10 participants, four (40%) answered the question, but six (60%) did not (Table 6). Three themes were identified from the four responses: open/honest, respect, and top-down driven (Figure 10). The identified themes were not overwhelmingly noted throughout all the respondents, but, in some cases, more than one theme was noted within a participant's response. Two out of four responses were relevant to openness and honesty. Two of the four responses were regarding top-down driven, and two out of four were related to respect (Figure 10).

For question 10a, What is your participation role in your organization's goal setting processes?, no specific themes were identified (Table 7). This question resulted in answers that grouped as yes or no (Figure 11). Participants had influence, due to their position in the company, on goal setting, or they did not (Figure 12). Six of the 10 participants that transcripts were available for indicated that they did influence their organization's goal setting (Table 7). Participant 7 stated that "I think I have a lot of influence on the goal-setting process because I have the data and the analysis." Participant 1 also had a role in setting the goals. She responded, "I set the goals within whatever parameters he [my boss] determined." Participant 6 said, "I helped craft

84

goals. I helped determine what the outcome's going to be. I helped implement goals." However, four of the participants stated that they did not have any role or influence in the goal setting processes for their company. Participant 11 responded, "Setting goals for the organization, that's done at top-level." Also, Participant 4 stated, "Actually, our goals are set from a top-down scenario." Participant 5 stated, "I don't set any goals."

To be able to answer question 10b effectively, How have you experienced your ability in the organization's goal-setting process?, participants needed to have indicated in question 10a that they influenced the goal-setting process (Figure 11 and 12). Of the six participants that indicated they did have a role in goal setting in the organization, they all felt that they had strong roles in this and that their input was taken into account giving a general feeling of it being a positive experience (Table 7). For example, Participant 7 stated, "I think the CFO definitely listens to me." Additionally, Participant 9 stated, "we do that together and draw the other members or our management team as appropriate, to help establish goals." Participant 1 stated, "I was the person in charge of that within my agency [organization], and I answered to the director of the agency [organization]."

Question 11, What is your description of the influence your discourse has on goal setting process?, is linked to interview questions 10a and 10b (Figure 11 and 12). To be able to answer question 11 effectively, participants had to have answered question 10a in the affirmative (*i.e.*, that they played a role in goal setting for their company). Of the six participants that answered as such, only five answered interview question 11 (Table 7). The general theme for their answers was openness (Figure 12). Participant 9 implied openness when she said, "we do that together and draw in members of our . . . team." Participant 6 responded, "I'm very mindful of what I say in goal setting content. [I] have a posture with my peers and colleagues that is warm and that is open

85

to hearing what they have to say." Participant 1 stated, "I think it's a strong influence since I set the goals. My discourse with my staff would be clear, communicative, and inviting to their feedback."

Question 12 asked, What is your perception of gender and power, and your discourse effectiveness in your organization? This question was redundant, covering topics that were also asked in questions 1a, 2, 4, 8, and 13. The participants attempted to answer the question but seemed to struggle with it. All of the answers were generally off the topic of the question asked. The answers were disparate, and no themes could be identified (Table 8). It is possible since the topics in the question were asked previously, that the participants may have been confused about how to answer differently from statements they had already made. Unintentionally, this question was not needed because it summarizes topics that were covered in the responses previously given. Gender and participant perception were discussed thoroughly in answering questions 1a, 2, and 13. Responses to question 4 and 13 discussed power relevant to its effectiveness. Questions 1a, 2, and 13 also elicited responses about female perceptions of its effectiveness in an organizational society that is male-dominated.

In question 13, How does the relationship between discourse, gender, and power affect your organization?, eight participants (80%) out of 10 answered the question, while two (20%) did not (Table 8). Two themes emerged, which were respect and communication (Figure 13).

Results of Analysis: Themes

Six questions identified the theme of respect (Table 2). Four questions identified the theme of communication (Table 2). Additional themes noted included experience, open and honest, active, top-down driven, and confidence (Table 2). Presentation of identified themes and results (supporting quotations) are below.

86

Active. When asked in what ways the participants thought they might be more influential in their organization, the emerging theme from the question was active (*i.e.,* active in the community and at work; Figure 9). Participants' responses expressed the importance of engaging in activities within the organization and outside the organization by volunteering, networking, and becoming involved in community activities. Participant 4 referred to her limitations because she is geographically located out in the field versus being in the corporate headquarters. However, she stated, "I do try to participate in things as much as I possibly can. I try to help my peers as much as I possibly can just so that when they do have things, they come to me." Participant 11 responded that she could be more influential by, "I think just to be more assertive in participating in surveys like this in different settings, where women are looking for help . . . because I do have a passion for women." Similarly, Participant 7 stated that she could be more influential if, "I reached out to probably some [outside organizations]. So I can definitely network more . . . than I do now."

To be more influential in the organization, Participant 6 stated, "I could volunteer to do more. But I don't volunteer that often to do and engage in internal projects unless I'm asked." To achieve a higher level of influence in the organization, Participant 9 said,

> Sitting on boards is one way for women to be more influential. So I do a little bit of that.
> Getting out and speaking to other business owners and other people, having them
> understand what your business is capable of, what you're capable of, helps me, helps us to
> be more influential. (Participant 9)

Confidence. Another theme that emerged for the interview questions was confidence (Table 2 and 4; Figure 6). The participants stated that being confident in themselves was one way they constructed their self-identity. Participant 7 provided statements that exemplified the theme of confidence when she stated,

87

[In the past, there have been] situations I wish I would have taken up for myself more and I regret that I didn't. Now, I feel like I know myself . . . and I feel like I have more worth now. So, I'm confident that I won't let myself get taken advantage of . . . I don't necessarily let [problems] get to me emotionally. (Participation 7)

Similarly, Participant 9 stated, "I try not to compromise who I am. I do have to make sure that I'm firm and I'm clear . . . and that I don't back down." Moreover, Participant 1 best stated the confidence theme about self-identity when she answered that,

Your self-identity has to – you have to have confidence in yourself and your beliefs, and you have to learn that if you don't stand up for yourself, no one will. And how you negotiate that, that's a question of acceptance and respect that you have to earn.
(Participant 1)

Top down driven. When asked about their perception of the effectiveness of discourse in their organization, top-down driven emerged as one theme and was related to the culture of the organization (Table 2 and 6). Participants' that defined discourse as top-down driven noted that this was embodied within the sphere of organizational culture (Table 6). Participant 11 expounded on this theme about organizational culture.

I'm not sure that it is effective. I see lead managers who are leaders, and they take that serious that they want honest and open communication, but I'm not sure everybody is at that point. So is it effective? We are an old company. There are a lot of entrenched mechanistic ideas that we are working through. (Participant 11)

Participant 6 also related discourse to culture.

I think the current climate in the current culture is in some ways; it's a little bit confusing about what the real values are . . . what's priority? I think the effectiveness of discourse in

88

the organization, we're limited in that area because we are still developing what the true discourse really is. (Participant 6)

Defining discourse embodied in culture, Participant 10 stated, "It's not effective. I think that's just a function of we've had several leaders that are leading the whole entire organization for the whole entire company." Participant 5 stated, "The discourse is going to be shaped [by] influential people or people at the top, people in leadership positions."

When asked how discourse constructs social reality in their organization, top-down driven was again a theme that emerged. Participant 11 implied that social reality was driven from the top by the manger's discourse and straightforward actions towards the group when stating that, "artificial and superficial [behavior] leave[s] room for questioning. So the social reality is very delicate if the leader is not a genuine person." Participant 1 responded about top-down directed, "Everything from the senior level trickles down to the lowest levels of the agency [organization], thereby it defines the social reality. However, it operates at the top . . . [is] how it will operate throughout [the organization]."

Experience. When asked to describe or identify the level of influence the participants had in their organizational setting, the overall theme that emerged was experience (Table 2 and 5). The theme experience was noted in the participants' responses and was related to expertise, respect, being valued, and the importance of having influence. Thus, having the influence required having experience. Participant 6 exemplifies this when she states, "I think I have a significant amount of influence. I am routinely called upon . . . to provide [my] expertise. I have been called upon on several occasions to get my perception or opinion or idea[s]." In comparison, Participant 1 said she has a high level of influence in her organization related to experience and expertise.

It was a large influence. I was one of the senior managers in the organization. I was a

senior woman in my group and in my technical skill . . . so my command of and knowledge

and experience and what service I provided to the [organization], they really couldn't

question. (Participant 1)

The concept of time in the job and experience relating to one's level of influence and value was

further stressed by Participant 8, who implied that being in a position longer gave her more

experience and influence.

I would say in this organization [my level of influence is] about a 5. In my previous

position, I would put my influence at a like an 8 or 9. And the reason I would say that is

because I've only been in this position for a year and a half. (Participant 8)

Experience was also a strong theme that emerged when participants spoke of how they had

achieved their level of influence (Table 2 and 5; Figure 8). The participants focused on their

knowledge, education, and age (maturity) as being a key to achieving their levels of influence

within their organizations. Participant 11 provided how she achieved her level of influence.

I believe how I achieved the level of influence that I have is one through education. Getting

my degree, going through school, and getting that knowledge, . . . bringing it back to the

workplace and looking for ways to influence, implement, take those actions [and] have that

discourse with [others]. (Participant 11)

Participant 11 further states, regarding achieving her level of influence, that

I believe [I achieved my level of influence because of] my age because I'm an older

female . . . My age has a lot to do with it. I've gone through a lot of learning, probably the

school of hard knocks. So you know you . . . learn. (Participant 11)

90

To achieve her level of influence regarding knowledge, Participant 4 responded, "I've tried to be the subject matter expert on our systems, policies, and procedures." Participant 6 related her level of influence was from her previous job, bringing that knowledge with her. Participant 6 stated, "by serving in these professional roles, it is the [additional things] that really adds value to who I am. So I think it is serving in those [previous] roles that really helps my value." Participant 6 brought the organization a different voice and different ways of doing things which manifested to allow her greater influence in the organization. Similarly, Participant 1 stated that she achieved her level of influence "through training, experience and the luck of having a good female supervisor." In achieving a level of influence with her organization, Participant 8 relates to her knowledge, "I achieved my level of influence by my competence . . . knowing my stuff . . . having the knowledge and being able to apply it . . . to solve business problems."

Open and honest. When asked how discourse constructed social reality in organizations, open and honest was a theme that emerged (Table 2 and 8; Figure 10). Participant 7 noted, "People, for the most part, are able to voice an opinion. There are enough openness and respect of each other that we're able to communicate so it's really nice to have a place where you can be open." Participant 11 responded,

> [It] is very artificial and superficial. Because a couple of years ago, our company had a
>
> female in [a] position, and she was highly, highly, highly respected [and] was very
>
> perceptively open and honest. If she couldn't tell you something, she would say 'I can't
>
> disclose this information,' and I think when you're honest with the group, it doesn't leave
>
> room for questioning. It doesn't leave the group with trying to make up an idea. Right?
>
> So, how the discourse constructs? I think . . . people see through superficially. When there
>
> is a female in a leadership position, and it's not genuine, people see through that, and it's

91

probably the same way for a male . . . but women are put on . . . a light in a microscope is really . . . shown on a female in that position [leadership]. So, the social reality is not honest and open. (Participant 11)

Furthermore, when asked about their description of the influence their discourse had on goal setting processes, openness and honesty was again a noted theme (Table 2 and 7). Participant 9 implied openness when she said, "we do that together and draw in members of our team." Participant 6 responded, "I'm very mindful of what I say in goal setting content. [I] have a posture with my peers and colleagues that is warm, and that is open to hearing what they have to say." Participant 1 stated, "I think it's a strong influence since I set the goals. My discourse with my staff would be clear, communicative, and inviting to their feedback."

Communication. When participants were asked about the challenges they perceived at the intersections of gender and discourse in their organizations, the theme of communication was revealed (Table 2 and 3; Figure 5). Participants indicated that there are challenges in communication at the intersections of gender and discourse. These challenges, they felt, are related to the expressions of views and the differences in styles of communication between males and females. Participant 1 supported this theme by saying, "You're going to have the challenge of women and their ideas being heard. A woman can be challenged by even putting forth her views and opinions because she's being taught not to." Participant 1 further expressed that "challenges are looking defensive if you try to stand up for having your views heard and accepted as your views and not some male views." Participant 10 stated that there are challenges in the way individuals communicate. "Genders communicate differently, and that respectful conversation is needed. I think we're at a crossroads of change and how we communicate with each other, and it's not coming easy" (Participant 10). Similarly, Participant 8 expressed that in a male-dominated

92

society, "Historically, females have a very hard time. We, as a gender, are not fully accepted. You kind of have to assert yourself. I am qualified to be here. I add value to an organization."

Challenges of the intersections of gender and discourse, as revealed by Participant 9, have "more to do with a lack of thorough communication which, I think, is at the root of a lot of problems." Participant 9 further alluded to the "challenging part is trying to understand the viewpoint of the other person. [Therefore, the challenge is to] communicate effectively, clearly, and concisely and to be received as intended." Moreover, Participant 12 stated, "You have to deal with men and women a little differently. Sometimes women can be more emotional; sometimes men can be less able to get subtleties. You kind of have to be more direct."

Participants also responded with communication as a theme when asked how they experienced the intersections of gender and discourse (Table 2 and 3). Participant 10, alluding to communication style is a challenge regarding the situation, stated, "I can strategically figure out how to communicate and actually, I have found that sending an email . . . with details is the best way. That's how I interact."

Participant 11 offered statements that exemplified her experience at the intersections of gender and discourse. She said, "I have to be very assertive. I have to make sure that I'm heard and seen, and I'm a valuable employee, and I'm flexible. I make sure that those around me, not just immediate management, know that." Participant 5 spoke about the need for learning some skills for assertiveness that might demonstrate credibility to communication. She stated, "I've learned that being assertive is important and that my opinion and my input matters. I have to realize who my audience is, but . . . be straight to the point. I've noticed that's more of a male approach."

93

Altered communication style was a primary theme when participants were asked how they construct and negotiate their self-identity at the intersection of gender and discourse (Table 2 and 4; Figure 6). Participant 8 stated that in dealing with employees,

> I should say I don't change my identity, but I do. I temper, I guess, the way I come across. I'm very gregarious. When it comes to interacting with somebody new, I reserve myself to see how they react and how they are as a personality, and I temper how I act with them. (Participant 8)

Participant 12 commented that she does not think that she has to construct or negotiate her self-identity because of gender. However, she provided support for the theme of altering communication style when she said,

> There are some managers that I deal with that I do have to be aggressive [with]. I feel like sometimes, to be taken seriously, but it's never occurred to me that, that is because of my gender. I know how I have to commutate with them . . . It's just the way I have to be with certain people. (Participant 12)

In support of the theme of altering communication, Participant 10 provided the following statements.

> I think you develop strategies on how to work with different individuals because he's [my boss] not going to change the way that he works. So, I think it's not as if I change myself, but I change my strategies on how I'm going to deal with those people. (Participant 10)

When asked how the relationship between discourse, gender, and power affects their organization, one of the themes that emerged from the responses was communication (Table 2 and 8; Figure 13). Participant 1 responded, "We have to work across lines of influence and communication, and you have to convince your peers in those areas of the best way, first of all, to

work with you on something." Participant 10 stated, "I have to actually navigate with how I'm going to communicate with certain people." Participant 9 said, "[If] two genders just are not hearing each other because of the way they- the manner in which- they are communicating, then it's ineffective."

Respect. When study participants' were asked how individuals in management positions experience and describe the intersections of gender and discourse, the overwhelming theme was respect (Table 2 and 3; Figure 4). Two participants indicated the lack of respect in relation to male-dominated societies, identified in part as a good ol' boy system or network (Table 3). The need for respect was also suggested by four of the participants as required for positive intersections of gender and discourse (Table 3).

The good ol' boy system or network and its lack of respect for female employees were described as bad at the intersections of gender and discourse by two participants. Participant 7 responded, "It was kind of the good ol' boy network. They don't really respect women as much. They just wanted me to be kind of the meek little female." Similarly, Participant 5 indicated that the lack of respect plays a role in the intersections of gender and discourse. As noted by Participant 5, "There is opportunity, but I'm not sure the same level of opportunity exists for males as for females. I think a lot of it hinges on who you know and not what you know, that good ol' boy network."

The importance of respect in the intersections of gender and discourse is exemplified by Participant 1.

You do see a lot of interesting exchanges between male and female as for as how generally the women are treated, and their ideas are accepted or not accepted, which is rarely on par

95

with males. The stronger females . . . that have been around for a while, and because of

their positions, their views are accepted. (Participant 1)

Moreover, Participant 1 stated that "Company cultures have come a long way in support of women

in business and women progressing." Participant 11 stated, "I do see how they treat each other,

and it's very respectful in all ways." Participants also responded with respect as a theme when

asked what were the challenges at the intersections of gender and discourse (Table 2 and 3; Figure

5). Participant 7 stated, "If they didn't value [respect] my time, then I didn't want to be there."

Participant 1, about the need for respect, stated, "At the senior level, the challenge is looking

defensive if you try to stand up for having your view heard and accepted." Additionally,

Participant 8 stressed the need for respect at these intersections when she said, "you kind of have

to assert yourself."

Participants also responded with respect as a theme when asked how they experienced

intersections of gender and discourse (Table 2 and 3). Participant 11 stated that "I am a valuable

employee . . . as a female, and I come with a set of skills that can be utilized." Participant 10

recounted a story providing an example of the importance of respect as an example of how she has

experienced both respect and the lack of respect.

We were on a call that I was leading. It was my case. He [the lawyer that we were

conferencing with] specifically asked our male counterpart for the answer. My co-worker,

a male, redirected the lawyer to me and said, [the conference leader] would like to answer

that for you . . . this is her case. I know nothing about what you're talking about. I'm here

for support. (Participant 10)

While, Participant 7 stated that, "If they don't value [me, respect], then I don't want to be here."

96

When participants spoke of their perception of the effectiveness of discourse in their organization, the theme respect emerged (Table 2 and 3). Respect viewed through the participants' lenses is value, knowledge, and trust. Relevant to respect, Participant 4 stated, "It just takes a while to gain their trust to show them that you know what you're talking about and that you have their back and to get to know them and for them to trust you." Participant 7 offered a response that exemplified her as being valued regarding effective discourse (communication), "I feel valued and I feel supported . . . [here]. Previous places that I've worked, I've definitely not felt that way. So, having a place that just values my input and the work that I do is fantastic." Participant 8 related knowledge and trust to effective communication (discourse). She responded with an example.

> One female that I think has the most influence [effectiveness] in discourse is the VP of IT. I'm not so sure it's a matter of her being female. It's an area that most people don't have a lot of knowledge in. And so, the things that she says and the ideas she brings up has more weight than the ideas that I might have because everybody thinks they know [policies and procedures]. (Participant 8)

Therefore, Participant 8 places trust in the co-worker and her knowledge.

Additionally, participants' responded with respect as a theme when asked how discourse constructs social reality in their organization (Table 2 and 3; Figure 10). Respect fosters trust as indicated in the response from Participant 4, who stated, "It factors into every social interaction as we partner with management. It's a trust issue . . . rather than . . . a gender issue." Participant 7 said about respect and social reality, "I think there's enough respect of each other."

Finally, when participants' were asked about how the relationship between discourse, gender, and power affects their organization, respect was again noted as a theme (Table 2 and 8; Figure 13). Participants' responses equated respect to being valued.

97

Because if you don't feel like you're valued, it's in a way, subconsciously encourages you

not to work hard, maybe not to try as hard, maybe not to be as innovative as you could be.

And so, I definitely think that affects the level of productivity of a workforce. (Participant

7)

Participant 1 stated, "If you have already gained the respect and buy-in from them as it were, that

makes your life a lot easier and theirs." Participant 10 responded, "Now those people that we have

[that] I've built the rapport with and have been able to kind of crack the net, it's easy because I've

already done that upfront work and they're already open." Participant 9 responded,

And then gender- if we have people who are not providing their full potential because they

are afraid to, or if we have people who are trampling on the ideas of other people because

they're not respectful, then we have a problem. (Participant 9)

Table 2. Summary of Data by Question

Question	No. of Interviews Transcribed	No. of Participants That Answered the Question	No. of Participants That Did Not Answer The Question*	Results/Themes Identified
1a	10	4	6	Respect
1b	10	8	2	Communication and Respect
2	10	10	0	Communication and Respect
3	10	8	2	Confidence and Alteration of Communication Styles
4	10	10	0	-[a]
5	10	5	5	Better Management and Increases Success/Performance
6	10	10	0	Experience
7a	10	9	1	Experience
7b	10	7	3	Active
8	10	10	0	Top-Down Driven and Respect
9	10	4	6	Open/Honest, Respect and Top-Down Directed
10a	10	10	0	-[b]
10b	10	5	1	Positive Experience[c]
11	10	5[d]	1[d]	Openness[d]
12	10	6	4	-[e]
13	10	8	2	Respect and Communication

Note. [a]No theme was identified. This is a direct question with the answers given grouping as, "Yes, there are structures in place, and they are…" or "No, there are no structures in place." [b]No theme was identified. This is a direct question with the answers given grouping as, "Yes, I have influence." or "No, I don't." [c]Participants that answered question 10a as having an influence on goal setting in their company experienced their ability in the process in a positive manner. [d]Questions 10 (a and b) and 11 are linked. Only those participants that responded that they had influence in the goal setting processes in Question 10a (six participants) could effectively answer question 11. [e]No themes were identified for this question. *Participants deemed not to have answered the question in their response typically talked around the topic never giving a clear, discernable answer or spoke off-topic. Both of these resulted in the inability to decipher an answer to the questions from the response. This, in turn, then, did not allow for that response to the question to be used to discern themes associated with the question. Based on the answers given, the participants that did not effectively answer these questions seemed, even after, probing, and further explanation in some cases, to misunderstand or simply did not understand the question. For a list of questions, see Appendix A.

Table 3. Themes Identified From Participants' Answers to Interview Questions 1a, 1b, and 2

Participant	Question 1a	Question 1b	Question 2
1	Respect	Communication/Respect	Lack of Respect
2	TE	TE	TE
3	TE	TE	TE
4	Did Not Answer	Did Not Answer	No Challenges
5	Respect/GOB	Did Not Answer	Communication
6	Did Not Answer	No Challenges	Respect
7	Lack of Respect/ GOB	Lack of Respect/ GOB	Respect/GOB
8	Did Not Answer	Communication	Communication
9	Did Not Answer	Communication	Communication
10	Did Not Answer	Communication	Communication
11	Respect	Lack of Respect	Communication/Respect
12	Did Not Answer	Communication	Communication
13	TE	TE	TE

Note. TE = Transcription error, GOB = Good 'ol boy, Lack of respect = need for respect, Didn't Answer = Did not answer the question adequately. Question 1a = How do individuals in your organization in management positions experience and describe the intersections of gender and discourse? Question 1b = What are the challenges of these intersections of gender and discourse? Question 2 = How do you experience gender and discourse at these intersections?

Table 4 Themes Identified From Participants' Answers to Interview Questions 3, 4, and 5

Participant	Question 3	Question 4	Question 5
1	Confidence	No Structure	Increased Success/Performance
2	TE	TE	TE
3	TE	TE	TE
4	Did Not Answer	No Structure	Did Not Answer
5	Confidence	Conflict Class	Better Manager
6	Do Not Need To	No Structure	Increased Success/Performance
7	Confidence	No Structure	Better Manager
8	Communication	No Structure	Did Not Answer
9	Confidence	No Structure	Did Not Answer
10	Communication	No Structure	Did Not Answer
11	Did Not Answer	Mentorship	Increased Success/Performance
12	Communication	No structure	Did Not Answer
13	TE	TE	TE

Note. TE = Transcription error, Didn't Answer = Did not answer the question adequately. Question 3 = How do you construct and negotiate your self-identity at these intersections? Question 4 = What are the structures of power that influence and shape your discourse and gender in your organization? Question 5 = What are the implications for understanding your self-identity of discourse and gender in the intersection of these two?

Table 5. Themes Identified From Participants' Answers to Interview Questions 6, 7a, and 7b

Participant	Question 6	Question 7a	Question 7b
1	Experience	Experience	Rapport
2	TE	TE	TE
3	TE	TE	TE
4	Experience	Experience	Active
5	Experience	Did Not Answer	Did Not Answer
6	Experience	Experience	Active
7	Experience	Experience	Active
8	Experience	Experience	Communication
9	Experience	Communication	Active
10	Experience	Rapport	Did Not Answer
11	Varies	Experience	Active
12	Limited	Experience	Did Not Answer
13	TE	TE	TE

Note. Didn't Answer TE = Transcription error, Didn't Answer = Did not answer the question adequately. Question 6= How would you describe or identify the level of influence you have in your organizational setting? Question 7a = How did you achieve this level of influence? Question 7b = Is there any way in which you could be more influential?

Table 6. Themes Identified From Participants' Answers to Interview Questions 8 and 9

Participant	Question 8	Question 9
1	Respect	Top Down Driven
2	TE	TE
3	TE	TE
4	Respect	Respect
5	Top Down Driven	Did Not Answer
6	Top Down Driven	Did Not Answer
7	Respect	Open and Honest/Respect
8	Respect	Did Not Answer
9	Respect	Did Not Answer
10	Top Down Driven	Did Not Answer
11	Top Down Driven	Open and Honest/Top Down Driven
12	Respect	Did Not Answer
13	TE	TE

Note. TE = Transcription error, Didn't Answer = Did not answer the question adequately. Question 8 = What is your perception of the effectiveness of discourse in your organization? Question 9 = How does discourse construct social reality in your organization?

103

Table 7. Themes Identified From Participants' Answers to Interview Questions 10a, 10b, and 11

Participant	Question 10a	Question 10b	Question 11
1	Has Role/Influence	Positive Experience	Open/Honest
2	TE	TE	TE
3	TE	TE	TE
4	No Role	-	-
5	No Role	-	-
6	Has Role/Influence	Positive Experience	Open/Honest
7	Has Role/Influence	Positive Experience	Open/Honest
8	No Role	-	-
9	Has Role/Influence	Positive Experience	Open/Honest
10	Has Role/Influence	Did Not Answer	Did Not Answer
11	No Role	-	-
12	Has Role/Influence	Positive Experience	Open/Honest
13	TE	TE	TE

Note. Didn't Answer = Did not answer the question adequately, TE = Transcription error, - = could not answer this questions because they did not have a role in the company's goal setting process as answered in Question 10a. Question 10a = What is your participation role in your organization's goal-setting processes? Question 10b = How have you experienced your ability in the organization's goal-setting processes? Question 11 = What is your description of the influence your discourse has on goal-setting processes?

Table 8. Themes Identified From Participants' Answers to Interview Questions 12 and 13

Participant	Question 12	Question 13
1	Lack of Respect/Open & Honest	Respect/Communication
2	TE	TE
3	TE	TE
4	Did Not Answer	Did Not Answer
5	Assertive	No Effect
6	Good	Respect
7	Assertive	Respect
8	Did Not Answer	Did Not Answer
9	Communication	Respect/Communication
10	Did Not Answer	Respect/Communication
11	Not Open /Honest	No Effect
12	Did Not Answer	No Effect
13	TE	TE

Note. Didn't Answer = Did not answer the question adequately, TE = Transcription error. Question 12 = What is your perception of gender, power, and your discourse effectiveness in your organization? Question 13 = How does the relationship between discourse, gender, and power affect your level of productivity in your organization?
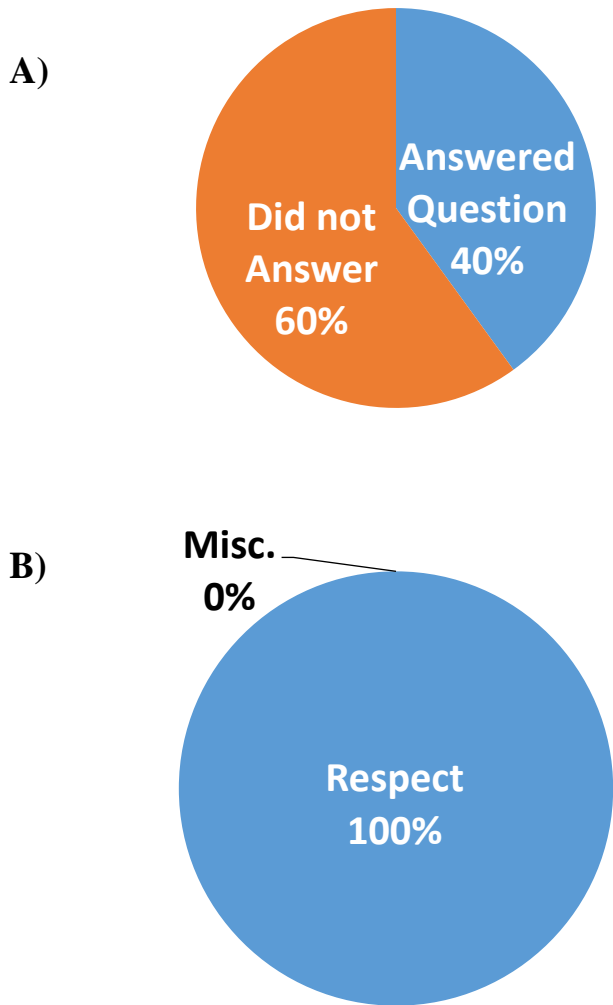
A)

Answered Question 40%

Did not Answer 60%

B)

Misc. 0%

Respect 100%

Figure 4. Participant responses to interview Question 1a: How do individuals in organizations in management positions experience and describe the intersections of gender and discourse? A) Percent of the 10 participants whose interviews were successfully transcribed that answered or did not answer the question. Not answering the question was determined as answers that spoke to off-topic ideas or stories/examples that that did not actually address the question asked. B) Percent representation of the identified themes in the answers of the participants that did answer the question.
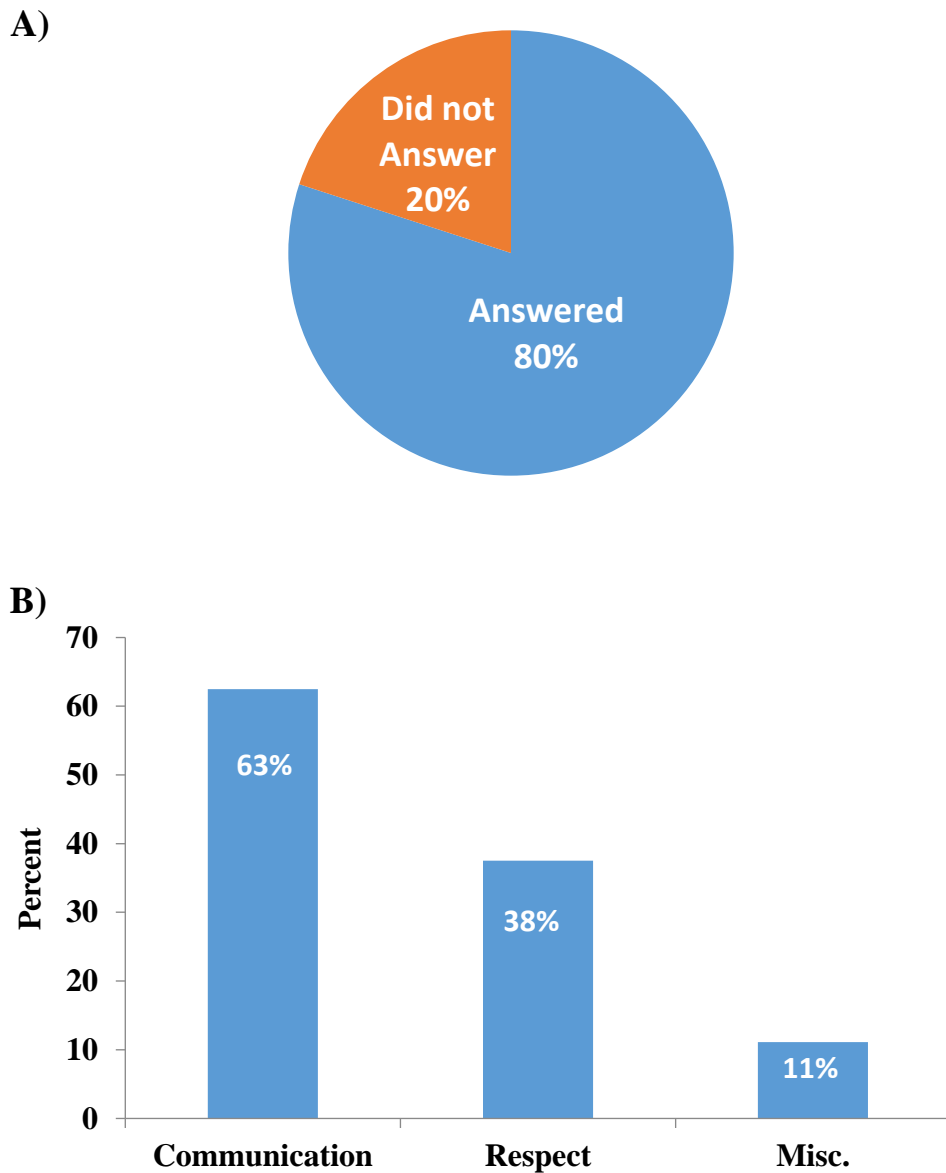
A)

B)

Figure 5. Participant responses to interview Question 1b: What are the challenges of these intersections of gender and discourse? A) Percent of the 10 participants whose interviews were successfully transcribed that answered or did not answer the question. Not answering the question was determined as answers that spoke to off-topic ideas or stories/examples that that did not actually address the question asked. B) Percent representation of the identified themes in the answers of the participants that did answer the question. Some responses had more than one theme; therefore, percentage totals are above 100% (*i.e.,* one participant responded with both respect and communication). Misc. = Miscellaneous (answers that did not group into themes).
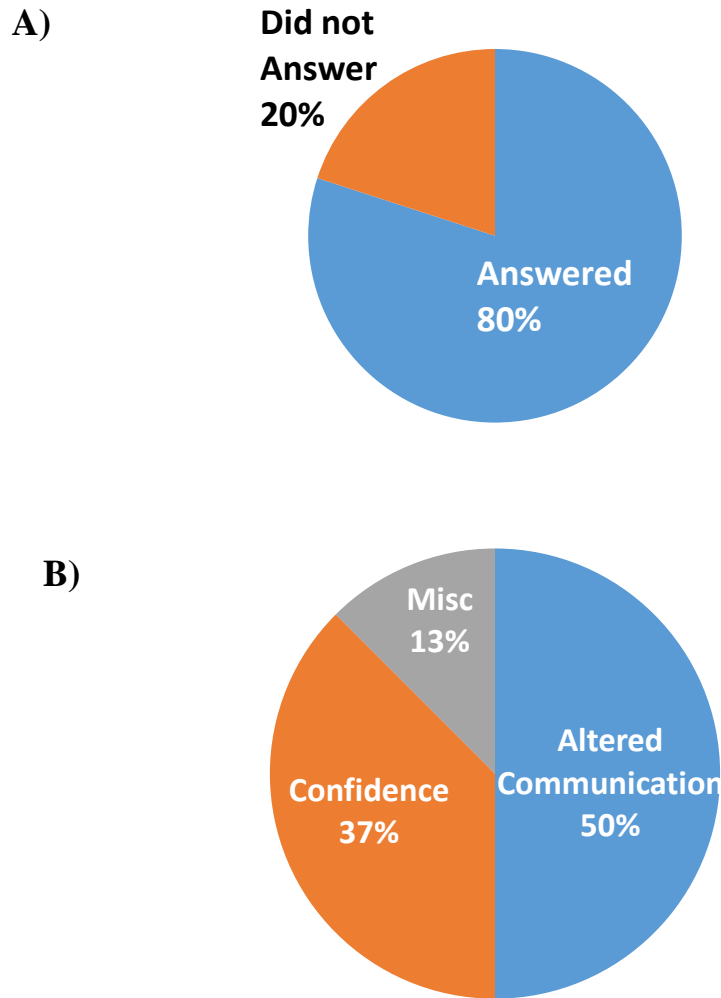
107

Figure 6. Participant responses to interview Question 3: How do you construct and negotiate your own self-identity at the intersections of gender and discourse? A) Percent of the 10 participants whose interviews were successfully transcribed that answered or did not answer the question. Not answering the question was determined as answers that spoke to off-topic ideas or stories/examples that that did not actually address the question asked. B) Percent representation of the identified themes in the answers of the participants that did answer the question.

A)
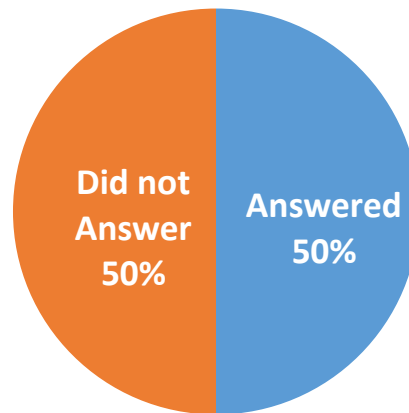
B)

Figure 7. Participant responses to interview Question 5: What are the implications of understanding your self-identity of discourse and gender and intersections of these two? A) Percent of the 10 participants whose interviews were successfully transcribed that answered or did not answer the question. Not answering the question was determined as answers that spoke to off-topic ideas or stories/examples that that did not actually address the question asked. B) Percent representation of the identified themes in the answers of the participants that did answer the question.
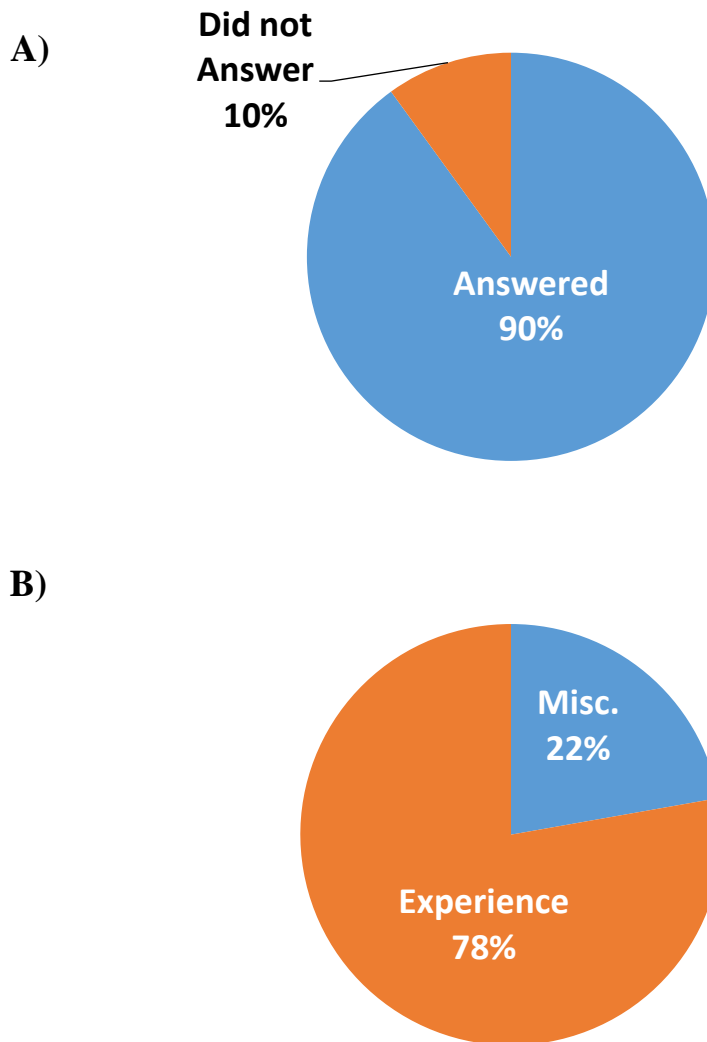
Figure 8. Participant responses to interview Question 7a: How did you achieve this level of influence? A) Percent of the 10 participants whose interviews were successfully transcribed that answered or did not answer the question. Not answering the question was determined as answers that spoke to off-topic ideas or stories/examples that that did not actually address the question asked. B) Percent representation of the identified themes in the answers of the participants that did answer the question. Misc. = Miscellaneous (answers that did not group into themes).
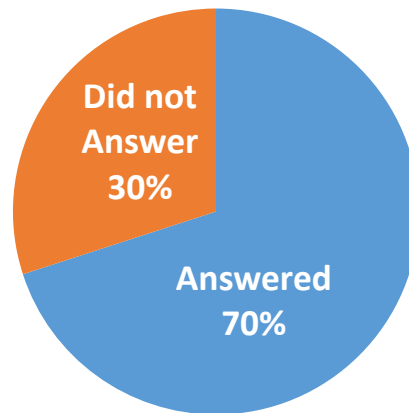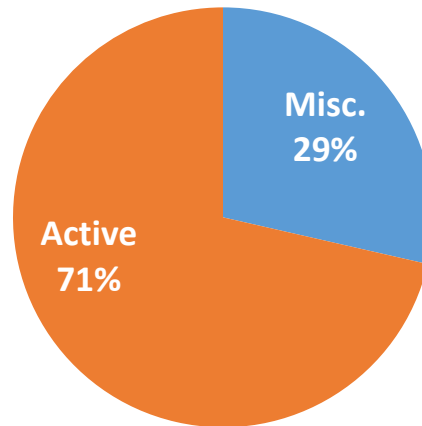
A)

B)

Figure 9. Participant responses to interview Question 7b: Is there any way that you might reiterate in which you could be more influential? A) Percent of the 10 participants whose interviews were successfully transcribed that answered or did not answer the question. Not answering the question was determined as answers that spoke to off-topic ideas or stories/examples that that did not actually address the question asked. B) Percent representation of the identified themes in the answers of the participants that did answer the question. Misc. = Miscellaneous (answers that did not group into themes).
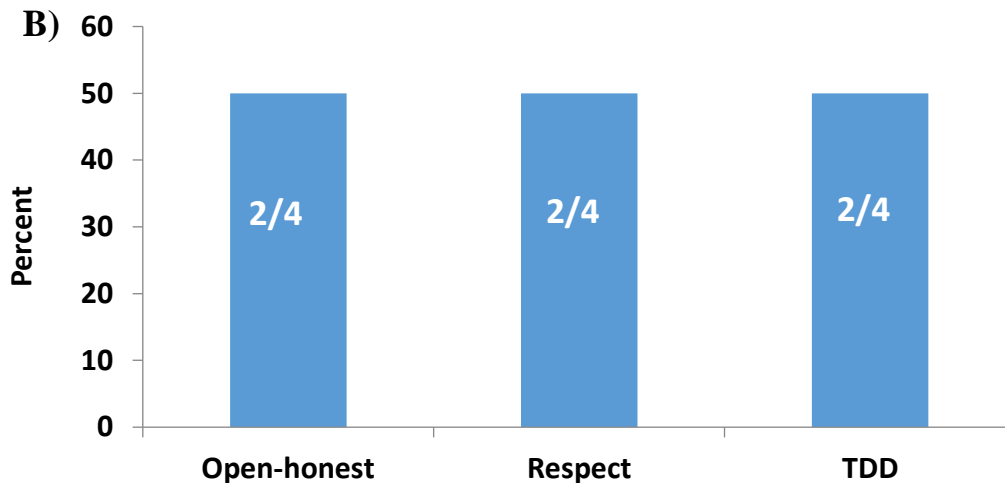
A)

B)

Figure 10. Participant responses to interview Question 9: How does discourse construct social reality in your organization? A) Percent of the 10 participants whose interviews were successfully transcribed that answered or did not answer the question. Not answering the question was determined as answers that spoke to off-topic ideas or stories/examples that that did not actually address the question asked. B) Percent representation of the identified themes in the answers of the four participants that did answer the question. Some responses contained more than one theme, such that two out four (2/4 or 50%) answered for each of the three themes identified. TDD= Top down driven
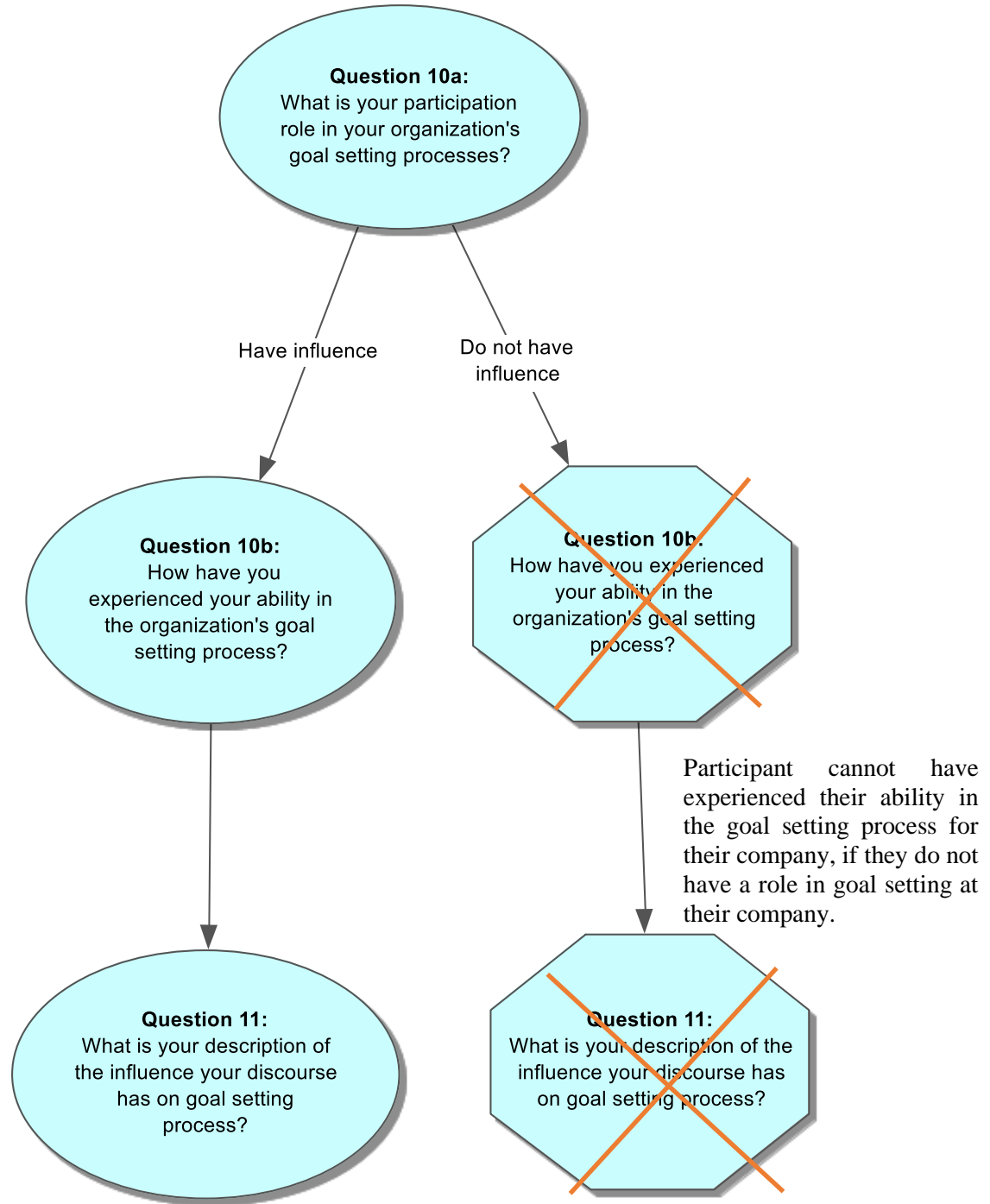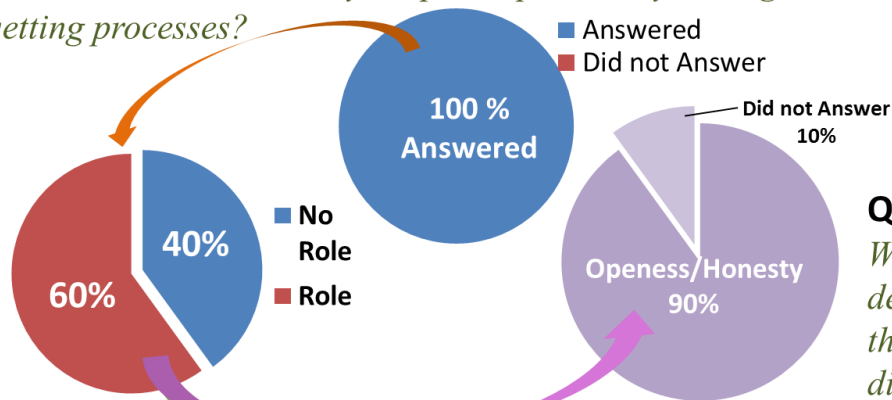
Figure 11. Diagram of linkage between Questions 10a, 10b, and 11.

Figure 12. Participant responses to the linked interview Questions 10a, 10b, and 11. All ten of the participants answered question 10a. Of those, 40% (*i.e.*, 4) indicated that they participated (*i.e.*, had a role in) in their organization's goal-setting process. These four participants were then able to answer the linked question of 10b and 11. Of the four, 100% indicated in question 10b that their experience in the goal-setting process was a positive one (*i.e.,* they had influence and what they said was heard). Furthermore, 100% of those four participants indicated in their responses to question 11 that openness/honesty in discourse had the most influence on the goal-setting process.

A)
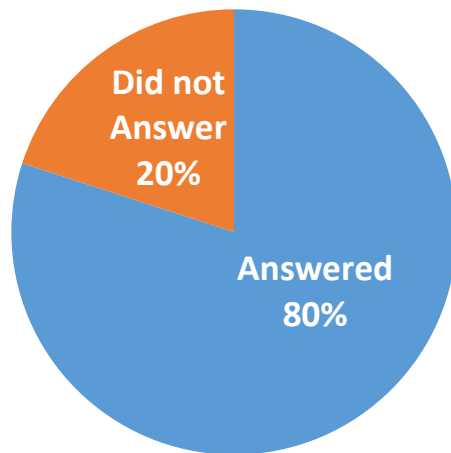
B)
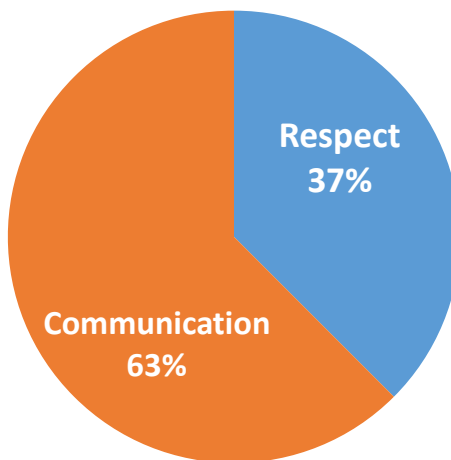
Figure 13. Participant responses to interview Question 13: How does the relationship between discourse, gender, and power affect your organization? A) Percent of the 10 participants whose interviews were successfully transcribed that answered or did not answer the question. Not answering the question was determined as answers that spoke to off-topic ideas or stories/examples that that did not actually address the question asked. B) Percent representation of the identified themes in the answers of the participants that did answer the question.

115

Summary

This generic qualitative research study was intended to provide a thorough understanding of females' perception of discourse, gender, and power in a male-dominated society. The central research question, How do women perceive the effectiveness of discourse as they transition to management status?, was addressed in interviews with ten study participants using 13 interview questions. By applying triangulation, the reliability of the results was enhanced.

Taken together, the overwhelming or recurring themes associated with the interview questions were communication, respect, experience, and openness and honesty, which suggests that these themes are highly important to the central research question. Participants revealed an understanding of how females experienced their challenges in male-dominated organizations. These themes also indicated that communication and respect are important to the central question. In addition, experience and openness and honesty themes are characteristic of women's perception of the effectiveness of discourse, gender, and power in male dominant organizations. The next chapter, Chapter 5, moves the research study to the discussion and interpretation of the results.

CHAPTER 5. DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENCATIONS

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the overall evaluation and interpretation of the study results. It presents the research study within the context of organizational research on females, discourse, gender, and power; thereby, adding to the body of knowledge in the field. This chapter, also, discusses the research study's assessment of females' perception of the effectiveness of discourse in the transition to management status, problematizing their experiences, within male-dominated organizations. This research study articulates the implications of the findings that will lead to an understanding of females' perception of discourse effectiveness in organizations. The study subsequently addresses a gap in the current body of research.

In this chapter, the results of the study in connection to the central research question are discussed, compared, and contrasted to prior research and theory in the literature. Thus, the findings are placed within the wider-reaching organizational studies on discourse, gender, and power. Limitations of the research study are discussed, and recommendations for further research are included, followed by an overall conclusion.

Summary of the Results

In organizational settings, understanding of the interrelatedness of gender, discourse, and power is important. The social worlds of organizations are constructed through discourse. Differences in communication styles between men and women are often a result of gender bias. These differences can generate power conflicts in leadership discourse. The goal of the study was to expand the body of knowledge regarding discourse effectiveness, gender, and power within organizations by exploring how women within organizations perceive concepts and their interrelations.

117

According to Volpe and Murphy (2011), gender stereotyping barriers are erected continuously against women's careers despite the growing need for diverse talent in organizations. Grissom et al. (2012) addressed the lack of equal representation in management is a result of differences in women's and men's communication style. Through the masculine lens, Harrison et al. (2014) connected women and men as being positioned differently by dominant discourse.

The methodology used for the study was a generic qualitative study, utilizing thirteen participant interviews, field notes, and observations. The overwhelming themes associated with the interview questions were communication and respect, which are highly important to the central research question. Open and honest, experience, and top-down driven were secondary themes.

Discussion of the Results

The research question for this study was: How do women perceive the effectiveness of discourse as they transition to management status? The research study described the experiences of women, guided by the research problem using thirteen open-ended, semi-structured interview questions. These semi-structured questions were designed to elicit participants' responses to answer the research question above. Each participant's interview responses were transcribed independently and verbatim. Data analysis provided textual-structural descriptions that yielded a composite textural structure that channeled a global essence of the experiences for the group of women in the study.

Thirteen participants were recruited and interviewed; however, transcription errors resulted in ten transcribed interviews. The overall themes emerging from the interview questions were communication, respect, open and honest, experience, confidence, active, and top-down driven. These themes emerged from the thematic analysis of the data from study participants. The research study's findings revealed that the women interviewed described difficulties with each

118

aspect of gender, power, and discourse in the workplace. The primary themes identified from the

interviews were communication and respect. The themes of openness and honesty, experience,

and top-down driven were secondary themes. The observed themes indicated women's perception

of the effectiveness of discourse, gender, and power in male-dominated organizations, while

confidence and being active were minor themes. However, communication, respect, experience,

confidence, and openness and honesty emerged as the most important to the central research

question.

Interview questions 4, 10a, 10b, and 12 had no discernible themes when assessing

participant responses. Question 4 asked about structures in the workplace that would shape

discourse.   The overwhelming answer to this question was that there were no structures in place to

address this. No specific theme emerged from these responses, although one participant mentioned

informal mentorships, and another mentioned conflict resolution class. Interview question 10a

elicited one of two responses: (a) Yes, I have influence in goal setting for my company or (b) No, I

do not have influence in goal setting for my company. No theme emerged from this. Moreover, if

the answer to interview question 10a was No, then the participant could not answer question 10b or

question 11. The yes/no wording of interview question 10a and the follow-up wording of question

10b and 11 (requiring a positive response in 10a to be able to answer) resulted in no themes

emerging from these questions. Interview question 12 re-asked things from other questions. The

answers from the participants were disparate and often off topic, which led to no identifiable theme

for interview question 12. Due to the wording and structure of interview questions 4, 10a, 10b,

and 12, these interview questions did not contribute to answering the central research question.

For interview questions 5 and 9, one-half of the participants answered the question, while

one-half did not. From question 1a, only 40% answered the actual question. Based on the answers

119

given, the participants that did not effectively answer these questions seemed, even after coaching and explanation in some cases, to misunderstand the question. The wording of these questions may have been unclear. However, from the half that answered these questions, themes were discernible. Discussion of these themes, along with themes from other interview questions, are below.

The minor theme of active came from question 7b. The theme of active encompassed volunteering for more things at work from committees and projects to survey participation. The theme of active was not, however, limited to becoming more active within the specific workplace, but also encompassed becoming active in the community. Community-based actions included speaking to other business, sitting on boards, and joining surveys. The participants, together, felt that being active built rapport and showed participation and initiative. Moreover, many participants felt that being more active lead to increased experience, knowledge, and respect.

The minor theme, of confidence, emerged from the research study from question 3. The participants expressed that to have confidence, one must know her self-identity and beliefs. By knowing one's self-identity, they felt that one is better able to negotiate and gain acceptance and respect. Participants indicated that through their confidence, they do not compromise themselves. They are clear, concise, and firm. They do not back down and insist one must stand up for one's self. They can change outwardly perceived identities, temper the way they come across in conversation, and reserve their self in reaching individuals depending on the given individual's personality. Therefore, confidence and understanding self-identity help facilitate interactions with others, enhance productivity, and increase success in the organization. Participants indicated that confidence comes through knowledge, education, experience, and age.

120

The secondary theme, top-down driven about discourse and its effectiveness in culture came from responses to interview questions 8 and 9. From these responses, the interwoven elements of the organizational culture, driven by top-down leadership, are crucial to the effectiveness of discourse in organizations. From the participants' perspective, discourse about the culture is generally good, is still developing, or needs improvement. Participants expressed that everything trickling down from the top defines the social reality of the organization, and that accepted discourse relies on what leaders and management prescribe. In some cases of top-down driven positive discourse and equality, responses suggested that this was a facade that was not evidenced in the day-to-day interactions that occurred.

Experience also materialized as a secondary theme in the study from participants' responses to interview questions 6 and 7a. Participants believe that knowledge, gained through their experience, gives respect and appreciation in organizations. Having experience in the organization shapes the level of influence and builds rapport one has in the organizational structure. Also, growing the role in an organization through experience offers opportunities for advancement in the organization. Knowledge gained through education can also impact the level of influence one has in the organization. Participants indicated that without education in some area of expertise, they would not be successful in achieving career goals, gaining responsibility, and, ultimately, the possibility of opportunities for career advancement in the organization.

The final secondary theme, open and honest, appeared from the participants' interviews in response to questions 9 and 11. Participants in the study explained that individuals who have a strong influence on the organization and the organizations' goal setting processes have open discourse. Voices must be heard, and opinions matter. Thus, discourse must be open, honest, truthful, genuine, two-way, and collaborative, and defined in the relationships with individuals in

121

organizational societies. Participants noted that building good relationships with peers, subordinates, and all management levels are vital, resulting in trustworthiness and a sense of safety.

The primary theme, communication, emerged in interview questions 1b, 2, 3, and 13 and overlapped with the theme of respect in interview questions 1a, 1b, 2, 8, 9, and 13. Participants stated that there are challenges in the workplace as a result of the differences in communication conduct between men and women. Genders communicate differently. Lack of thorough communication is the root of many challenges occurring at the intersection of gender and discourse. Therefore, for communication to be effective, it must be clear, concise, and received as intended. Effective communication styles can be influential to individuals looking for professional advancement.

Many of the participants reported altering their communication style around others in the workplace is part of how they constructed their self-identity. They are aware of differences in communication styles between genders and within gender, based on their self-identity. Participants stated that they altered their communication styles, often even for a specific individual, to be more effective communicators. Participant interviews focused on participants' experiences as employees of the organization. Awareness of the differences in the communication styles of the employees leads to the possibility of having to develop and alter communication styles when working with individuals. Awareness of the differences leads to better comprehension and fewer misunderstandings; thereby, resulting in mutual respect. Participants stated that influence and power come through interpersonal communications. One study participant averred that females must cultivate their communication style to eschew misunderstandings and comprehension of messages that are being conveyed. Another participant explained that getting to

122

know the personalities of each individual, developing rapport, and tailoring communication results in being more effective and influential in the organizational society. Understanding one's self is important to effective communication (Bolman & Deal, 2008). Effective communication yields success in the workplace (Bossidy, Charan, & Burck, 2002).

Respect was the overwhelming theme that emerged from the study participants' interviews. According to the study participants, trust and respect are paramount in obtaining power/success in male-dominated organizations. They are critical in individuals' interactions within organizations for positive interactions at the intersections of discourse, power, and gender. Participants indicated that respect gives one a feeling of being valued, which can increase productivity. Participants also explained that without trust, there is no respect. Being respectful and trustworthy was indicated by participants as possessing strength and integrity. Several participants expressed that trust and respect can be more of an issue than gender in organizational societies. But some participants seemed possible to miss that, in some cases; respect can be gender-based regardless of education, knowledge, or effective communication.

Some participants did note that respect is necessary for positive intersections of discourse and gender. Several participants explained that the good ol' boy network creates a lack of respect for females in an organization. The good ol' boy network views females as weak and as someone who should be seen and not heard. Participants stated that to challenge this lack of respect, females in the good ol' boy network, must express their strength through day-to-day discourse. Moreover, by doing so, this established rapport and individuals become more influential in organizational society.

The themes that emerged from the transcribed interviews answer the central research question, How do women perceive the effectiveness of discourse as they transition to management

123

status?, by indicating women's perception of things important to positive, effective discourse. As evidenced by the response to the interview questions, these things, or themes, are topics that, in the participant's perception, are critical to achieving success as women transitioning into management. Communication, respect, experience, active, confidence, and openness and honesty were important themes related to the central research question. The experiences of the research study participants have enriched gender discourse and its effectiveness to understand the power of words. Words have the power to create individuals' identities, reality, and oppression. Discourse influences ones' understanding of reality, construction of self-identity, and negotiation of roles in organizational societies.

Taken together, the results indicate that participants perceive the effectiveness of discourse as they transition into management being related to confidence, experience, openness and honesty, and effective communication. Participants perceived that combining these things leads to respect in the workplace. Consequently, having respect then allows for positive interactions of discourse, power, and gender, resulting in successful transitions into management roles.

The wording of the central research question, however, may have been slightly ambiguous. It seems that the answer to the question, How women perceive the effectiveness of discourse may not have been specifically answered. Rather, careful considerations of the responses to the interview questions and the resulting themes may indicate that the actual question answered by the participants was in reality: What do women perceive as important to positive discourse? It could be possibly argued, however, that how they perceive effective discourse (rather than the effectiveness of discourse) is through the lens of things that they see as being important to positive discourse. Positive discourse then is the participants' description or understanding of effective discourse. Therefore, how they perceive effective discourse, rather than the effectiveness of

124

discourse, was answered by the study. Figure 14 indicates themes and their interrelationships along with their relationship to positive interactions of discourse and gender, which results in successful transitions to management. This diagram graphically displays the important topics that participants indicated were critical to success and shows what women perceive as important to have an effective discourse as they transition into management.

Conclusions Based on the Results

As discussed in the previous section, the research found that women experience multiple intersections when in management positions. While the topic of discourse and its effectiveness is acknowledged in some studies (Agarwal, 2016; Vaara et al., 2004) how it affects women's overall perception of discourse effectiveness about gender and power has not been addressed and is a need or gap found in the literature. The following sub-sections discuss the study results in association with new literature related specifically to the themes observed in the study, and about previous studies on discourse, the need for the study from Chapter 1, and the theoretical framework outlined in Chapter 2.
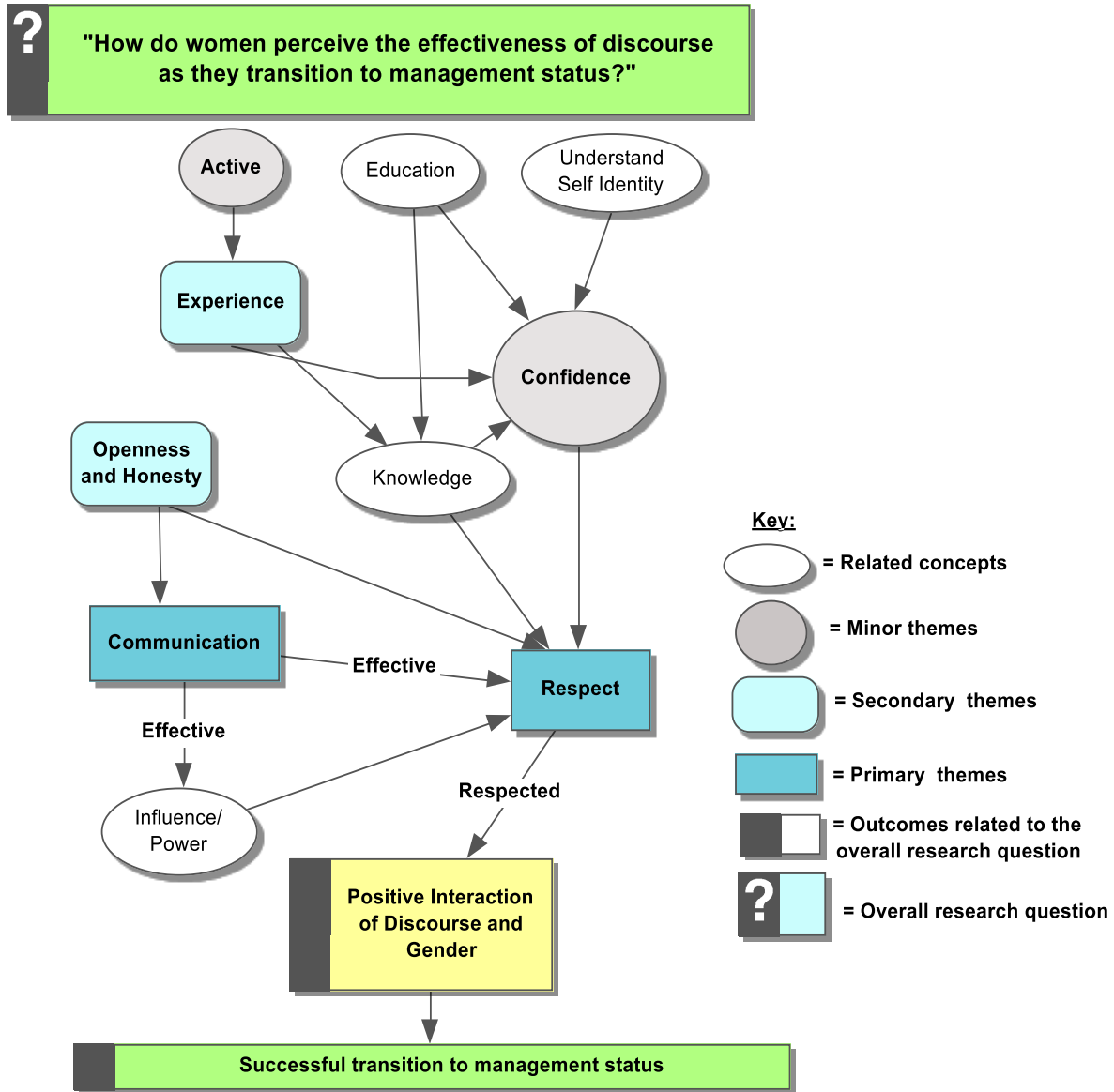
Figure 14. Schematic of identified themes from the research study.

Comparison of the Findings With the Theoretical Framework and Previous Literature

Many of the findings from this current study fall with the theoretical framework and the

literature review provided in Chapter 2. Therefore, there is an alignment between the findings of

the study and critical discourse analytics, social constructionism, and critical communication theory. The alignment is discussed regarding discourse, power, social construction, and feminist critical discourse. Moreover, interpretations provided include explanations of the findings regarding the literature and the theoretical framework. The themes of active and experience that resulted from the data analysis did not fit within the conceptual framework set forth in Chapter 2. Therefore, there is no comparison of these findings within the theoretical framework and the previous literature section.

   Discourse. The opinion shared by many authors is that discourse is something one does, not something one is subjected to (Mills, 2004). Discourse organizes everyday reality by providing meaning to events and promoting a definition of issue interpretations (Chong & Druckman, 2007). The theme, communication that emerged from the data analysis, relates to the thoughts on discourse. Participants in the study used communication to achieve the outcome they desired. Communication to achieve desires outcome relates to something one does, not something one is subjected to. Ruona and Lynham (2004) link the importance of conversation (communication) to constructing truths. Participants' related to this through the openness and honesty theme that emerged in the data analysis. Participants stated that opinions matter and voices need to be heard. Therefore, discourse must open, honest, truthful, and two-way.

   Fairclough (2000) defines discourse as a language used in designating forms of patterns of language. Agarwal (2016) stated that discourse is a language that forms habits which produce historical and cultural meaning. The data collection and analysis illustrated this through the top-down driven theme that emerged from this study. From the perspective of the study participants', discourse is more accepted and embraced by what leaders prescribe and what comes from the top defines the organization's social reality.

127

Power. By expectations and social norms, power varies (Salin & Hoel, 2013). According to research, an important aspect of social power is gender (Berdahl, 2007; Beale & Hoel, 2011). A more traditional view of power is the ability to accomplish goals (Kanter, 1977). The themes of respect and communication that emerged from the data collection and analysis phase play a role in power. The study showed that power comes through effective interpersonal communication, resulting in power. Therefore, since respect and communication relate to power, and power is an aspect of gender, there is an agreement within this study and the theoretical framework of power.

Drawing from the work of Foucault (1977), N. Newman and Newman (2015) power molds new truth developments and forms of knowledge. This study illustrated that knowledge leads to effective communication, molding truths that are instrumental in gaining respect. Power is a result of all of these. The identification of these aspects of power aligns with the theoretical framework of power.

Social construction. The focus of social construction is understanding the social world of experiences from individuals who have experienced it (Andrews, 2012). Social construction, as a theory of knowledge, focuses on the creation of meaning and that knowledge is a collaboration produced by a community of knowledge (Marecek et al., 2004). Knowledge is reality formed through communication and social relation (Burr, 2003), creating rapport and developing group dynamics which leads to respect. By these basic assumptions, discourse, gender, and power are supported in this study. Participants' noted that this is crucial for self-identity and being influential in organizations. The responses of the participants in this study reflect the findings noted in the previous literature discussed in Chapter 2.

Feminist critical discourse. Through feminist critical discourse lenses, patterns of social actions, verbal and non-verbal, are built and shaped over time and space (Lazar, 2007). Feminist

128

discourse theory's main focus reflects the concern of inequality of women with the intent of concentrating on female issues in society in society (Calas et al., 2014). Confidence emerged in the data analysis as being persistent in female inequality. As noted by previous studies, women need to recognize that they are not held back in social organizations by gender but by their lack of gender and confidence unconnected to cultural forces (Gill & Orgad, 2017). Per the literature, participants' of the current study expressed that one must know their self-identity and beliefs to have confidence. By doing so, one is better able to negotiate and gain acceptance and respect while not compromising themselves.

Both the observations during the interviews of the participants and their responses to the questions included that social skills were fundamental when it came to influence in organizations. Participants stated that communication is essential to be being respected, trusted, and valued, which was captured by the emphasis participants placed on communication during the interviews. The identification of the ability to develop and maintain positive working relationships within the organization was an essential element to being successful.

What the results mean to the wider field of study. This current study addresses the general problem noted in Chapter 1 that identified the need for the current study related to women's perception of discourse and the intersections of discourse, gender, and power in male-dominated organizations. The lack of representation of women in management levels and gender bias as a result of differences in communication styles between men and women was in previous literature. However, what is not known is the perception of discourse effectiveness in management and leadership relative to power and gender in organizations, which is a gap in the current literature.

129

This current study addresses the identified need by examining factors women encounter affecting their power and place in male-dominated organizations. The results showed communication and respect are of importance in social realities, which also is important to the broader field of leadership in organizations in support of what other studies have shown in the field. This is also necessary for a better understanding of the need to break down gender barriers in organizations. This information can be helpful in the broader field to develop further management theories focusing on male and female interactions within organizational environments.

Interpretations of the Findings

The following section interprets the results of the study in relation to research on the noted themes. It explains, based on previous literature, the validity of the outcomes. It also identifies the meaning of these outcomes for the wider field of study.

Confidence. Participants in the study indicated that when constructing and negotiating their self-identity that confidence was the key in a male-dominated organization. They also indicated that confidence was important in achieving acceptance, respect, and success in the workplace. They identified confidence as being strong, clear, concise, firm, not backing down, and standing up for one's self. Martin and Phillips (2017) have recently shown that gender blindness (*i.e.*, down-playing gender differences) increases women's confidence and action taking in male-dominated workplaces. It neutralizes the gap in confidence between sexes (Martin & Phillips, 2017). Furthermore, they report that perceived gender differences in assertiveness and independence account for gender differences in confidence in male-dominated organizations (Martin & Phillips, 2017). Gill and Orgard (2017) have defined the recent popular culture push for women to become more confident as '*Confidence Cult[ure]*'. They purport that this is a gendered

130

imperative to be confident that places the onus on women to stand up and become more confident (Gill & Orgard, 2017). According to Gill and Orgard (2017), Confidence Cult[ure] claims that becoming more confident will help women feel more powerful in the workplace. They also noted that this sensitizes women to gender gaps in confidence (Gill & Orgard, 2017). Given the notion set forth by Martin and Phillips (2017), that gender-blindness increases women's confidence, while knowledge of gender differences account for gender gaps in confidence, it seems then that sensitizing women to gender gaps through Confidence Cult[ure] could be, in effect, actually detrimental to women's confidence at work. Regardless, study participants strongly felt that being genuinely confident and standing up for one's self-afforded acceptance, respect, and success in male-dominated organizations.

Active. Participants' felt that being active at work and the community could help them gain acceptance, influence, and respect in the workplace. Whether this manifested as volunteering for projects at work, volunteering for surveys, sitting on boards, or joining committees, they expressed that these actions would help them become more influential and gain respect. Respect from group members has been noted to cause one to want to work for the group (*e.g.*, participate in actives that will enhance the reputation of the group) (Huo & Binning, 2008). Additionally, studies of perceived respect from authority figures have indicated enhanced social engagement, group commitment, and willingness to engage in extra-role behavior (Tyler, Degoey, & Smith, 1996).

Experience. The participants of the study felt that experience was central to gaining respect, having influence, and being successful in male-dominated organizations. Experience to the participants comprised age, time in the company, and being active in the organization and community, and when coupled with education brought extensive knowledge to the table. This

131

knowledge, based in part on experience or competency, imparted respect, acceptance, and influence according to the study participants. Indeed, Bradley (1980) reported that male co-workers perceive highly competent women to exert more influence than less competent women. Walker (2001) found similar to the current study that women engineers perceive that competency in their position matters, not their gender. Several of the current studies participants as well echoed this. Spears, Ellemers, and Doosje (2005) reported that competence-based respect links to self-esteem. Moreover, the literature suggests that competence or experience and knowledge judgments from team members impart respect (Huo & Binning, 2008).

      Openness and honesty. Participants in the current study expressed that for social reality to be genuine, there must be openness and honesty from those who have a strong influence on the organization. Through openness and honesty comes trust. Openness and honesty must be straightforward and genuine. Participants stated that openness also means letting voices be heard, because opinions matter. Conrad (2014) said that openness and honesty are important in the workplace for individuals to be efficient and productive. If there are openness and honesty in the workplace, then there is no need for individuals to seek information elsewhere (Conrad, 2014). Moreover, Conrad (2014) purports workplaces that are well-organized exhibit openness and transparency through all levels of the organization. Openness modulates the effects that conflicts in the workplace have on trust (Ayoko & Pekerti, 2008). Open communication during conflicts increases trust (Ayoko & Pekerti, 2008). Participants in the current study noted that letting individuals in the workplace speak and having their ideas heard before interjecting one's own ideas results in less cause for conflict in the workplace. Participants related that two-way collaborative interactions between individuals in the workplace can positively influence the ability to achieve the goals of the organization.

132

Communication. Various studies on women in male-dominated organizations have indicated that women often felt the need to act like men or communicate in a more male-like style (Agarwal, 2016; Bennett, Davidson, & Gale, 1999; Cooren, 2000; Marvin, 2009; Turner, 2007). Current study participants said that they needed to act like men to be successful and to be able to be effective in communicating to achieve the desired responses. Also, participants stated that they altered their communication style to specific individuals to achieve effective communication. A participant in the study explained that she often altered her communication style intentionally for specific individuals to be a more effective communicator (to achieve the desired response). Bennett et al. (1999) echoed the participants' responses saying that women, to be successful and communicate effectively, must behave like men. Keyton et al. (2013) indicates that effective communication is outcome based on achieving goals set forth for communication.

Goffman (1959) stated that actions are often used to project a certain self-perception to elicit a given desired response from others. Participants in the current study, as noted above, indicated that they altered their self-identity, or at least the perception of their self-identity, based on the individuals and their interactions with individuals, which exemplifies Goffman's (1959) stance and the importance of effective workplace communication being outcome based.

Understanding communication is one of the most important activities in an organization (Harris & Nelson, 2008). Communication and social processes are what develops an organization's capabilities (Jones, Watson, Gardner, & Gallois, 2004). Rajhans (2012) stated that the key to employee motivation and performance is effective communication. In the current study, participants implied that effective communication is the foundation for individual and organizational strategies to be successful.

133

Studies suggest that legitimate expert power affects the way gender communication style differences in social influence (Carli, 2006). These differences are associated with power and status. Both women and men communicate with other individuals in a way that is most likely effective given their power, position, and social roles (Johnson, 1994). Participants in the current study noted that through effective interpersonal communication, power is perpetuated. Communication of gender differences is relevant to understanding the social influence of gender effects (Carli, 2006). Studies show that men are more agentic than women; women are more communal than men (Hall & Carter, 1999; Tannen, 1990). According to the participants in the current study, men seem to be more clear, concise, and correct in their communication, while women exhibit a social communication style

Respect. The overwhelming theme, respect, echoed throughout the analysis of the data in the current study. Participants felt that respect is aligned with individuals being valued. Participants in the current study stated value and respect affect one's level of productivity and long-term success. Although respect may seem simple, the concept of respect in groups and organizational settings is, in fact, highly complicated. Respect means demonstrating a high regard for someone or something; this alone does not guide how it occurs. Respect is reflected in all aspects of relationships in environments, interactions, and supports. Participants in the current study noted respect is paramount in the workplace to create a positive and productive work culture. A brief understanding of the types of respect is needed to explore the participants' responses on respect in the context of the literature.

Decker and van Quaquebeke (2015) differentiate respect into two kinds, horizontal respect, and vertical respect. Horizontal respect comes with dignity. Vertical respect comes from honoring someone's merits, being set positively apart from all the rest (Decker & van Quaquebeke, 2015).

134

Vertical respect is given to those for their excellence, status, or expertise, while horizontal respect is the respect that is due unreservedly to everyone. Van Quaquebeke, Henrich, and Eckloff (2007) also classify respect two ways as recognition respect and appraisal respect. Recognition respect is defined as respect for a person, while appraisal respect is recognition of skill or expertise *(i.e.*, respect of work). These latter respect types stem from Darwin (1977) who first characterized recognition respect and appraisal respect. Appraised respect focuses on an individual's character, actions, and positive assessment of actions (van Quaquebeke, Henrich, & Eckloff, 2007). Recognition respect is based on being human and having rights and is received if performing accomplishes something (van Quaquebeke et al., 2007). Therefore, horizontal and vertical respect appears to be a re-naming of recognition respect and appraisal respect.

According to Huo and Binning (2008), respect reflects two core motives of social life, motivation, as being a need for status (status respect or status path), relates to recognition as worthy contributors to a group. Needing to belong (liking respect or liking path) influences one's well-being and is critical for an individual's inclusion within a social setting (Huo & Binning, 2008). The status path is linked to power and control and equated with the appraisal and vertical paths outlined by others (Darwin, 1977; van Quaquebeke et al., 2007; Decker & van Quaqueke, 2015). The liking path shapes the individual's perception toward peer treatment and how the individual is liked as a whole. Both shape the perception of individuals. Participants stated that being valued and accepted gave them respect. Being valued and accepted gave the participants status, which in turn imparted willingness to work on behalf of a group (Huo & Binning, 2008). Participants reported that feeling worthy created a sense of power and control. Having status respect in the group implies individuals are well regarded in their role, seen as a worthy member of the group, and viewed as competent on specific things that are of importance to the group (Huo &

135

Binning, 2008). Similar to the study participants' responses, there is a need for status respect for success in the organizational setting (Huo & Binning, 2008).

Adler, Epel, Castellazzo, and Ickovics (2000) linked status to power and control. Participants in the current study perceived that influence and power played a role in obtaining respect (status). If you had influence and power, then respect followed. Women in positions of power, where they had the experience, were the only person to consult on the subject, or the only one with the information, felt that they had influence and that this imparted respect (status).

According to Huo and Binning (2008), receiving respect is important in regulating group dynamics and personal well-being. Respect is valuable in receiving social value (Huo & Binning, 2008). Respect is, therefore, perceived as shaping, which is akin to social reputation. Thereby, respect is operational as an individual's perceptions of how they are viewed by group members change (Huo & Binning, 2008). Feeling valued, such that one's opinions mattered (status) was implied as important in positive interactions by study participants resulting in increased self-esteem and productivity, confirming previous studies indicating that there is a strong association between status and self-esteem (Smith, Tyler, & Huo, 2003).

Respect, associated with self-esteem, is important in shaping the concept of self-identity (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Tyler & Lind, 1992) within the frameworks of Speris, Ellemers, Doosje, and Bramscombe (2006). Positive associations have been found between self-esteem and perceptions of being respected (Smith et al., 2003), which reinforces the results obtained in the current study in which participants indicated that confidence (self-esteem) was important in obtaining respect (status). Taken together, the more respect (status) one has, the greater one's self-esteem, and conversely, and by reasoning, the greater one's self-esteem is, the more status is achieved. The lens through which it is viewed is the difference. Study participants perceived that having strong

136

self-esteem gained respect; however, having respect also increases self-esteem as the literature on respect attests (Huo & Binning, 2008; Smith et al. 2003; Lind & Tyler, 1988).

Powell, Bagilhole, and Dainty (2009) outlined several coping strategies women in male-dominated organizations used. One of these was classified as *Achieving a Reputation*. This strategy describes women focusing on building a reputation and earning respect (status) to be seen as competent regardless of gender. Participants in the current study felt that being competent at the job afforded respect (status) and that it was more associated with trust and respect, rather than being a gender issue. Thus, study participants responses verified observations put forth by Powell et al. (2009).

Another coping strategy suggested by Powell et al. (2009) was *Act Like one of the Boys*. Participants in the current study indicated that they would alter their communication style to be more aligned with male norms and would learn about male topics (*i.e.,* football, sports) to be able to affect social interactions to gain rapport and fit in. These responses show that the study participants acknowledged the need to fit in or belong to the male group, and they imparted that this was done to gain respect from male coworkers. Again this shows that participants in the study were utilizing strategies for coping in male-dominated organizations as noted by Powell et al. (2009) to gain respect. The respect from reputation would equate to status as noted by Huo and Binning (2008), while the fitting in or belonging, respect gained by being one of the boys equates to liking.

Powell et al. (2009) noted that gaining acceptance from male coworkers, especially authority figures, was important for women in male-dominated organizations and that, when this occurred, their work would be valued; thereby, importing both types of respect (status and liking) (Huo & Binning, 2008). Having both kinds of respect is important in association with power,

137

control, and positive psychological functioning (Adler et al., 2000). Status and liking contribute to the success of individuals (Huo & Binning, 2008). Participant responses reinforced this in their interviews, indicating that respect (status and liking; as evidenced by the responses on experience/competence and rapport development/fitting in) is a priority for their levels of influence in the organization.

<center>**Implications for Practice**</center>

This heuristic study, made up of a small sample of females from male-dominated industries, provided an in-depth understanding of what was meaningful and significant to them when answering the research question. The results of the study revealed overwhelming themes that dealt with gender roles, expectations, and discourse interpretations of females. The emerging themes were interpretations of what women observed, negotiated, rejected, or accepted.

Implications for Theory and Knowledge

The implications of the study suggest that the participants have chosen to position themselves in male-dominated societies. The study can be characterized as a practical application as it critiques the status quo of trying to create an equal society (Lather, 1992). The findings of the study have implications of how females in management positions utilize their discourse as well as how they engaged with one another. Therefore, discourse allows for a variety of voices to be heard in the organization. One of the greatest contributions of the study is that it provides a heightened awareness of discourse, gender, and power asymmetries.

Practical Implications

The practical implications of the study in the workplace could include creating mentorships, conflict classes, and coaching. Therefore, this could address issues related to the effectiveness of the roles of males and females in organizations. Understanding the need for

<center>138</center>

mentorships, conflict classes, and coaching would be beneficial in creating a more harmonious culture.

This study could draw attention to creating interest for future study. In addition to a general replication of this study, a broader spectrum of research could be implemented using sample populations of females relevant to gender, discourse, and power in other types of organizations that are not viewed as being male-dominated. The results of the findings could be compared to those of a perceived male-dominated organization. Therefore, understanding gender issues and persistent gender inequality will contribute to social action and justice.

Limitations

All research studies have limitations (Cooper & Shindler, 2008) and when one identifies study limitations the credibility and results of the research study can be improved, which is the case with the current study as well. Identified limitations included issues with honest interview answers, sample size, the population assessed, and the effectiveness of the questions used.

In any generic qualitative research study, one's assumption is that the participants will be open, honest, and forthcoming with their answers during the interview process (Percy, K. Kostere, & Kostere, 2015). However, several of the study participants exhibited guarded responses. Study participants exhibiting guarded responses is most likely due to their work with sensitive and confidential sources. Although confidentiality and anonymity were emphasized to all participants who volunteered for the research study, those participants may have withheld information.

Another limitation of this research study was the sample size and population assessed. The size of the sample was small: ten transcribed interviews. A larger group of women (*i.e.,* sample size) would deepen the findings. The sampled population needed to be broader to reflect the

139

viewpoints of a more geographically diverse population. Participants selected were limited geographically to the Southeast region.

A third limitation of the research study was about the interview questions. Ambiguities occurred in some of the interview questions. Incorrectly worded interview questions (*i.e.,* How instead of What) were somewhat confusing to the participants. Some the questions had two parts, which resulted in response confusion in some cases (*i.e.,* participants answered the first part and second part together resulting in the "b" part of the question, once the transcripts were coded not to have an answer other than, "You just answered that." Other questions lead into following questions resulting in dead end questions when the response to the first was not in the affirmative. Additionally, some of the questions seemed redundant and overlapping, which seemed to cause participants to struggle with their responses to the questions. There are various reasons for participant and interviewer to have a different understanding of a question's meaning based on experiences (Warnecke et al., 1997) that will affect participants' responses and the researcher's interpretation of them. Moreover, the wording, design, form, and order of questions can affect the responses obtained from participants (Kelly, Clark, Brown, & Sitza, 2003). When developing questions for an interview, the researcher should avoid double-barrel questions (*i.e*., those that have two part like in the current study; 1a and 1b) questions that contain double negatives and those that are either ambiguous or leading (Kelly et al., 2003). Therefore, the interview questions used needed to be more clear and concise.

Recommendations for Further Research

Research is needed to bridge the gap in the literature on the intersectionality of the gendered glass ceiling effect that works against females (Bosse & Taylor, III, 2012; Eagly & Carli, 2007). It is important to recognize the cultural effects functioning against women in management

140

in male-dominated societies. Understanding the many experiences women face and how they define these experiences would be helpful for the many ongoing challenges they encounter when working in a male-dominated society.

Recommendations Developed Directly From the Data

The good ol' boy network was observed in the data analysis, possibly because the participants were all from the Southeastern region of the United States. Conducting the same study using a larger, geographical sample or assessing responses from participants in other industries that are not male-dominated may also give different results. Assessing the study in terms of participants from various generations might also prove insightful.

Recommendations Derived From Methodological, Research Design, or Other Limitations of the Study

Recommendations for further research stemming from this study are indicated by the limitations of the study. The study, therefore, could be conducted again utilizing questions that are more carefully crafted. Elimination of two-part questions is needed, and the wording of other questions should be carefully assessed to remove any ambiguity. Additionally, the order of the questions should also be reviewed to eliminate any confusion related to topic-specific versus general topic questions.

Recommendations to Investigate Issues not Supported by the Data but Relevant to the Research Problem

Another suggestion for further research is replicating this study through the single methodological lens of Pearce's (2007) coordinated management of meaning (CMM). This methodological approach is unique in that both theoretical and analytical models provide a single

141

synchronized communication of social interaction. CMM methodology is a way of communicating perspectives of social worlds through coordination and coherence. Additionally, the study could be replicated using the voices and experiences of males working in a female-dominated organization. A study of this type could show relationships of gender, noting more clearly hegemony power structures within an organization. A study of this type could lend itself to helping organizations by better addressing issues of strategy effectiveness and culture.

Conclusion

"We must carry forward the work of the women who
came before us and ensure our daughters have no limits
on their dreams, no obstacles to their achievements, and
no remaining ceilings to shatter."
~ Barack Obama

The purpose of this generic qualitative, theoretical, thematic, study aimed to answer the question, How do women perceive the effectiveness of discourse as they transition to management status? The study was to understand the unrecognized, as well as the unseen, forces of creating and perpetuating the glass ceiling. The research study examined the effects of women's perception of discourse, gender, and power and interpreted the reality of its effectiveness in a male-dominated society. The research study accomplished what it set out to do.

Data were collected from ten participants, conducting face-to-face interviews using semi-structured interview questions. The theoretical thematic analysis revealed two overwhelming themes that exemplified the rich descriptions of females' experiences and their perception of the effectiveness of discourse about gender and power in a male-dominated industry. The findings of this research study answered questions about women's perceptions of discourse in a male-dominated society. The findings will allow both men and women to view females as being viable

142

and influential in generating and sustaining effectiveness in gender-dominate organizations. Understanding cultural norms and working to change them is necessary for greater opportunities for gender equality in organizational environments. The results of this research can only help build positive and effective relationships between male and female genders. Organizations can learn and thrive by the inclusion of females' voices of diversity over space and time.

REFERENCES

Acker, J. (2004). Gender, capitalism, and globalization. *Critical Sociology, 30*(1), 17-41. doi:10.1163/156916304322981668

Adesaogun, R., Flottemesch, K., & Ibrahim-DeVries, B. (2015). Stratification, communication tactics, and black women: Navigating the social domain of nonprofit organizations. *Journal of Organizational Culture, Communication, & Conflict, 19*, 42-57. Retrieved from https://www.questia.com/library/journal/1G1-423819255

Adler, N. E., Epel, E., Castellazzo, G., & Ickovics, A. J. (2000). Relationship of subjective and objective social status with psychological and physiological functioning: Preliminary data in healthy white women. *Health Psychology, 1*, 586-592. doi:10.1037//00278-6133.19.6.586

Agars, M. D. (2004). Reconsidering the impact of gender stereotypes on the advancement of women in organizations. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 128*, 103-111. doi:10.1111/j.1471-6402.2004.00127.x

Agarwal, S. (2016, December). Understanding discourse: From theory to method. *Journal of Education and Applied Social Sciences, 7*, 219-224. doi:10.5958/2230-7311.2016.00042.8

Agarwal, S., & Garg, A. (2012, July-August). The importance of communication within organizations: A research on two hotels in Utlarakhand. *Journal of Business Management*, *3*, 40-49. Retrieved from www.iosrjournals.org

Ahl, H., & Marlow, S. (2012). Exploring the dynamics of gender, feminism, and entrepreneurship: Advancing debate to escape a dead end? *Organization, 19*, 543-562. doi:10.1177/1350508412448695

Ahmedshareef, A., Petridis, M., & Hughes, R. T. (2014, December). The affordances of mixed method in software project management research. *International Journal of Multiple Research Approaches, 8*,201-220. doi:10.1080/18340806.2014.11082061

Airo, K., Rasila, H., & Nenonen, S. (2012). Speech as a way of constructing change in space: Opposing and conforming discourses in workplace change process. *Facilities, 30,* 289-301. doi:10.1108/02632771211220095

Aldoory, L., Reber, B. H., Berger, B. K., & Toth, E. L. (2008). Provocations in public relations: A study of gendered ideologies of power. *Journalism and Mass Communication Quarterly, 85*, 735-750. doi:10.1177/107769900808500402

Allen, B. J. (2005). Social constructionism. In S. May & D. K. Mumby (Eds.), *Engaging organizational communication theory and research: Multiple perspectives* (pp. 35-54). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

144

Alvesson, M., & Karreman, D. (2002). Varieties of discourse: On the study of organizations through discourse analysis. *Human Relations, 53*, 1125-1149. doi:10.1177/0018726700539002

Amon, M. J. (2017, February). Looking through the glass ceiling: A qualitative study of STEM women's career narratives. *Frontiers in Psychology, 8*, 236-251. doi:10.3389/fpsyg.2017.00236

Anderson, H., (2000). Supervision as a collaborative learning community. *American Association of Marriage and Family Therapy*, 7-10. Retrieved from https://musictherapyworld.net

Anderson, T. (2012). Normative identity processes in managers' personal development training. *Personnel Review, 41*, 572-589. doi:10.1108/00483481211249111

Andrews, T. (2012, June). What is social constructionism? A grounded theory review. *An International Journal, 11*, 137-140. Retrieaved from http://groundedtheory review.com/2012/06/01/what-is-social-constructionism/

Ashcraft, K. L., & Mumby, D. K. (2004). *Reworking gender: A feminist communicology of organizations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Aveyard, H. (2010). *Doing a literature review in health and social care: A practical guide* (2nd ed.). Berkshire, England: Open University Press.

Ayoko, O. B., & Pekerti, A. A. (2008). The mediating and moderating effects of conflict and communication openness on workplace trust. *International Journal of Conflict Management, 19*, 297-318. doi:10.1108/10444060810909275

Bakker-Pieper, A., & de Vries, R. E. (2013). The incremental validity of communication styles over personality traits for leader outcomes. *Human Performance, 26*(1), 1-19. doi: 10.1080/08959285.2012.736900

Bakhtin, M. M. (2006). The problem of speech genres. In Jaworski and Coupland (Eds.), *Speech genres* (pp. 98-107). New York, NY: Guilford Press.

Barbour, R. S. (2001). Checklists for improving rigor in qualitative research: A case of the tail wagging the dog. *British Medical Journal*, 322, 1115-1117. doi:10.1136/bmj.322.7294.1115

Barge, J. K. (2014). Pivotal leadership and the art of conversation. *Leadership, 10*, 56-78. doi:10.1177/1742715013511739

145

Bargiela-Chiappini, F., Nickerson, C., & Planken, B. (2013). What is business discourse? *Business Discourse: Research and Practice in Applied Linguistics*. London, England: Palgave-McMillan. doi:10.1057/9781237024

Bates, L. (2014). *Everyday sexism*. London, England: Simon & Schusters.

Baumann, H. (2017, March). Stories of women at the top: Narratives and counter narratives of women's (non -) representation in executive leadership. *Palgrave Communication*. doi: 10.157/palcomms.2017.9lwww.palgrave-journals.com/palcomms

Baxter, J. (2003). *Positioning gender in discourse: A feminist methodology*. New York, NY: Plagrave MacMillan.

Beale, D., & Hoel, H. (2011). Workplace bulling and British employers: Exploring questions of cost, policy, context, and control. *Work Employment and Society, 25*, 5-18. doi:10.1177/0950017010389228

Beck, C., Dumay, J., & Frost, G. J. (2017, March). In pursuit of a single source of truth: From threatened legitimacy to integrated reporting, *Journal of Business Ethics, 141*, 191-205. doi:10.1007/s10551-014-2423-1

Bengtsson, M. (2016). How to plan and perform a qualitative study using content analysis. *Nursing Plus Open, 2*, 8-14. doi: 10.1016/j.npls.2016.01.001

Bennett, J. F., Davidson, M. J., & Gale, A. W. (1999). Women and construction: A comparative investigation into the expectations and experiences of female and male construction undergraduates and employees. *Women in Management Review, 14*, 273-291. doi:10.1108/09649429910291122

Benoot, C., Hannes, K., & Bilsen, J. (2016, February). The use of purposeful sampling in a qualitative evidence synthesis: A work example on sexual adjustment to a cancer trajectory. *BMC Medical Research Methodology, 16*, 21. doi:10.1186/s12874-016-01146

Berdahl, J. (2007). Harassment based on sex: Protecting social status in the context of gender hierarchy. *Academy of Management Review, 32*, 641-658. doi:10.5465/amr.2007.24351879

Berger, B.K. & Reber, B. H., (2006). *Gaining Influence in Public Relations: The Role of Resistance in Practice*. Milton Park, United Kingdom. Taylor & Francis.

Berger. P. L., & Luckmann, T. (1967). *The sociology construction of reality: A treatise in the sociology knowledge*. New York, NY: Anchor Books.

Blomberg, A., Kallio, T., & Pohjanpaa, H. (2017). Antecedents of organizational creativity: Drivers, barriers, or both? *Journal of Innovation Management, 5*, 78-104. doi:10.24840/2183-0606_005.001_0007

Boden, D. (1994). *The business of talk: Organizations in action*. Cambridge, MA: Polity.

Bohman, J. (2016). Critical theory. *The encyclopedia of psychology Sanford*. Sanford, CA: The Metaphysics Research Lab. Retrieved from https://plato.stanford.edu/archives/fall2016/entries/critical-theory/

Boje, D. M., Oswick, C., & Ford, J. D. (2004). Language and organization: The doing of discourse. *Academy of Management Review, 29*, 571-577. doi.org/10.5465/amr.2004.14497609doi:10.5465/amr.2004.14497609

Bolman, L. G., & Deal, T. E. (2008). *Reframing organizations: Artistry, choice, and leadership* (4th ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey- Bass.

Booth, A., Sutton, A., & Papaioannou, D. (2016). *Systematic approaches to a successful literature review* (2nd ed.). London, England: Sage.

Borne, G. (2013). Exploring discourses of sustainable development: A flexible framework. *Methodological Innovation, 8*, 90-106. doi:10.4256/mio.2013.016_

Bosse, D. A., & Taylor III, P. L. (2012, January). The second glass ceiling impedes women entrepreneurs. *The Journal of Applied Management and Entrepreneurship, 17*, 52-68. Retrieved from http://scholarship.richmond.edu/management-faculty-publications

Bossidy, L., Charan, R., & Burk, C. (2002). *Execution: The discipline of getting things done*. New York, NY: Crown Business.

Bradley, P. H. (1980). Sex, competence and opinion deviation: An expectation states approach. *Communication Monographs, 47*, 101-110. doi:10.1080/03637758009376023

Brewis, J., & Linstead, D. (2009). *Gender and management. Management and organization: A critical text* (2nd ed., pp. 56-92). Basingstoke, United Kingdom: Palgrave MacMillian.

Bruni, S., Gherardi, S., & Paggio, B. (2005). Doing gender, doing entrepreneurship: An ethnographic account of intertwined practices. *Gender, Work and Organization, 11*, 406-429. doi:10.1111/j.1468-0432.2004.00240.x

Bryant, P. (2006). Bear, the legendary life of a coach. In D. Keith (Ed.), *Bear, The Legendary Life of a Coach, Paul, "Bear" Bryant*. Nashville, TN: Turner

Burgess, Z., & Tharenous, P. (2002). Women board directors: Characteristics of the few. *Journal of Business Ethics, 37*, 39-49. doi:10.1023/A:101472600

147

Burr, V. (2003). *Social constructionism* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Routledge.

Burr, V. (2018). Social constructionism. In P. Liamputtong (Eds.), *Handbook of research methods in health social sciences*. Singapore: Springer. doi:10.1007/978-981-10-2779-6_57-1

Burr, V., & Dick, P. (2017). Social constructionism. In B. Gough (Eds.), *The Palgrave handbook of critical social psychology*. London, England: Palgrave Macmillan.

Butler, J. (1990). *Gender trouble: Feminism and the subversion of identity*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Butler, J. (2003). Identity, deconstruction, and politics. In M. Gergen & K. J. Gergen (Eds.), *Social construction: A reader* (pp. 129-131). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Byrne, G. (2017). Narrative inquiry and the problem of representation: Give voice, making meaning. *International Journal of Research and Method in Education, 40*, 36-52. doi:10.1080/1743727x.2017.1034097

Caidor, P., & Cooren, F. (2019). The Appropriation of Diversity Discourses at Work: A Ventriloquial Approach. *Journal of Business Diversity*, *18*, 22-41. doi:10.33423/jbd.v18i4.244

Caine, V., Estefan, A., & Clandinin, D. J. (2013, August). A return of methodological commitment: Reflections on narrative. *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research, 57*, 574-586. doi:10.1080/00313831.2013.798833

Calas, M. B., Smircich, L., & Holvino, E. (2014). Theorizing gender-and-organization: Changing times…changing theories? In S. Kuma, R. Simpson, & R. J. Burke (Eds.). *The Oxford handbook of gender in organizations* (pp. 17-52), New York, NY Oxford University Press.

Cameron, D. (1992). *Feminism and linguistic theory* (2nd ed.). London, United Kingdom MacMillian.

Carli, L. L. (2006). *Gender Issues in workplace groups: Effects of gender and communication style on social influence*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Cassell, C., & Symon, G. (2000). Promoting new research practices in organizational research. In C. Cassell and G. Symon (Eds.), *Essential guide to qualitative methods in organizational research*. London, England: Sage.

Catalyst. (2001). *The next generation: Today's professionals, tomorrow's leaders*. New York, NY: Catalyst.

Catalyst. (2009). *Women in U.S. management*. Retrieved from http://www.catalyst.org.publicaion /106/women-in-us-management

Catt, I. E. (2010). Communication is not a skill: Critique of communication pedagogyas narcissistic express. In D. Eicher-Catt & I. E. Catt (Eds.), *Communicology: The new science of embodied discourse* (pp.131-150)*.* Vancouver, British Columbia: Fairleigh Dickinson University Press.

Catt, I. E., & Eicher-Catt, D. (2010). Communicology: A reflective human science. In D. Eicher-Catt & I. E. Catt (Eds.), *Communicology: The new science of embodied discourse* (pp.15-33)*.* Vancouver, British Columbia: Fairleigh Dickinson University Press.

Caza, A. M., & Carroll, B. (2012, August). Critical theory and positive organizational scholarship.*The Oxford handbook of positive organizational scholarship.* Oxford, England: Oxford University Press. Retrieved from http://www.oxfordhandbooks.com/view/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780199734610.001.0001/oxfor dhb-9780199734610-e-073

Chafetz, J. S. (1997). Feminist theory and sociology: Underutilized contributions for mainstream theory. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 23(1), 97-99. doi:10.1146/annurev.soc.23.1.97

Champagne, A. M. (2009). *Doing gender: Theories of gendered discourse and the social construction of the gendered organization*. Retrieved from http://annemariechampagne.com/the-social-constrution-of-the-gendered-organization/doinggender/

Chan, Z. C. Y., Fung, Y. L., & Chien, W. T. (2013). Bracketing in phenomenology: Only undertaken in the data collection and analysis process: *The Qualitative Report, 18*, 1-9. Retrieved from https://nsuworks.nova.edu/tqr/vol18/iss30/ to

Charmaz, K. (2006). *Constructing grounded theory: A practical guide through qualitative analysis.* London, United Kingdom: Sage.

Chong, D., & Druckman, J. N. (2007). Framing theory. *Annual Review of Political Science, 10*(1), 103-120. doi:10.1146/annurev.polisci.10.072805.103054

Chouliaraki, L., & Fairclough, N., (1999). *Discourse in late modernity: Rethinking critical analysis*. Edinburgh, United Kingdom: University Press.

Choy, L. T. (2014, April). The strengths and weakness of research methodology: Comparison and complimentary between qualitative and quantitative approaches. *Journal of Humanities and Social Science, 19*, 99-104. Retrieved from www.iosrjournals.org

Clark, R., & Ivanic, R. (1999). Raising critical awareness of language: A curriculum aim for the new millennium. [Editorial]. *Language Awareness, 8*, 63-70.

149

Clegg, S. R., Courppasson, D., & Phillips, N. (2006). *Power and organizations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Coats, J. (2004). *Women, men, and language: A sociolinguistic account of gender differences in language* (3rd ed). New York, NY: Pearson Longman.

Cohen, L., Duberley H., & Mallon, M. (2004). Social construction in the study of career: Accessing the places that other approaches cannot reach. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 64*, 407-422. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2003.12.007

Conrad, D. (2014). Workplace communication problems: Inquiries by employees and applicable solutions. *Journal of Business Studies Quarterly, 5*, 105-116. Retrieved from https://jbsq.org/2152.1037

Cooper, D. R., & Schinder, P. S. (2008). *Business research* (10th ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill/Irvin.

Cooren, F. (2000). Toward another ideal speech situation: A critique of Habermas' reinterpretation of speech act theory. *Quarterly Journal of Speech, 86*, 295-317. doi:10.1080/00335630009384298

Corlett, S., & Marvin, S. (2014, January). Intersectionality, identity, and identity work: Shared tenets and future research agendas for gender and identity studies. *Gender in Management: An International Journal, 29*, 258-276. doi:10.1108/GM-12-2013-0138

Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five traditions* (2nd ed.). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (4th ed.) Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Crotty, M. (1998). *The foundations of social research: Meaning and perspective in the research process*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Darwin, S. L. (1977, October). Two kinds of respect. *Ethics, 88*(1), 36-48. doi:10.1086/292054

de Beauvoir, S. (1997). *The second sex*. New York, NY: Vintage Books.

Decker, C., & van Quaquebeke, N. (2015). Getting respect from a boss you respect: How different types of respect interact to explain subordinates' job satisfaction as mediated by self-determination. *Journal of Business Ethics, 131*, 543-556. doi:10.1007/s10551-014-2291-8

150

Deetz, S. A. (1996). Differences in approaches in organizational sciences: Rethinking Burrell and Morgan and their legacy: *Organizational Science, 7*, 191-207. doi:10.1177/13505084030103002

Deetz, S. A. (2005). Critical theory: In S. May & D. K. Mumby (Eds.), *Engaging organizational communication theory and research: Multiple perspectives* (pp. 85-111). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

DeLaat, J. (2007). Gender in the workplace: A case study approach. *Gender, Work, and Organization, 8*, 346-364. doi:10.111/1468-0432.00136

de Lemus, A., Spears, R., Bukowski, M., & Lupianez, J. (2013). Reversing implicit gender stereotype activation as a function of exposure to traditional gender roles. *Social Psychology, 44*, 178-206. doi:10.1027/1864-9335/a000140

Denzin, N. K. (2009). *Handbook of qualitative research*. London, England: Sage.

de Vries, R., Bakker-Pieper, A., & Ostenveld, W. (2010). Leadership communication: The relations of leaders' communication styles and leadership styles, knowledge sharing, and leadership outcomes. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 25*, 367-380. doi:10.1007/s10869-009-9140-2

Drew, P., & Heritage, L. (1992). Analyzing talk at work: An introduction. In P. Drew & J. Heritage (Eds.), *Interaction in Instructional Settings* (pp. 3-65). Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press.

Dreyfus, H., & Rabinow, P. (1982). *Michel Foucault: Beyond structuralism and hermeneutics*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Eagly, A. H. (2007). Female leadership advantage and disadvantage: Resolving the contradictions. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 14*, 1-12. doi:10.1111/j.1471-6402.2007.00326.x

Eagly, A. H., & Carli, L. L. (2007). *Through the labyrinth: The truth about how women became leaders*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

Eagly, A. H., & Heilman, M. E. (2016). Gender and leadership: Introduction to the special issue. *The Leadership Quarterly, 27*, 349-353. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2016.04.002

Egolf, D. B., & Chester, S. (2013). *Exploring the other side of communication* (3rd ed.). Bloomington, IN: iUniverse.

Eisner, E. W. (1988). The primary of experience and the politics of method. *Education Research, 20*, 15-20. doi:10.3102/0013189X017005015

151

Elder-Vass, D. (2012). *The reality of social construction*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Elliott, J. (2005). *Using narrative in social research. Qualitative and quantitative approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Ely, R., & Padavic, I. (2007). A feminist analysis of organizational research on sex differences. *Academy of Management Review, 32,* 1121-1143. doi:10.5465/amr.2007.26585842

Epstein, S. (1996). *Inpure science: AIDS, activism and the politics of knowledge*. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

Erasmus, E., & Gilson, L. (2008, September). How to start thinking about investigating power in the organizational settings of policy implementation. *Health Policy and Planning, 23*, 361-368. doi:10.1093/heapol,czn 021

Fairclough, N. (2000. *Language and power* (2nd ed.). London, England: Sage.

Fairclough, N. (2003). *Analysis discourse: Textural analysis for social research*. London, United Kingdom: Routledge.

Fairclough, N., & Wodak, R. (1997). Critical discourse analysis. In T. A. van Dijk (Ed.), *Discourse as social interaction* (pp. 258-284). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Fairhurst, G. T., & Cooren, F. (2007). Organizational language in use: Interaction analysis conversation, analysis and speech act schematics. In D. Grant, C. Hardy, C. Oswick, & L. L. Putnam (Eds.), *The sage handbook of organizational discourse* (pp. 131-1525). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Fairhurst, G. T., & Putman, L. L. (2014). Organizational discourse analysis. In L. L. Putman, & D. K. Mumby (Eds.), *The sage handbook of organizational communication: Advances in theory, research, and methods*, (3rd ed., pp. 274-295. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Fay, B. (1987). *Critical social science*. Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press.

Fiona, D. (2012). Women leaders in creative industries: A base line study. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship, 4*, 153-178. doi:10.1108/17566261211234652

Flax, J. (1990). Postmodernism and gender relations in feminist theory. *Journal of Women in Culture and Society, 12*, 621-643. doi:10.1086/494359

Foucault, M. (1972). *The archaeology of knowledge and the discourse on language*. New York, NY: Pantheron Books.

152

Foucault, M. (1977, 1980). *Power/knowledge: Selected interviews and other writings*. New York, NY: Random House.

Foucault, M. (1990). *The history of sexuality: An introduction: Volume 1*. New York, NY: Random House.

Foucault, M. (1982). The Subject and Power. *Critical Inquiry, 8*, 777-795. Retrieved from http://www.jstor.org/stable/1343197

Foucault, M., & Gordon, C. (1980). *Power/knowledge. Selected interviews and other writings* (pp. 1972-1977). New York, NY: Pantheon Books.

Freire, P. (1973). *Education for critical consciousness*. New York, NY: Seabury Press.

French, M. (1985). *Beyond power: On women, men, and morals*. New York, NY: Ballentine Books

Fusch, P. I., & Ness, L. R. (2015). Are we there yet? Data saturation of qualitative research. *The Qualitative Report, 20*, 1408-1416. Retrieved from http://nsuworks.nova.edu/tqr/vol20/iss9/3

Galbin, A. (2014). An introduction to social constructionism. *Social Research Reports*, 26, 82-92. Retrieved from www. researchreports.ro

Ganiyu, R. A., Oluwafemi, A., Ademola, A. A., & Olatunji, O. I. (2018). The glass ceiling conundrum: Illusory belief or barriers that imped women's career advancement in the workplace. *Journal of Evolutionary Studies in Business, 3*(1), 137-166. doi:10.1344/jesb2018.1.j040

Gatenby, B., & Hume, K. M. (2004). Powerful discourse for social service: A feminist post-structural and action inquiry. *Journal of Organizational Change Management, 17*, 269-280. doi:10.1108/09534810410538324 .

Gergen, K. J. (2009). *An invitation of social construction* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Gergen, L. (1985). The social constructionist movement in modern psychology. *American Psychology, 40*, 266-275. doi10.1037/0003-066X.40.3.266

Gherardi, S., & Poggio, B. (2001). Creating and recreating gender order in organizations. *Journal of World Business, 36*, 245-259. doi:10.1016/S1090-9516(01)00054-2

Gilbert, G. N., & Mulkay, M. (1984). *Opening pandora's box: A sociological analysis of scientists' discourse*. Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press.

Gill, R., & Orgad, S. S. (2017). Confidence culture and the remaking of feminism. *New Foundations, 91*, 16-34. doi.10.3898/NEWF:91.01.2017

153

Gillham, B. (2005). *Research interviewing: The range of techniques*. Philadelphia, PA: Open University Press.

Goffman, E. (1959). *The presentation of self in everyday life*. Garden City, NY: Doubleday Anchor.

Gordon, L. (1986). What's new in women's history? In T. de Lauretis (Ed.), *Feminist studies/critical studies* (pp. 20-30). Bloomington, IN: Indiana University Press.

Grant, D., Hardy, C., Oswick, C., & Putnam, L. L. (2004). Introduction to organizational discourse: Exploring the field. In D. Grant, C. Hardy, C. Oswick, & L. L. Putman (Eds.), *The sage handbook of discourse* (pp. 1-36). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Grant, D., Keenoy, T., & Oswick, C. (1998). Of diversity, dichotomy, and multi-disciplinary. In D. Grant, T. Keenoy, & C. Oswick (Eds.), *Discourse and organization*. London, United Kingdom: Sage.

Grant, D., Keenoy, T., & Oswick, C. (2001). Organizational Discourse: Key contributions and challenges. *International Studies of Management and Organization, 31*, 5-24. doi:10.1080/00208825.2001.11656818

Grant, D., & Marshak, R. (2011, February). Toward a discourse-centered understanding of organizational change. *British Journal of Management, 47*, 141-142. doi:10.1177/0021886310397612

Green, G. (1993). *Changing subjects. The making of feminist literary criticism*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Greenwood, M. (2016). Approving or improving ethics in management journals. *Journal of Business Ethics, 137*, 507-520. doi:10.1007/s10551-015-2564-x

Greyling, W. J. (2018). *Sinclair and Coulthard revisited: Global – and local – allocational turn-taking mechanisms in the language classroom*, 1-30. Retrieved from https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED399809.pdf

Grissom, J. A., Nicholson-Crotty, J., & Keiser, L. (2012). Does my boss's gender matter? Explaining job satisfaction and employee turnover in the public sector. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory, 22*, 649-673. doi:10.1093/jopart/mus004

Groenewald, T. (2004). A phenomenological research design illustrated. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods, 3*(1), 1-26. doi:10.1177/160940690400300104

Grumet, M. R. (1988). *Bitter milk: Women and teaching*. Amherst, MA: University of Massachusetts Press.

Guest, G., Bunce, A., & Johnson, L. (2006). How many interviews are enough? An experiment with data saturation and variability. *Field Methods, 18*, 59-82. doi:10.1177/1525822x05279903

Guest, G., MacQueen, K. M., & Namey, E. E. (2012). Introduction to applied thematic analysis. In *Applied thematic analysis* (pp. 3-20). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage. doi:10.4135/9781483384436.n1

Gumport, P. J., & Snydman, S. K. (2002). The formal organization of knowledge. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 73, 375-408. doi:10.1080/00221546.2002.11777153

Habermas, J. (1988). *The logic of the social sciences*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Hackley, C. (1998). Mission statements of corporate communications: The consequences of social constructionism. *Corporate Communications: An International Journal*, 3, 92-98. doi:10.1108/eb046557

Hall, J. A., & Carter, J. D. (1999). Gender-stereotype accuracy as an individual difference. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 77*, 350-359. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.77.2.350

Halliday, M. A. K. (1985). Categories of the theory of grammar. *Word, 17*, 241-292. doi:10.1075/w.67-68.07hal

Hanmrin, S. (2016). Communicative leadership and context: Exploring constructions of the context in discourses of leadership practices. *Corporate Communications: An International Journal, 21*, 371-38. doi:10.1108/CCIJ-09-2015-0056

Hardin, C., & Banaji, C. (1991). The influence of language on thought. *Social Cognition, 11*, 277-308. doi:10.1521/soco.1993.11.3.277
.
Hardy, C., Palmer, I., & Phillips, N. (2000). Discourse as a strategic resource. *Human Relations, 53*. 1127-1248. doi:10.1177/0018726700539006

Harris, T. E., & Nelson, M. D. (2008). *Applied organizational communication: Theory and practice in a global environment*. New York, NY: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Harrison, R., Leitch, C., & McAdam, M. (2014). Breaking glass: Toward a gendered analysis of entrepreneurship leadership. *Journal of Small Business Management, 53,* 693-713. doi:10.1111/jsbm.12180.

Hart, J. (2006). Women and feminism in higher education scholarship: An analysis of three core journals. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 77, 40-61. doi:10.1080/00221546.2006.11778918

155

Hassard, J., Hyde, P., Cox, J. W., Granter, E., & McCann, L. (2017). Exploring health work: A critical-action perspective. *Journal of Health Organization and Management, 31*, 567-580. doi:10.1108/JHOM-02-20174-0034

Hassen, R. (2015). Discourse is medium of knowledge: Transmission of knowledge by transmission of discourse people live. *Journal of Education and Practice, 6*, 119-128. doi.org/10.7176/JEP

Heard, A. (2011, October). Powerful women. In an interview with Christina Radish published in B. Cabrera's *Famous Quotes*. Retrieved from http://csuitemind.com/quotes/author/benjamin-cabrera

Hekman, S. (2009). We have never been postmodern: Latour, Foucault, and the material knowledge. *Contemporary Political Theory, 8*, 435-454. doi:10.1057/cpt.2008.39

Hennink, M. M., Kaiser, B. N., & Marconi, V. C. (2017). How many interviews are enough? *Qualitative Health Research, 27*, 519-608.

Heracleous, L. (August, 2002). *Text and content: Toward a longitudinal-contextual discourse analysis approach*. In *Academy of Management Meeting* (pp. 3-8). Paper presented at Academy of Management Meeting, Washington, D. C.

Heracleous, L. (2006a). *Discourse, interpretation, organization*. Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press.

Heracleous, L. (2006b). A tale of three discourses: The dominant, the strategic, and the marginalized. *Journal of Management Studies, 43*, 1059-1087. doi:10.1111/j.1467-6486.2006.0069x

Holmes, J., Schnurr, S., & Marra, M. (2007). Leadership and communication: Discursive evidence of a workplace culture change. *Discourse and Communication, 1*, 433-451. doi:10.1177/1750481307082207.

Hopfl, H., & Matilal, S. (2007). The lady vanishes: Some thoughts on women and leadership. *Journal of Organizational Change Management, 20,* 198. doi:10.1108/095348107710724757

Horkheimer, M. (1972). *Critical theory*. New York, NY: Seabury Press.

Horkheimer, M. (1993). Horkheimer's original idea: The sociological deficit of critical theory. In A. Honneth (Eds.). *The critique of power: Reflective stages in a critical social theory* (pp. 5-31). Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press.

Huang, V. G. (2018, January). Organizational change, ideologies, and mega discourses. *Journal of Language of Politics, 17*, 70-91, doi:10.1075/jlp.17015.hua

Hujala, A., & Rissanen, S. (2012). Discursive construction of polyphony in health care management. *Journal of Health Organization and Management, 23*, 118-136. doi:10.1108/14777261211211124

Huo, Y. L., & Binning, K. R. (2008). Why the psychological experience of respect matters in group life: An integrative account. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass, 2*, 1570-1585. doi:10.1111/j.1751-9004.2008.00129.x

Hymowitz. C., & Schellhardt, T. D. (1986, March). The corporate woman (A Special Report): cover---The glass ceiling: Why women can't seem to break the invisible barrier that blocks them from the top jobs. *Wall Street Journal*, 57, D1, D4-D5.

Ionescu. L. (2012). Bureaucracy and equal gender representation. *Economics, Management, and Financial Markets, 7*(1), 108-113. Retrieved from https://www.ceeol.com/ecmfm.1842-3191

Isaac, C., & Griffin, L. (2015). Women chairs in academic medicine: Endangering strategic intuition. *Journal of Health Organization and Management, 29*, 498-514. doi:10.1108/JHOM-08-2013-0174

Jackson, S., & Jones, J. (1998). *Contemporary feminist theories*. Edinburgh, Scotland: Edinburgh University Press.

Jacob, S. A., & Furgerson, S. P. (2013). Writing interview protocols and conducting interviews: Tips for students new to the field of qualitative research. *The Quarterly Report, 17*, 1-10. Retrieved from https://nsuworks.nova.edu/tqr/vol17/iss42/3

Janesick, V. J. (2011). *Stretching: Exercises for qualitative researchers*. Thousand Oaks, Sage.

Jansson, N. (2014). Discourse phronesis in organizational change: A narrative analysis. *Journal of Organizational Change Management, 27*, 769-779. doi:10.1108/JOCM-09-2014-0173

Jasielska, A. (2014). Women career success in a man's work place: A cross national study. *Romanian Journal of Experimental Applied Psychology, 5*(1), 23-32. Retrieved from www.rjeap.ro

Jo, S. J., & Park, S. (2016). Critical review on power in organization: Empowerment in human resource development. *European Journal of Training and Development, 40*, 390-406. doi 10.1108/EJTD-01-2016-006

Johns, G. (1998). *Organizational behavior*. Bucharest, Romania: Editura Exonomica.

157

Johns, M. L. (2013). Breaking the glass ceiling, structural, cultural, and organizational barriers preventing women from achieving senior and executive positions. *Perspectives in Health Information Management, 10*, 1e. Retrieved from https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/Pmc3544145/

Johnson, C. (1994). Gender, legitimate authority, and leadership-subordinate conversations. *American Sociological Review, 59*, 122-135. doi:10.2307/2096136

Jones, E., Watson, B., Gardner, J., & Gallois, C. (2004). Organizational communication: Challenges for the new century. *Journal of Communication, 5*, 722-750. doi:10.1111/j.1460-2466.2004.tb02652.x.

Kanter, R. M. (1977). *Men and women of the corporation*. New York, NY: Basic Books.

Kantole, J. (2008). 'Why do all women disappear?' Gendering processes in a political science department. *Gender, Work, and Organization, 15*, 202-225. doi:10.1111/j.1468-0432.2007.00376.x

Karam, C. M., & Jamali, D. (2017). A cross-cultural and feminist perspective on CSR in developing countries: Uncovering the latent power dynamics. *Journal of Business Ethics, 142*, 461-477. doi:10.1007/s10551-015-073-7

Karreman, D. (2014). Understanding organizational realities through discourse analysis: The case of discursive pragmatism. *Journal of Business Anthropology, 3*, 201-215. Retrieved from https://www,cbs.dk/jba

Kelly, K., Clark, B., Brown, V., & Sitza, J. (2003). Good practice in the conduct and reporting of survey research. *International Journal of Quality in Health Care, 15*, 261-266. doi:10.1093/intqhc/mzg031

Keyton, J., Caputo, J. M., Ford, E. W., Fu, R., Leibowitz, S. A., Liu, T., Polasik, S. S., Ghosh, P., & Wu, C. (2013). Investigating verbal workplace communication behaviors. *Journal of Business Communication, 52*, 152-169. doi:10.1177/0021943612474990

Kilgour, M. A. (2013). The global compact and gender inequality: A work in progress. *Business and Society, 52*(1), 105-13. doi:10.1177/0007650312459918

Kim, H. K., Lee, U. H., & Kim, Y. H. (2015). The effect of workplace diversity management in a highly male-dominated culture. *Career Development International, 20,* 259-272. doi:10.1108/CDI-06-2014-0082

Kincheloe, J. L., & McLaren, P. L. (2002). Rethinking critical theory and qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin and Y. S. Lincoln, (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage. doi:10.1007/978-94-6091-397-6_23

158

Kirschenbaum, H., & Henderson, V. L. (1989). *The Carl Rogers reader*. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin.

Klikauer, T. (2015). Critical management studies and critical theory: A review. *Capital and Class, 39*, 197-220. doi:10.1177/0309816815581773

Koepnick, L. (2016). Critical theory and the German studies association. *German Studies Review, 39*, 553-563, 697. Retrieved from https%3A%2F%2Fsearch.proquest.com%2Fdocview%2F1830262220%3Faccoun

Kolade, J. O., & Obasan, K. (2013). Glass ceiling and women career advancement: Evidence from Nigerian construction industry. *Iranian Journal of Management Studies, 6*, 77-97. doi:10.22059/IJMS.2013.30125

Kupers, W. (2013). Embodied transformative metaphors and narratives in organizational life-worlds of change. *Journal of Organizational Management Change, 26*, 494-528. doi:10.1108/09534811311328551

Laclau, E., & Mouffe, C. (1987, November-December). Post-marxism without apologies. *New Left Review, 166*, 79-106.

Lanigan, R. L. (2010). Verbal and non verbal code of commumicology: The foundation of interpersonal agency and efficacy. In D. Eicher-Catt & I. E. Catt (Eds.), *Communicology: The new science of embodied discourse* (pp.102-130). Vancouver, British Columbia: Fairleigh Dickinson University Press.

Lather, P. (1992). Critical frames in research: Feminist and post-structural perspectives. *Theory in Practice, 31*, 87-99. doi:10.1080/00405849209543529

Lazar, M. M. (2007). Feminist critical discourse analysis: Articulating a feminist discourse praxis1. *Critical Discourse Studies, 4*, 141-164. doi:10.1080/17405900701464816

Lazar, M. M. (2010). Feminist critical discourse analysis: Articulating a feminist discourse praxis 1. *Critical Discourse Studies, 4*, 141-164. doi:10.1080/17405900701464816

Lazar, M. M. (2014, March). Feminist discourse analysis. In S. Ehrlich, M. Meyerhoff, & J. Holmes (Eds.), *The handbook of language, gender, and sexuality*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley and Sons. doi:10.1002/9781118584248.ch9

Lerner, G. (1979). *The majority findings its past: Placing women in history*. Chapel Hill, NC: The University of North Carolina Press.

LeVasseur, J. J. (2003). The problem of bracketing in phenomenology. *Qualitative Health Research, 13*, 408-420. doi:10.1177/1049732302250337

159

Lincoln, Y. S. (2005). Content, lived experiences, and qualitative research. In R. A. Swanson & E. F. Holt, III (Eds.), *Research in organizations foundations and methods of inquiry* (pp. 221-232). San Francisco, CA: Barrett-Koehler.

Lind, E. A., & Tyler, T. R. (1988). *The social psychology of procedural justice*. New York, NY: Plenum Press.

Linstead, A., & Brewis, J. (2004). Beyond boundaries: Towards fluidity in theorizing and practice. *Gender, Work, and Organization, 11*, 355-362. doi:10.1111/j.1468-0432.2004.00237.x

Lopez-Fernandez, M., Martin-Alcagar, F., & Romero-Fernandez, P. M. (2009). Key factors in the access of women to managerial posts. *Journal of General Management 34*, 39-50. doi:10.1177/030630700903400403

Lorber, J. (2005). *Gender inequality: Feminist theory and politics* (5th ed.). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Lowe, S., Rod, M., & Hwang, K. (2016). Understanding structures and practices of mean-making in industrial networks. *The Journal of Business and Industrial Marketing, 31*, 531-542. Retrieved from https://%3A%2Fsearh.proquest.com%2Fdocview%21823116483%Facco

Lukes, S. (1974). *Power: A radical view*. New York, NY: Palgrave.

Luthra, A., & Dahiya, R. (2015). Effective leadership is all about communicating effectively: Connecting leadership and communication. *International Journal of Management and Business Studies, 5*, 43-45. Retrieved from https://www.mcgill.ca/.../effective_leadership_is_all_about_comunicating_effectively_luthra_dahiya_2015.pdf

Madlock, P. E. (2012). The influence of power distance and communication on Mexican workers. *International Journal of Communication, 49*, 169-184. doi:10.1177/0021943612436973

Magalhaes, I. (2005). Interdiscursivity, gender, identity, the politics of literacy in Brazil. In M. M. Lazar (Ed.), *Feminist critical discourse analysis: Gender, power, and ideology in discourse* (pp. 181-204). New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.

Maier, F., Meyer, M., & Steinbereithner, M. (2014). Nonprofit organization becoming business like: A systemic review. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly, 45*, 64-86. doi:10.177/0899764014561796

Majid, M. A. A., Othman, M., Mohamad, S. F., Lim, S. A. H., & Yusof, A. (2017). Piloting for interviews in qualitative research: Operationalization and lessons learnt. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences, 7*, 1073-1080. doi:10.6607/IJARBSS/v7-i4/2916

160

Marecek, J., Crawford, M., & Popp, D. (2004). On the construction of gender, sex, and sexualities. In A. H. Eagle, A. B. Beall, & R. J. Sternberg (Eds.), *The psychology of gender (*2nd ed., pp. 192-216). New York, NY: New York, NY: Guilford Press.

Marin, M. (2015). Organizational discourse: Exploring the field. *The Scientific Journal of Humanistic Studies, 7*, 109-112. Retrieved from https%3A%2F%2Fsearch.proquest.com%2Fdocview%2F2099388933%3Faccount

Marlow, S. (2014). Exploring future research agendas in the field of gender and entrepreneurship. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship, 6*, 102-120. doi:10.1108/IJGE-01-2013-0003

Marshak, R. J., & Grant, D. (2008). Organizational discourse and new organization development practices. *British Journal of Management, 19*, 517-519. doi:10.1111/j1467-8851.2008.00567.x

Marshak, R. J., Keenoy, T., Oswick, C., & Grant, D. (2000). From outer worlds to inter worlds. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 36*, 245-258. doi:10.1177/0021886300362008

Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. B. (2012). *Designing qualitative research* (5th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Marshall, R., & Grant, D. (2008). Organizational discourse and new organization development practices. *British Journal of Management, 19*, 7-9. doi:10.1111/j.1467-8551.2008.00567.x

Martin, A. E., & Phillips, K. W. (2017). What "blindness" to gender differences helps women see and do: Implications for confidence, agency, and action in male-dominated environments. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 142*, 28-44. doi:10.1016/j.obhdp.2017.07.004

Marvin, S. (2009). Navigating the labyrinth: Senior women managing emotion. *International Journal: Work, Organization, and Emotions, 3,* 81-83. doi:10.1504/IJWOE.2009.025401

Mattis, M. C. (2001). Advancing women in business organizations: Key leadership roles and behaviors of senior leaders and middle managers. *Journal of Management Development*, *20*, 371-388. doi:10.1108/02621710110389009
.
McHoul, A., & Grace, W. (2015, March). *A Foucault primer: Discourse, power, and the subject*. doi:org/10.4324/9780203501177

McLaren, M. (1997). Foucault and the subject of feminism. *Social Theory and Practice*, *23*, 109-128. Retrieved from http://www.jstor.org/stable/23559121

161

Menegatti, M., & Rubini, M. (2017). Gender bias and sexism in language. *Oxford research encyclopedia of communication*. Retrieved from http://oxfordre.com/communication/view/10.1093/acrefore/9780190228613.001.0001/acrefore-97800190228613-e-470

Metz, I., & Kulik, C. T. (2014). The rock climb: Women's advancement in management. In S. Kumra, R. Simpson, & R. J. Burke (Eds.), *The Oxford handbook of gender in organizations* (pp. 249-268). New York,NY: Oxford University Press.
.
Mikkola, M. (2017). Feminist perceptions on sex and gender. *Stanford Encyclopedia of philosophy*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

Miller, N. K. (1991). *Going personal: Feminist occasions and other autobiographical acts*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Mills, S. (2004). *Discourse (*2nd ed.). London, England: Routledge.

Mills, J. C. H., & Mills, A. J. (2017). Rules, sense-making, formative contexts, and discourse in gendering of organizational culture. In N. M. J. Mills (Ed.), *Insights and research on the study of gender and intersectionality in international airline cultures* (pp. 49-69). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Mills, S., & Mullany, L. (2011). *Language, gender, and feminism*. Abingdon, United Kingdom: Routledge Press.

Morse, J. (2015). Critical analysis of strategies for determining rigor in qualitative inquiry. *Qualitative Health Research, 25*, 1212-1222. doi:10.1177/1049732315588501

Mumby, D. K. (2012). Communication, organization, and the public sphere: A feminist perspective. In P. M. Buzzanell (Ed.), *Rethinking organizational and managerial communication from feminist perspective* (pp. 3-23). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Mumby, D. K., & Clair, R. P. (1997). *Organizational discourse* (pp. 181-205). London, England: Sage.

Newman, N., & Newman, D. (2015). Learning and knowledge: A dream or nightmare for employees. *The Learning Organization, 22*, 58-71. doi:10.1108/TLO-02-2013-0002

Nishii, L. H., Khattab, J., Shemla, M., Paluch, R. M. (2018). A mult-level process of model for understanding diversity practice effectiveness. *Academy of Management, 12*(1), 37-82. doi:10.5465/annals.2016.0044

Ng, S. H., & Bradac, J. J. (1993). *Power in language: Verbal communication and social influence*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

162

Ng, S. H., & Deng, F. (2017). Language and power. *Oxford Research Encyclopedia of Communication*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press. doi: 10.1093/acrefore/9780190228613.013.436

Nordquist, R. (2019, January). What is communication? *ThoughCo*. Retrieved from thoughtco.com/what-is-communication-1689877

Nugent, P. (2013). Perception. *Psychology dictionary*. Retrieved from http://dictionary.org/perception

Oakley, A. (1974). *The sociology of housework*. London, England: Robertson.

Obama, B. (2016). *Remarks by the President Obama* [Reception in honor of Women's History Month]. Washington D. C.: White House. Retrieved from https://obamawhitehousearchives.gov/.../2016/03/...remarks-presidemt-reception-honor-womens-history-month

Onday, O. (2018, February). The relationship between concepts of rational natural and open systems: Managing organizations today. *International Journal of Information Business and Management, 10*, 245-258. Retrieved from ISSN 2218-046X (Online)

O'Reilly, M., & Parker, N. (2012). Unsatisfactory saturation: A critical exploration of the notion of saturated sample sizes in qualitative research. *Qualitative Research Journal*, 1-8. doi:10.1177/1468794112446106

Oswick, M., Keenoy, T., Grant, D., & Marshak, R. (2008). Discourse, organization, and epistemology. *Organization, 7*, 511-512. doi:10.1177/135050840073008

Ozkazanc-Pan, B. (2012). Postcolonial feminist research: Challenges and complexities. *Equality, Diversity and Inclusion: An International Journal, 31*, 573-591. doi:10.1108/02610151211235532

Ozkazanc-Pan, B. (2018). CSR as gendered neocoloniality in the global South. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 1-14. doi:10.1007/s10551-018-3798-1

Padavic, I., & Reskin, B (2012). *Women and men at work* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Pine Forge Press.

Parson, T. (1954). *Essays in social theory*. New York, NY: Free Press.

Patten, M. L. (2012). *Understanding research methods* (8th ed.). Glendale, CA: Pyrczak.

Patterson, A. (1997). Critical discourse analysis: A condition of doubt. *Discourse Studies in Cultural Politics of Education, 18*, 425-435. doi:10.1080/0159630970180307

163

Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative research and evaluation methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Paustian-Underdahl, S., Walker, L. S., & Woehr, J. W. (2014). Gender and perceptions of leadership effectiveness: A meta-analysis of contextual moderators. *Journal of applied Psychology, 99*, 1129-1145. doi: 10.1037/a0036751

Pearce, W. B. (2007). *Making social worlds: A communication perspective: Multiple perspectives* (pp. 35-54). Maden, MA: Blackwell.

Pennycock, A. (1994). Incommensurable discourses? *Applied Linguistics, 15*, 115-138. doi:10.1093/applin/15.2.115

Percy, W. H., Kostere, K., & Kostere, S. (2015). Generic qualitative research in psychology. *The Quarterly Report, 16*, 76-85. Retrieved from https://nsuworks.nova.edu/tqr/vol20/iss2/7

Perreault, G. (1984). Contemporary feminist perspectives on women and higher education. In J. Glazer, E. M. Bensimon, & B. K. Townsend (Eds.), *Women in higher education: A feminist perspective* (pp. 3-21). Needham Heights, MA: Ginn.

Pfeffer, K. (1992). *Managing with power: Politics and influence in organizations*. Boston, MA: Harvard University Press.

Phillips, N., & Oswick, C. (2012). Organizational discourse: Domain, debates, directions. *The Academy of Management Annals, 6*, 435-481. doi. 10.1080/19416520.2012.681558

Pitre, N., Raine, K., Kushner, K. E., & Hagadoren, K. M. (2013). Critical feminist narrative inquiry: Advancing knowledge through double-hermeneutic narrative analysis. *Advances* in *Nursing Science, 36*, 118-132. doi:10.1097/ANS.0b013e

Polkinghorne, D. E. (1988). *Narrative knowing and human sciences*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Potter, J., & Wetherell, M. (1987). *Discourse and social psychology*. London, England: Sage.

Powell, A., Bagilhole, B., & Dainty, A. (2009). How women engineers do and undo gender: Consequences for gender equality. *Gender and Organization, 16*, 411-428. doi10.1111/j.1468-0432.2008.00406.x

Powell, G. N. (2014). Sex, gender, and leadership. In S. Kumra, R. Simpson, & R. J. Burke (Eds.), *The Oxford handbook of gender in organizations* (pp. 249-268). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Powell, G. N., Butterfield, D. A., & Parent, J. D. (2002). Gender and managerial stereotypes: Have the times changed? *Journal of Management, 28*, 177-193. doi:10.1016/S0149-2063(01)00136-2

164

Prichard, C. (2006). The organizational of organization discourse. *Management Communication Quarterly, 20*, 213-226. doi:10.1177/0893318906291979

Putman, M., & Oswick, M. (2004). *Discourse and management: Critical perspectives through the language lens*. New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.

Rager, K. B. (2005). Self-care and the qualitative research: When collecting data can break your heart. *Educational Researcher, 34*, 23-27. doi:10.3102/0013189X034004023

Rajhans, K. (2012). Effective organizational communication: A key to employee motivation and performance. *Interscience Management Review, 2*, 81-85. Retrieved from (IMR) ISSN: 2231-1513

Ravazzani, S., & Maier, C. D. (2017). Strategic organizational discourse and framing in hypermodal spaces. *Corporate Communications, 22*, 507-522. doi:10.1108/CCU-06-2017-0063

Reed, M. (2000). The limits of discourse analysis in organizational analysis. *Organization, 7*, 524-530. doi:10.1177/135050840073011

Reeves, H., & Baden, S. (2000). Gender and development: Concepts and definitions. *Open Journal of Philosophy, 3*, 466-474.

Richards, J. S., & Schmidt, R. W. (2013). *Longman dictionary of language teaching and applied linguists*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Riessman, C. K. (1993). *Narrative analysis*. Newburg Park, CA: Sage.

Roberts, K. (1990). Deconstructing organizational taboos: The suppression of gender conflict in organizations. *Organization Science*, 1, 339-431. doi:10.1287/orsc.1.4.339

Rodriguez, J. K., Holvino, E., Fletcher, J. K., & Nkomo, S. M. (2016). The theory and praxis of intersectionality in work and organizations: Where do we go from here? *Gender, Work, & Organization, 23*, 201-202. doi:10.1111/gwao.12131

Rose, G. (1993). *Feminism and geography*. Minneapolis, MN: University Press.

Ruona, W. E. A., & Lynham, S. A. (2004). A philosophical framework for thought and practice, in human resource development. *Human Resource Development International, 7*, 151-165. doi:10.1080/13678860310001630665

Salin, D., & Hoel, H. (2013). Workplace bullying as a gendered phenomenon. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 28*, 235-251. doi:10.1108/02683941311321187

Sarup, M. (1989). *An introductory guide to post-structuralism and post modernism*. Great Britain: Harvest-Wheatsheaf.

Sawicki, J. (1994). Foucault, feminism, and questions of identity. In G, Gutting (Ed.), *Cambridge companion to Foucault*. Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press.

Searle, J. R. (1995). *The construction of social reality*. London, England: Allen Lane.

Sebba, M. (2012). Multilingualism in written discourse: An approach to the analysis of multilingual tests. *International Journal of Bilingualism, 17,* 97-118. doi: 10.1177/1367006912438301

Seo, G., Huang, W., & Han, S. C. (2017). Conceptual review of underrepresentation of women in senior leadership oppositions from a perspective of gendered social status in the workplace: Implication for HRD research practice. *Human Resource Development Review, 16*(1), 35-59. doi:10.1177/1534484317690063

Sever, H. (2016). The comparison of glass ceiling perception of employees working in public and private enterprises. *American Journal of Industrial and Business Management, 6*, 577-588. doi:10.4236/ajibm.2016.65054

Schein, V. E. (2001). A global look at psychological barriers to women's progress in management. *Journal of Social Issue, 57*, 675-688. doi:10.1111/0022-4537.00235

Sheridan, F. (2007). Gender, language and the workplace: An exploratory study. *Women in Management in Review, 22*, 319-336. doi:10.108/09649420710754264

Silbar, J., & Henley, L. (Musical Producers). (1982). *Wind beneath my wings*. [Song] Retrieved from http://www.elyrics.net/read/b/bette-midler-lyrics/wind-beneath-my-wings-lyrics.html

Sillince, J. A. A. (2002). A model of the strength and appropriateness of argumentation and rhetoric in organizational contexts. *Journal of Management Studies, 39*, 585-618. doi:10.1111/1467-6486.00001

Sillince, J. A. A. (2007). Organizational Context and the discursive construction of organizing. *Management of Communication Quarterly, 20*, 363-394. doi:10.1177/0893318906298477

Silverman, D. (2016). *Qualitative research*. New York, NY: Sage.

Sinclair, J. M., & Coulthard, M. (1975). *Towards an analysis of discourse: The English used by teachers and pupils*. London, England: Oxford University Press.

Smith, C., Santucci, D., Xu, S., Cox, A., & Henderson, K. A. (2012). "I love my job, but …:" A narrative analysis of women's perceptions of their careers in parks and recreation. *Journal of Leisure Research, 44*, 52-69. doi:10.1080/00222216.2012.11950254

166

Smith, J. J., Tyler, T. R., & Huo, Y. J. (2003). Interpersonal treatment, social identity and organizational behavior. In S. A. Haslam, D. van Knippenberg, M. J. Platow, & N. Ellemers (Eds.), *Social identity at work: Developing theory for organizational practice* (pp. 155-171). Philadelphia, PA: Psychology Press.

Snyder, R. A., & Morris, J. H. (1984). Organizational communication and performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 69*, 461-465. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.69.3.461

Soklaridis, S., Kuper, A., Whitehead, C. R., Ferguson, G., Taylor, V. H., & Zahn, C. (2017). Gender bias in hospital leadership: A qualitative study on the experiences of women CEOs. *Journal of Health Organization and Management, 31*, 253-268. doi:10.1108/JHOM-12-2016-0243

Sora, M. A., Kukkala, I., & Astedt-Kurik, P. (2014). Bracketing as a skill in conduction unstructured qualitative interviews. *Nurse Researcher, 22*, 8-12. doi:10.7748/nr.22.4.8.e1317

Spears, R., Ellemers, N., & Doosje, B. (2005). Let me count the ways in which I respect the: Does competence compensate or compromise lack of liking from the group? *European Journal of Social Psychology, 35*, 263-279. doi:10.1002/ejsp.248

Speris, R., Ellemers, N. Doosje, B., & Bramscombe, N. (2006). The individual within the group: Respect! In T. Postmes & J. Jetten Eds.), *Individuality and the group: Advances in social identity* (pp. 175-195). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage. doi: 10.4135/9781446211946.n10

Spicer, C. (1997). *Organizational public relations*. Mahawah, NJ: Lawrence Erilbaum Associates.

Srivastava, K., Chaudhury, S., Bhat, P., & Sahu, S. (2017). Misogyny, feminism, and sexual harassment. *Industrial Psychiatry Journal, 26*, 111-113. doi:10.4103/ijp.ijp_32_18

Stallings, W. M. (1995). Confessions of qualitative educational researcher trying to teach qualitative research. *Educational Researcher, 24*, 31-32. Retrieved from https://%3A%2F%2Fsearch.proquest.com%2Fdocview%2F214809659%3Faccou

Sullivan, P., & McCarthy, J. (2008). Managing the polyphonic sounds of organizational truths. *Organizational Studies,* 28, 525-54125-541. doi:10.1177/0170840608088702

Suri, H. (2011). Purposeful sampling in qualitative research synthesis. *Qualitative Research Journal, 11*, 63-75. doi:10.3316/QRJ1102063

Tannen, K. (1990). *You just don't understand: Women and men in conversation*. New York, NY: William Morrow.

Taylor, J. R., & Robichaud, D. (2004). Finding the organization in the communication: Discourse as action and sensemaking. *The Interdisciplinary Journal of Organization, Theory, and Society, 11*, 395-413. doi:10.1177/1350508404041999

Taylor, S., & Land, C. (2014). Organizational anonymity and the negotiation of research access. *Qualitative Research in Organizations and Management: An International Journal, 9*, 98-109. doi:10.1108/QROM-10-2012-1104

Thomas, S. (2012). Narrative inquiry: Embracing the possibilities. *Qualitative Research Journal, 12*, 206-221. doi:10.1108/14439881211248356

Thompson, L., Rickett, B., & Day, K. (2018). Feminist relational discourse analysis: Pulling the personal in the political in feminist research. *Qualitative Research in Psychology, 15*(1), 93-115. doi:10.1080/14780887.2017.1393586

Tong, R. (1998). *Feminist thought: A more comprehensive introduction*. Philadelphia, PA: Westview Press.

Torp, S. M. (2015). The strategic turn in communication science: On the history and role of strategy in communication science from ancient Greece until present day. *The Routledge handbook of strategic communication*. New York, NY: Routledge. Retrieved from https://www.routledgehandbooks.com/doi/10.4324/9780203094440.ch3

Torraco, R. J. (2004). Challenges and choices for theoretical research in human resource development. *Human Resource Development Quarterly, 15*, 171-188. doi:10.1002/hrdq.1097

Trehan, K. (2004). Who is not sleeping with whom? What's not being talked about in HRD? *Journal of European Industrial Training, 28*, 23-38. doi:10.1108/03090590410513875

Treyidga, H., Kearins, K., & Milne, M. (2013). The politics of knowing organizational sustainable development. *Organization and Environment, 20*, 102-129. doi:10.1177/1086026612474957

Tufford, L., & Newman, P. (2012). Bracketing in qualitative research. *Qualitative Social Work, 11*, 80-96. doi:10.1177/1473325010368316

Turner, P. K. (2007). The sage handbook of organizational discourse. *Management Communication Quarterly, 20*, 317-332. Retrieved from https%3A%2F%2Fsearch.proquest.com%2Fdocview%2F1928182914%3Faccountid%3D27965

Tutchell, E., & Edmonds, J. (2015). *Man-made. Why so few women are in positions of power*. Farnham, England: Gower.

168

Tyler, T. R., & Lind, E. A. (1992). A relational model of authority in groups. *Advance in Experimental Social Psychology, 25*, 115-191. doi:10.1016/S0065-2601(08)60283-X

Tyler, T. R., Deogoey, P., & Smith, H. (1996). Understanding why the justice of group procedures matters: A test of the psychological dynamics of the group-value model. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 70*, 913-930. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.70.5.913

Udry, J. R. (2000). Biological limits of gender construction. *American Sociological Review, 65*, 443-457. Retrieved from https://www.jstor.org/stable/2657466

Uhl-Bien, M. (2006). Reciprocity in manager-subordinate relationships: Components and configurations, and outcomes. *Journal of Management, 29*, 511-512. doi:10.1016/S0149-2063_03_00023-0

U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (2003). *Women at work*. Retrieved from https:ww/bls.gov/spotlight/2003/women/pdf/women_bls_spotlight.pdf

U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, (2014). *Women in the labor force*. Retrieved from https:www.bls.gov/opub/reports/women-datebook/arhieve/women-in-the labor-force-a-datebook/2014.pdf

U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical and Behavioral Research. (1979). *The Belmont report: Ethical principles and guidelines for the protection of human subjects of research* (45 CFR 46). Retrieved from http://www.hhs.gov/ohrp/regulations-and-policy/belmont-report/

U. S. Department of Labor. (1991). *A report on the glass ceiling initiative*. Washington, DC: Author.

U.S. Department of Labor and Federal Glass Ceiling Commission. (1995). *Good for business: Making full use of the nation's human capita*l. Washington, D.C. Retrieved from https://www.dol.gov/oasam/programs/history/reich/reports/ceiling.pdf

Urbanek, T., & Anyzova, P. (2017). Interdisciplinary or paradisciplinarity? A reflection on possible collaboration between scientific disciplines. *Sociologicky Casopis, 53*, 427-435. Retrieved from Sociologický časopis/CzechSociologicalReview

Vaara, E., Kleymann, B., & Seristo, H. (2004). Strategies as discursive constructions: A case study of Airline Alliances. *Journal of Management Studies, 4*, 1-35. doi:10.1111/j.1467-6486.2004.00419.x

van Dijk, T. A. (1997) *Discourse as structure process*. London, England: Sage.

van Dijk, T. A. (2001). Critical discourse analysis. *The handbook of discourse analysis, 18*, 352-371. Retrieved from http://www.hum.uva.nl.cda.htm

169

van Quaquebeke, N., Henrich, D. C., & Eckloff, T. (2007). "It's not tolerance I'm asking for, it's respect?" A conceptual framework to differentiate between tolerance, acceptance and respect. *Gruppendynamik und Organisationsberatung, 38*, 185-200. Retrieved from https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s11612-007-0015-6

van Quaquebeke, N., Zenker, S., & Echloff, T. (2009). "Find out how much it means to me." The importance of interpersonal respect in work values compared to perceived organizational practices. *Journal of Business Ethics, 89*, 423. doi:10.1007/s10551-008-0008-6

Vayaynen, T., & Laari-Salmela, S. (2018). Men, mammals, or machines? Dehumanization embedded in organizational practices. *Journal of Business Ethics, 14*, 95-113. doi.org/10.1007/s10551-015-2947-z

Vicente, A., & Martinez-Manrique, F. (2011). Inner speech: Nature and functions. *Philosophy Compass, 6*, 209-219. doi:10.1111/j.1747-9991.2010.00369.x

Vogl, S. (2013). Telephone versus face-to-face interviews: Mode effect on semi-structured interviews with children. *Sociological Methodology, 43*, 133-177. doi:10.1177/0081175012465967

Volpe, E. J., & Murphy, W. M. (2011). Career experiences of highly married professional women's career exit: Integrating identity and social networks. *Gender in Management International Journal, 26*, 57-83. doi:10.1108/17542411111109318

Voss, K. & Speere, L. (2014). Taking chances and making changes: The career paths and pitfalls of pioneering women in newspaper management. *Journal and Mass Communication Quarterly, 91*, 272-288. doi: 10.1177/10776990145274

Walker, J. L. (2012). The use of saturation in qualitative research. *Canadian Journal of Cardiovascular Nursing, 22*, 37-46. Retrieved from *PMID:* 22803288 *NLM UID:* 8913645 0843-6096

Walker, M. (2001). Engineering identities. *British Journal of Sociology of Education, 22,* 75-89. doi:10.1080/01425690020030792

Walsh, C. (2016). *Gender and discourse. Language and power in politics, the church, and organizations*. London, United Kingdom: Routledge. doi:10.4324/9781315838052

Walton, S. (2014). Engaging with a Laclan and Mouffeinformal discourse analysis: A proposed framework. *Qualitative Research in Organizations and Management: An International Journal, 9,* 351-370. doi:10.1108/QROM-10-2012-1106

170

Warnecke, R. B., Johnson, T. P., Chavez, N., Sudman, N., O'Rourke, D. O., Lacey, L., & Horm, J. (1997). Improving questions wording in surveys of culturally diverse populations. *Annals of Epidemiology, 7*, 334-342. doi:10.1016/S1047-2797(97)00030-6

Warriner, D., & Anderson, K. (2017). Discourse analysis in educational research, *Research Methods in Language and Education*, 297-309. doi:10.1007/978-3-319-02249-9_22

Weber, M. (1947). *The theory of social and economic organization*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Weedon, C. (1997). *Feminist practice and poststructuralist theory*. Cambridge, MA: Blackwell

Weedon, E. (2008). *Communities of practice: Learning, meaning, and identity* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Weenink, E., & Bridgman, T. (2017). Taking subjectivity and reflexivity seriously: Implications of social constructionism for reaching volunteer motivation. *International Society for Third Sector Research, 28*, 90-109. doi:10.1007/s11266-016-9824-y

Weick, K. E. (1987). Organizational culture as a source of high reliability. *California Management Review, 29*, 112-127. Retrieved from www.int.se/mit/education.courses/tnfl05-risk-och…/vecka…/1…/weick1987.pdf

Weick, K, E. (1995). *Sensemaking in organizations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Weick, K. E., Sutcliffe, K. M., & Obstfeld, D. (2005). Organizing and the process of sense-making. *Organization Science, 16*, 409-421. doi:10.1287/orsc.1050.0133

Western, S. (2008). *An overview of the leadership discourses: Leadership theories and values.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Westwood, R., & Linstead, S. (2004). *The language of organization*. London, United Kingdom: Sage.

Weyer, B. (2007). Twenty years later: Explaining the persistence of the glass ceiling of women leaders. *Women in Management Review, 22*, 482-496. doi:10.1108/09649420710778718

Whittingham, K.L. (2017). Gender differences in relationships between personality and career attribute priority. *The Journal of Business Diversity, 17*, 30-40. Retrieved from http://%3A%2F%2Fsearch.proquest.com%2Fdocview%2F1949477487%3Faccountid%3D 27965

Whyte, W. F. (1959). *Man and organization: Three problems in human relations in industry*. New York, NY: Richard D. Irwin.

171

Wight, C. (2018). Post- truth, postmodernismand alternative facts. *New Perspectives, 26,* 17-29. Retrieved from https://%3A%2F%2Fsearch.proquest.com%2Fdocview%2F2204514911%Facco

Wolfram, H., & Gratton, L. (2014). Gender role self-concept, categorially gender, and transactional-transformational leadership: Implications for perceived workgroup performance. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies, 21*, 338-353. doi:10.1177/1548051813498421

Wood, G. (2008). Gender stereotypical attitudes: Past, present and future influence on women's career advancement. *Equal Opportunities International, 27*, 613-628. doi:10.1108/02610150810904319

Wood, J. T. (2009). *Gendered lives: Communication, gender, and Culture* (8th ed.). Boston, MA: Wadsworth Cengage Learning.

Woods, M. (2011). *Interviewing for research and analyzing qualitative data: An overview*. [PowerPoint slides]. Palmerston North, New Zealand: Massey University Press.

Ye, L., Bose, M., & Pelton, L. E. (2017). How gender identity affects consumer behavior: Overview and historical analysis. *The Journal of Business Diversity, 17*, 9-24. doi:10.1007/978-3-030-0225687

Yu, S. L. (2014). Reclaiming the personal: Personal narratives of third-wave feminists. *Women's Studies*, *41*, 873-889. doi:10.1080/00497878.2011.603606

172

APPENDIX A. REACHER-DESIGNED SEMI-STRUCTURED QUESTIONS

Listed below are the semi-structured questions created to address the key concepts of discourse, gender, and power, and participants' experiences relative to women's perceived effectiveness of discourse in a male-dominated organization.

1. a. How do individuals in your organization in management positions experience and describe the intersections of gender and discourse? b. What are the challenges of these intersections of gender and discourse?

2. How do you experience gender and discourse at these intersections?

3. How do you construct and negotiate your self-identity at these intersections?

4. What are the structures of power that influence and shape your discourse and gender in your organization?

5. What are the implications for understanding your self-identity of discourse and gender in intersection of these two?

6. How would you describe or identify the level of influence you have in your organizational setting?

7. a. How did you achieve this level of influence? b. Is there any way in which you could be more influential?

8. What is your perception of the effectiveness of discourse in your organization?

9. How does discourse construct social reality in your organization?

10. a. What is your participation role in your organization's goal-setting processes? b. How have you experienced your ability in the organization's goal-setting processes?

173

11. What is your description of the influence your discourse has on goal-setting
    processes?

12. What is your perception of gender, power, and your discourse effectiveness in your
    organization?

13. How does the relationship between discourse, gender, and power affect your level
    of productivity in your organization?

APPENDIX B. RESEARCHER-DESIGNED DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

1. What is the professional level you currently hold or did hold in your organization?

   - Professional

   - Mid-level management

   - Senior management

2. How long have you been in/were you in your current position (in years and months)?

3. How long did you work for the organization before you got to your current position (in years and months)?

4. How many other positions have you held in your organization? Please list.

5. What position within your organization do/did you want to obtain? How far do you want to advance within the organization? Have you reach your professional goal with the organization?

6. What is your level of education?

   - High school diploma

   - Some college

   - Associate degree

   - Bachelor's degree

   - Master's degree

   - PhD

   - Certifications (please list)

7. What level of education is required for your position?

   - High school diploma

175

- Some college

- Associate degree

- Bachelor's degree

- Master's degree

- PhD

- Certifications (please list)

8. Do you have any special qualifications or licenses which are needed for your current position or to move up at work? Please list.

9. How many years of experience do you have in the industry?

10. What, if any, training do you have which was/is necessary to move up in your organization? Please explain.

11. Why are you interested in taking part in the research study?

176