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When women win: prominent leadership traits that contributed to the successful election of women in California

Diandra Simone Bremond

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WHEN WOMEN WIN: PROMINENT LEADERSHIP TRAITS THAT CONTRIBUTED TO

THE SUCCESSFUL ELECTION OF WOMEN IN CALIFORNIA

A dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction

of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership

by

Diandra Simone Bremond

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Dr. Laura Hyatt

This dissertation, written by

Diandra Simone Bremond

under the guidance of a Faculty Committee and approved by its members, has been submitted to and accepted by the Graduate Faculty in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

Doctoral Committee:

Laura Hyatt, Ed D, Chairperson

Paul Sparks, Ph.D.

Judge Tobin, J.D.

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DEDICATION

This dissertation study is dedicated the women elected officials who agreed to participate in this research, and to all the women who aspire to run for elected positions in all levels of government in the United States.

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VITA

EDUCATION

Doctorate of Education, Organizational Leadership
Pepperdine University, 2013–2016

Master of Public Policy
Pepperdine University, 2010–2012

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE

Director of Trauma Informed Youth Development Programs
Brotherhood Crusade, (2012-Present)

Gang Reduction Youth Development Program Director
Brotherhood Crusade, (2014-Present)

Director of Trauma-Informed Sports-Based Youth Development Programs
Brotherhood Crusade, (2012-Present)

Nutrition Education Obesity Prevention Program Director
Brotherhood Crusade, (2013–2014)

ABSTRACT

This qualitative study identifies prominent leadership traits that contributed to women's

successful election in California. Moreover, this study discovers how intelligence, self-

confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability contribute to California women's success.

The research design was a qualitative narrative study. Women elected officials in local,

state, and federal legislatures in California were the participants. The conceptual framework

served as a basis for the purpose and research questions. Semi-structured questions were utilized

to interview women elected officials in California to identify leadership traits that contributed to

their successful election. Following an extensive literature review, an expert panel of researchers

ascertained the validity of this research. Content analysis was applied to code key themes and a

second reviewer established reliability.

Research participants' responses unveiled 5 themes that California women elected

officials said contributed to their success: (a) it's important to be knowledgeable and smart; (b)

overcoming challenges, self-doubt, and belief; (c) determination is key; (d) integrity as a value;

and (e) relating (relationships) to others, approachability, and connecting to people. These traits

correlated to those noted by Northouse (2013) and served as this study's conceptual framework.

These traits will help with future studies on women's participation in politics, and trait

leadership theories. Additionally, scholars may use the traits this study identified to further

research of women who seek to become elected officials. The findings from this study may also

guide institutions that assist women leaders who aspire to become elected officials.

In addition to this study being relevant for scholars, it may serve women intent on

attaining leadership positions in government. Political parties and think tanks may utilize the

findings to examine the current landscape of women's participation in government in California and throughout the United States.

Chapter 1: Government Landscape

Nearly a century has passed since the 19th amendment's ratification in 1920. Since then, there have been significant changes in women's participation in the United States government. Although the pervasive gender disparity in the United States government has decreased (Carroll, 2004), there is still great disparity among men and women elected officials in government. One can examine this gender disparity at all levels of government (Procopio, 2005). Sharma (2012) stated, "Equal access of men to women in power, decision-making, and leadership at all levels is a necessary pre-condition to the proper functioning of a democracy" (p. 1). Although there has been significant growth in women's participation in politics (Scola, 2013), women only comprise 24.3% of all legislative seats throughout the United States (Ziegler, 2015). More specifically, according to Close the Gap (2013), women make up more than 50% of the population of the state of California, but only 26% of the state legislature. Furthermore, the state of California ranks 19th in women's representation in government throughout the United States. Therefore, the intent of this study is to discover prominent leadership traits among women that would help them become successful elected officials at all levels of government, specifically in the state of California.

Organization of the Chapter

This chapter begins with the background of the study. The problem is discussed, followed by the purpose and the research questions. An overview of the design is introduced as well as the conceptual framework, the significance and relevance, and the operational definitions. A summary concludes the chapter.

Background

Historically, the overt discrimination against women, who are included in the description of minorities, has long existed in the United States. The nation's constitutional framers founded

the United States of America on the premise that the people of the country would be allowed to elect the people they thought should represent the homeland's ideologies to establish law and policies that would govern the populous (Papan, 1981). Prior to the culmination of the Civil War, the only voices and ideologies represented in American society were those of affluent White males. After the adoption of the 15th amendment, all men, regardless of race and creed, were granted the right to vote in the United States (Calkins, 1975).

History of women in government. After the ratification of the 19th amendment in 1920, which granted women the right to vote (Calkins, 1975), an increase in women's participation in government precipitated. In 1923, the first woman ever to hold a statewide elected seat was Soledad C. Chacon. Chacon served as the Secretary of State for New Mexico from 1923 to 1926. The following states also had women secretaries of state in the 1920s: Delaware, Kentucky, New York, South Carolina, and Texas. Additionally, Grace B. Urbahns, a Republican from Indiana served from 1926 to 1932 as the first woman to be elected as treasurer of the state. Moreover, the first woman governor to be elected was Nellie Taylor Ross, a Democrat from Wyoming. Ross was elected to fill her late husband's elected seat. The first woman elected as governor of the state and not preceded by her husband, was Ella Grasso, who presided over the state of Connecticut from 1975 to 1980 (Carroll, 2004).

The Voting Rights Act of 1982 protects citizens who are deemed to have less opportunity than other members of the United States' electorate; therefore, they have less opportunity to participate in the political decision-making process and vote for elected officials of their choice (Rule, 1995). Although women were given the right to vote with the ratification of the 19th amendment (Calkins, 1975), women were not named specifically in the Voting Rights Act of 1982; thus, they were not granted the same protection as men (Rule, 1995). Rule posited,

"Female voters have had no *de facto* right to elect representatives of their choice, therefore, female candidates were denied, in reality, the right to be elected" (p. 356).

With the ratification of the 19th amendment, women's rights to vote have yet to equate to gender parity in government. Although women vote at much higher rates than men (Goldberg, 2012), and make up nearly 53% of the United States population women constitute only 24.3% of (Ziegler, 2015). In 1951, there were only 10 women who held seats in the House of Representatives. One served in the United States Senate, 242 were state legislators, and there were no female governors (Hernson, Lay, & Stokes, 2001). Moreover, in 1985, there were 24 women in Congress, two serving as state governors, and 1,101 serving in the state legislature (Ziegler, 2015). The year 1992 is known as the year of the woman. Women's numbers in Congress that year nearly doubled, with 47 women in the House of Representatives and six women elected to the Senate (Clymer, 1992). In 2001, one could recognize nearly a 20% increase in women's participation in government; there were 59 women who held seats in the House of Representatives, 13 in the Senate, 1,656 state legislators, and five governors (Hernson et al., 2001).

In the past few decades, women have aspired to become elected to some of the highest positions of government in the United States. In 2002, Nancy Pelosi, a democrat from California became the first female House of Representatives Minority Leader. Just six years later, Pelosi became the first woman to be elected as the speaker of the House of Representatives (Cottle, 2008). The Speaker of the House of Representatives is the third highest political position in the United States (Daly, 2007). Furthermore, in the 2008 election, Hillary Rodham Clinton faced off in the Democratic primary election against, then President Barack Obama (Parton, 2014). Hillary Clinton ran for the Democratic seat for the presidency for the second time in 2016 (Domenech,

2014), and if she were successful at winning, she would have been the first woman to do so (Parton, 2014).

The study of leadership. Scholars and researchers often examine leadership. Typically, using empirical studies, scholars and researchers examine the behaviors and traits that aid in leaders' effectiveness. Moreover, leadership study is pervasive in examining organizational behavior. Leadership is defined as the ability to influence a group toward achievement of a vision or set of goals (Robbins & Judge, 2011). Historically, leaders have been described in terms of their traits. Trait theory leadership focuses on the personal qualities or characteristics of a leader (Robbins & Judge, 2011). Geier (1967) examined 20 different studies that identified 80 different leadership traits; however, only five were common to the 20 studies. These five characteristics are known as the Big Five Model, which includes extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, and openness to experience. Research suggests that traits can be a predictor of leadership. However, that a leader exhibits Big Five traits does not predict a leader's success in getting his or her subordinates to achieve its goals (Robbins & Judge, 2011).

Past leadership studies focused on males and failed to address women's traits (Stodgill, 1974). However, women are being examined in scholarly work, as females have become more observable in leadership roles and gender-related differences have become overt in the study of leadership. Opposing opinions have developed with the recent influx of research regarding gender differences in leadership. One conclusion deduces that men and women lead the same (Kornacki, 2007; Smartseva & Fomina, 2002). Other studies conclude that men and women utilize different behaviors to lead (Anderson & Blanchard, 1982; Rosner, 1990).

Research suggests that women and men's leadership styles can be either dissimilar or similar. However, when similarities persist, research purports that this is a result of women

feeling pressured to alter their leadership styles to emulate men (Gardiner & Tiggemann, 1999). Gardiner and Tiggemann's findings were consistent with Eagly and Johnson's (1990). Eagly and Johnson found that women were more democratic in their leadership styles, while men were more autocratic. Additionally, when men dominate numerically within an organization, the tendency for women to lead interpersonally diminishes (Gardiner & Tiggemann, 1999). Furthermore, when differences do exist between men and women leaders, a conclusion usually can be attributed to social and cultural influences on their lives (Willemsen, Leeden, & Van Engen, 2010).

Problem Statement

The gender disparity in government has been pervasive in the United States since the Constitution's ratification. Long after the 19th amendment's ratification (Calkins, 1975), United States elected officials are still overtly male. This presents a challenge to future women elected officials. In addition to being a small percentage of the political decision makers in the United States, oftentimes women are confronted with the responsibilities of child rearing and homemaking (Donaldson, 2006), while balancing the role of being an elected official. Running for an elected post in the United States as a woman is a far different experience than running for office as a man. Governor Kunin was a woman elected in the state of Vermont from 1985 to 1991. She stated the following in Donaldson's (2006) essay:

> What makes the political experience different for women? Women are newcomers, newly arrived immigrants, learning both the customs and the language of this new place. Men's political citizenship is unquestioned; many have held it for two or three generations. When they look around the table, they see themselves mirrored everywhere, other men wearing dark suits, red ties and white shirts. When they walk into the ceremonial rooms

of statehouses, courthouses and the Capitol, the portraits on the walls tell them,

"Welcome, we've been waiting for you; to take your seat." (p. 24).

To aggravate further the circumstances, women often have to worry about how masculine or feminine they should be to be perceived as effective leaders (Morton, 2013). Men are often arbitrarily perceived as competent, whereas women have to prove their competence (Donaldson, 2006).

Press disregarded women elected officials when they first entered the political arena (Morton, 2013). Mass media, including broadcast media are the most important windows through which citizens view public affairs (Strate, Ford, & Jankowski, 1994). However, in the late 1960s, journalists and political scientists begin to compile relevant biographical data and conduct serious interviews with women elected officials (Morton, 2013).

Although there has been a historic disregard for an examination of women's participation in politics, women's leadership styles, and women's trait theory, women are still increasingly elected in the United States. Moreover, studies have presented the dissimilarities and similarities of men and women's leadership styles (Anderson & Blanchard, 1982; Kornacki, 2007; Rosner, 1990; Smartseva & Fomina, 2002). However, there are scant studies on the leadership traits to which women elected officials attribute their success. Research espouses that men and women often have fundamentally different leadership traits (Anderson & Blanchard, 1982; Rosner, 1990). Such traits are outlined in the literature in this study.

Women's participation in politics ought to be highlighted in literature and research as a result of the increased rate at which women are elected in the United States. Women make up much of the electorate, vote at higher rates than men, and have the abilities to raise funds similarly to men (Goldberg, 2012; Ziegler, 2015). However, America ranks 98th in the world for

percentage of women in its national legislature (Hill, 2014). Gender equality in, decision making and leadership at all levels is a necessary precondition to the proper functioning of a democracy (Sharma, 2012).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this qualitative study is to identify prominent leadership traits that contributed to women's successful election in California. Moreover**,** this qualitative study intends to discover how intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability contribute to the successful election of women in California.

Research Questions

The research questions were developed based on the thorough review of the literature and informed by the conceptual framework. Therefore, the following research questions intend to respond to the purpose of the study:

1. How does intelligence contribute to successful election of women in California?
2. How does self-confidence contribute to successful election of women in California?
3. How does determination contribute to successful election of women in California?
4. How does integrity contribute to successful election of women in California?
5. How does sociability contribute to successful election of women in California?

Conceptual Framework

Women who elect to participate in government are leaders. Moreover, their objectives as politicians are to transmute government administrations so that they may function effectually. Therefore, for the purpose of this study, the conceptual framework will include Northouse's (2013) five leadership traits. Northouse (1997) has examined leadership traits since the late 1990s and the following traits are what the author has deduced and synthesized to be prominent

in leaders. These traits include intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability.

Intelligence in leadership. Scholars Jenkins (1947), Stogdill (1948), and Mann (1959) contend that intellect is an essential trait of leadership. Intelligence is scarcely associated with the cogent exertion vital for influencing the necessities of modern life (Gottfredson, 1997). Additionally, intellect is the highest predictor of job performance in numerous occupations (Ones, Viswesvaran, & Dilchert, 2005). Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) claim that leaders shall collect, assimilate, manufacture, and deduce vast quantities of evidence. Kirkpatrick and Locke also assert that such requirements are pervasive today because of hasty technological advancements. Thus, leaders ought to be intelligent in order to communicate suitable methods and tactics, mitigate issues, and make precise conclusions.

Judge, Colbert, and Illies (2004) claim that intellect, as a trait, is tremendously respected in Western nations. Herrnstein and Murray's (1994) investigation determined that intelligence is related to work performance. The scholars also learned that intelligence is complementary to work, financial self-sufficiency, affluence, scholastic success, conjugal steadiness, permissibility, and legalized actions. Schmidt and Hunter (2000) stated, "Intelligence is the most important trait or construct in all of psychology, and the most 'successful' trait in applied psychology" (p. 4). Lord, Foti, and DeVader (1984) found that of 59 leadership traits, honesty, charisma, kindness, and intelligence were prototypical of a leader. Lord et al. also contend that intelligence was the single characteristic that all good leaders ought to possess.

Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) reason that intelligence might be a characteristic that followers expect a leader to have in handling multiple situations. If a person is in the role of a spearhead, subordinates would expect the individual to be more adroit than they are.

Consequently, the follower's discernment of intelligence in a leader is imperious. Zaccaro (2007) states that leaders are habitually more intellectual than their dependents. Hetzel and Barr (2000) avow that when special people have vision, intelligence may be beheld in a dissimilar realm. Intelligence from this purview is not a remote trait, but rather traversing with the aptitude to overlap needs in situations, exploiting technical know-how in a group paradigm. Therefore, intelligence allows for improvement and chances to be captured, thus, arousing reasoning and evaluation.

Self-confidence in leadership. McClellan (1985) asserted that self-confidence is the point of possibility that leaders believe they can reach goals successfully. Bass and Stodgill (1990) suggested that self-confidence was a constructive leadership trait in the primitive research on successful leaders**.** Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) maintain that leadership is challenging, and self-confidence for a leader is vital as it enables leaders to complete tasks. Kirkpatrick and Locke also posited that self-confidence is necessary in leadership because a leader who has reluctances about his or her abilities may not act in some situations because he or she fears the outcomes of decisions he or she makes. Therefore, the leader's procrastinated decision making could cause followers to lose trust in his or her capabilities as a leader.

Daft (1994) explicated self-confidence as assertion in one's own suppositions, choices, viewpoints, capacities, and abilities. Kolb (1999) imposed that self-confidence is a trait that is concurrent with leadership. Correspondingly, Hollenbeck and Hall (2004) posit that self-confidence is a leader's belief in whether he or she can finish tasks. Jennings (2009) contended that self-confident leaders are self-assured about their abilities and the decisions they make, allowing their subordinates to be firm that their employees are moving in the right direction. Additionally, Jennings asserted that self-confident leaders can inspire subordinates to work

toward shared goals and harvest admiration from their supporters because of the choices they make and the risks they take.

Bennis and Nanus (1985) contend that transformational leaders are chiefly self-confident. Indeed, self-confidence and leadership has been documented in an overabundance of academic research studies linked to charismatic leadership as a pivotal facet of leadership success, and as a forerunner charisma credits (Conger & Kanungo, 1987; House, 1977; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993). Through transmitting the likelihood of success, a leader's self-confidence may afford the leader more allure and charisma, and urge fixation in the objectives that ought to be completed (DeCremer & Knippenberg, 2004). Besides, a leader's display of self-confidence might enrich the leader's success. Furthermore, a leader's exhibition of self-confidence enhances the relationship between a leader and his or her followers. Northouse (2013) asserts that self-confidence is a trait that a successful leader ought to possess. Leadership incorporates motivating and inspiring followers, so self-confidence permits the leader to be clear that how he or she motivates subordinates is appropriate in any given situation.

Goel and Aggarwal (2012) assert that self-confidence is a personality trait that embraces an arrangement of a person's opinions and emotions, goals, and needs. Additionally, Goel and Aggarwal assert that self-confidence is a trait of a person's alleged self. Likewise, self-confidence is an individual's capability to perceive himself or herself to be humanly capable, expressively mature, knowledgeably passable, thriving, content, conclusive, hopeful, self-governing, autonomous, progressive, self-assured, and possessing leadership makings.

Kukulu, Korucku, Ozdemir, Bezci, and Calik (2013) proclaim that self-confidence can be classified into two fragments: inner confidence and outer confidence. Characteristics of inner confidence are self-love, and being visionary and optimistic. Inner confidence suggests that an

individual's beliefs and opinions signify how much a person is satisfied with himself or herself. Kukulu et al. explain that people with raised levels of self-confidence are satisfied with them and possess higher levels of self-esteem. Furthermore, extrinsic confidence is viewed in traits such as composure in communication and the capacity of controlling emotions. Self-confident leaders typically have frank goals; however, self-confidence does not mean that a person will be satisfied under difficult situations.

Suwandi (2014) defines self-confidence as:

Self-confidence is a combination of attitude and personal beliefs in facing the task, which is internal, relative, dynamic and determined by his ability to start, conduct, and solve the problem. Self-confidence is a positive thing that someone has in order to accept themselves, be brave to take a risk, and believe of their own potency that they have. (p. 262).

Additionally, Suwandi contends that self-confidence is congruent to self-efficacy. The author asserts that self-efficacy is the belief or perception that a leader holds the skill set to complete specific tasks. Furthermore, Suwandi comments that self-efficacy in regard to learning refers to a leader's self-confidence in developing expertise, whereas self-efficacy for performance includes a leader's confidence in finishing a duty for which a leader already possesses the necessary skills to see the task to conclusion.

Schwarder (2004) posits that there are five conditions to promote self-confidence, which include self-talk, written affirmations, emotional visualization, external messages, and having the courage to act. Self-talk refers to how one speaks to oneself to effectuate outcomes. The author also adds that affirmations should be written, in addition to being spoken. When these declarations are reviewed often, a person is more likely to believe his or her thoughts. Emotional

visualization refers to being able to envision one's successes. Successful individuals frequently employ visualization in reality. Additionally, in order to construct self-confidence, leaders ought to garner encouraging verbiage from external resources, as they can assist in lifting up one's spirit. Indeed, successful leaders have to have the audacity to make decisions. Weiss (2004) contends that to intensify self-confidence, a leader shall understand his or her competitors. Studying one's competitors may intensify a leader's competitiveness and build up institutional outcomes.

Determination in leadership. To be self-determining means to exercise one's choice in initiating and managing one's own actions. Scholars have linked self-determination to profound creativity (Amabile, 1983), speculative learning (Benware & Deci, 1984), self-esteem (Deci, Schwartz, Sheinman, & Ryan, 1981), and an individual's overall well-being (Langer & Rodin, 1976). These have stirred psychologists to expound on the preemptive circumstances that support self-determination and to specify the significance of self-determination to various applied circumstances.

Ward (1988) denoted self-determination as the intrinsic trait that leaders obtain in order to realize the objectives they have set for themselves**.** Weymeyer (1992) defined self-determination as the ability to act on tasks set forth without internal or external impacts impeding decision making. Field and Hoffman (1994) referred to self-determination as a leader's capacity to outline and complete objectives based on the understanding concerning oneself. L. Powers, Singer, and Sowers (1996) proclaim that self-determination refers to when a leader or an individual is inspired inherently to self-direct his or her objectives.

Instead of the word determination, Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) utilize the word drive. Kirkpatrick and Locke suggested there are five components of drive, which include achievement

motivation, ambition, energy, tenacity, and initiative. Northouse (2013) asserts that a successful leader shall be self-determined. Northouse proclaims that determination includes traits such as initiative, persistence, dominance, and drive. Leaders, who are determined and have drive, can remain resilient through hardships and tribulations. Furthermore, leaders who are self-determined are not unwilling to be domineering in situations where subordinates ought to be led.

Self-determination is a much-respected trait of leaders (Tombari & Litchenstein, 2010). The authors assert that when leaders have prodigious self-determination, they are typically describing an individual with persistence and will-power. Moreover, Tombari and Litchenstein, stated that self-determination refers to individuals beliefs that they control and are responsible for what happens to them, as opposed to believing that they suffer because of outside forces. The authors also suggest that Self-Determination Theory is a theory of human motivation that explains why some individuals are agents of their success, while others are pawns of what happens around them. Furthermore, self-determination focuses on the social conditions that promote intrinsic motivation, self-regulation, and well being.

Seibert and Kramer (2001) assessed extroversion in leaders in specialized backgrounds. Seibert and Kramer discovered that extroversion permitted leaders to flourish in social settings, And, therefore, enabling leaders who are sociable to have fruitful careers.

Integrity in leadership. Kuhnert and Lewis (1987) assert that a leader who possesses principles such as integrity, honor, and justice, has the capability to transform his or her followers. Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) contend that integrity is a value in all individuals, but integrity has surprising meaning for leaders. Moreover, Kirkpatrick and Locke contend that with the absence of integrity, leadership is reduced. Thus, integrity shapes the crux of a trusting relationship between a leader and his or her followers.

Ciulla (1995) proclaims that ethics is essential to leadership. J. Thomas (2008) posits that ethical leadership concerns a leader having individual integrity. Yukl (2001) suggests that in many cultures, integrity is one of the most essential traits of a leader. J. Thomas (2008) contends that ethical leadership has traditionally included other personal traits such as trustworthiness, honesty, fairness, principled decision making, and behaving ethically in the leader's personal and professional life.

Simons (1999) believe that integrity is when a person's beliefs are affiliated with his or her actions. Sampford and Berry (2004) suggest that integrity requires a leader to ask questions about his or her followers' principles and values. Sampford and Berry imply that leaders should live by the words they speak in public appearances. Moreover, Shacklock and Lewis (2007) proclaim that an individual could have integrity and not be a good person at the same time.

Institutions have long been concerned with integrity in the workplace (Kanungo & Mendonca, 1996). Numerous organizational scholars contend that leadership without integrity could potentially put the institutions at risk of imploding (Morgan, 1993; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982; Parry, 1998). Furthermore, integrity is an ideology typically used within organizational behavior research, but is not clearly defined and understood (Rieke & Guastello, 1995). Simons (1999) recommends there is often incongruity between the morals and values a leader may possess and the palpable ethics personified in their actions. Therefore, lacking integral leadership in an institution may be a hindrance because of absence of effective actions, fraudulence, and lack of communication (Kanungo & Mendonca, 1996).

Craig and Gustafason (1998) assert that leaders who are perceived as having integrity are often successful as leaders. Petrick and Quinn (2000) proclaim that having integrity includes the individual's collective competence for recurrent method configuration of ethical consciousness,

cooperation, honor, and conduct that authenticates steady decree, enhances sustained ethical development, and sanctions inspiring structures for truthful decision making. Shacklock and Lewis (2007) suggest that leading with integrity requires leaders to act ethically, regardless of the outcome. Northouse (2013) commented that integrity includes both honesty and fidelity. Northouse proclaimed that leaders with integrity are more apt to take responsibility for their actions. Last, leaders who have integrity also motivate their subordinates because they are trusted in their positions.

Sociability. House and Howell (1992) assert that leaders who are prevailing are more inclined to be social. Social leaders are not petrified to initiate conversations in social settings and tend to utilize humor to cultivate their relationships. Bass (1998) argues that sociability is credibly linked to transformational leadership. Judge and Bono (2000) suggest that the parallel between dominance and sociability is extraversion. Costa and McCrae (1988) contend that extraversion was strongly correlated to social leadership. Northouse (2013) defines sociability as a leader's ability to pursue amiable relationships. Additionally, social leaders tend to be amicable, outward-bound, quick-witted, ambassadorial, and well mannered and. Thus, Northouse proposes that sociability is a trait that successful leaders possess.

In Bass and Stodgill's (1990) investigation, calculations connecting extraversion to leadership were conflicting. However, Costa and McCrae (1988) posit that extraversion is credibly associated to social leadership. Watson and Clark (1997) proclaim that extraversion is often linked to leaders thriving in social settings. Hogan, Curphy, and Hogan (1994) assert that possessing extraversion as a trait is prototypical of a leader. Additionally, Hogan et al. suggest that extraverted leaders are typically enthusiastic. Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) stated, "Leaders are more likely than nonleaders to have a high level of energy and stamina and to be generally

active, lively, and often restless" (p. 50). Gough (1988) contends that extroverts are normally labeled as energetic, self-confident, and spirited, versus being unspoken or reserved. Additionally, Gough (1990) discovered that followers respected leaders who were extroverted, and exhibited traits of dominance and sociability.

The research discovered that intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability are pertinent to the study of trait leadership. Therefore, they will make up the conceptual framework for this research study.

Design of the Study

This study's design was chosen because of the review of literature, which led to the formation of the research questions. This study uses qualitative interviews, which utilized narrative text. A qualitative research design and methodology was chosen to discover whether, intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability contributed to women becoming elected officials in the state of California. The motivation for utilizing qualitative research in this study is a result of Myers (1997) arguing , "The goal of understanding a phenomenon from the point of view of the participants and its particular social and institutional context is largely lost when textual data are quantified" (p. 3).

Creswell (2013) recommends that narrative research is best utilized when it captures comprehensive life experiences of one life or a small number of individuals. Narratives will be collected in this study through the use of interviews utilizing semistructured interviews. The participant sample will include 10 experienced women who have been elected to office in the state of California.

Significance and Relevance of the Study

Much of the research and literature that exists regarding women's participation in government in the United States provides information on how long the gender disparity has increased in government and why women are not being elected at nearly the same rate as men (Goldberg, 2012; Scola, 2013). Consequentially, there is insufficient research and literature that examines the traits that woman elected officials attribute to their success. Furthermore, the research that does speak to the traits of women elected officials fails to look at multiple branches of governments in the particular state being assessed. This study will serve as the literature to expand further the research on identifiable women elected officials' traits that aid in their success in all branches of the United States government.

A qualitative examination of traits that aid in the success of women becoming an elected official is important because it will: (a) develop a consortium of leadership traits that elected women officials in the United States attribute to their success, and (b) examine and define the requisite steps to become a woman elected official. Additionally, this dissertation will provide the basis for future research on inspiring women in the United States to run for an elected seat in government, and thus, increase women's participation in government in the United States.

Significance to the field of leadership. This study presents information for scholars that will help with future studies on women, women's participation in politics, and trait leadership theories. Scholars may utilize this study as a composite for research on the aforementioned topics.

Significance for women. This study describes the current landscape of elected women officials in the United States government. Moreover, this study may serve as an outline for

women who may be interested in attaining leadership positions in government, or becoming an elected official.

One could recommend that overt discrimination against women in government may act as a deterrent to pursuing a position in government. This study affords information for women who aspire to hold elected seats in all levels of the United States government.

Significance for educators. Scholars may utilize this study to research examples of women who have aspired to and successfully become elected officials. This study provides the history of women's participation in politics and a unique purview of what leadership traits are necessary to aspire to becoming an elected official in the United States. Furthermore, this study provides a composite of general leadership theories. Last, this study will guide universities and institutions in informing women leaders who want to pursue an elected office.

Significance for political parties. Political parties and think tanks may utilize this research to examine the current landscape of women's participation in government in the United States and in the state of California. Moreover, political parties and think tanks will be able to utilize this research to help inform women who aspire to become elected officials of what requisite leadership traits are needed to be elected.

Operational Definitions

Determination: For the purpose of this study, determination will be defined as the desire to get the job done such as having initiative, persistence, dominance, and drive (Northouse, 2013).

Congress: For the purpose of this study, Congress will be defined as the highest level of a governing decision-making body in the United States.

Elected officials: For the purpose of this study, an elected official will be defined as any person who has been voted into a government seat on the local, state, and federal levels by citizens of the United States.

Executive branch of government: For the purpose of this study, the executive branch of government will be defined as the arm of the government that is administered by the United States President. The United States President has the power to veto any laws passed by Congress. Furthermore, the United States President serves as the United States military's Commander in Chief.

Federal government: For the purposes of this study, the federal government consists of the executive, legislative, and judicial branches. The president presides over the executive branch.) The United States President serves as the Commander and Chief, and presides over the Legislative Branch of government, which that includes the House of Representatives and the Senate.

Integrity: For the purpose of this study, integrity will be defined as the traits of honesty and trustworthiness (Northouse, 2013).

Intelligence: For the purpose of this study, intelligence will be defined as intellectual ability, including verbal, perceptual, and reasoning capabilities (Northouse, 2013).

Judicial branch of government: For the purpose of this study, the judicial branch of government will be defined as the United States national court system. The President of the United States appoints the federal judge positions.

Leadership: For the purpose of this study, leadership is a process in which one individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal (Northouse, 2013).

Leadership style: For the purpose of this study, leadership style will be defined as a leader's style utilized to get his or her subordinates to achieve a common goal.

Legislative branch of government: For the purpose of this study, the legislative branch of government will be defined as elected members of Congress who serve in the House of Representatives or the United States Senate.

Local government: For the purpose of this study, local government will be defined as county and city government agencies within the United States.

Politics: For the purpose of this study, politics will be defined as activities relating to the operating of a governance of a group of people or population.

Self-confidence: For the purpose of this study, self-confidence will be defined as the ability to be certain about one's competencies and skills (Northouse, 2013).

Sociability: For the purpose of this study, sociability will be defined as a leader's proclivity to seek out pleasant social relationships (Northouse, 2013).

State government: For the purpose of this study, state government will be defined as the governmental agency that presides over the states. The governor of the state holds the executive authority over the state and acts as the administrator for the resources and budget.

Traits: For the purpose of this study, traits will be identifiable characteristics that have contributed to the success of women elected officials in California.

Trait theory: For the purpose of this study, trait theory will be defined as personal qualities or characteristics (Robbins & Judge, 2011).

Woman or women: These are defined as being a female adult. Subsequently, female will be utilized synonymously with woman; therefore, it holds the same definition.

Summary

Chapter 1 concentrated on the following: (a) history of women's participation in politics, (b) the study of leadership, (c) the problem, (d) purpose of the study, (e) research questions (f) significance of the study, (g) definition of terms. The gender disparity in the United States government has existed for centuries. Although women's participation has grown substantially (Scola, 2013), women represent less than 30% of elected seats in the United States (Ziegler, 2015), and yet they make up more than 50% of the population (Goldberg, 2012). The purpose of this research is to determine the traits women elected officials attribute to their success. This study's participants will be women elected officials from the local, state, and federal levels of government in the United States. Furthermore, the research questions will serve as the guide to determine the traits that the women elected officials have self-reported as contributing to their success.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This research study investigates the prominent leadership traits that women in the state of California possess to become elected to the state, local, and federal government positions. An examination of the literature was executed in order to ascertain how this issue fits into the fields of organizational leadership and higher education. The literature review discerns three main subjects of interest: gender differences in leadership, women's leadership styles, and trait theory in leadership. The theoretical literature in the aforementioned topics is exhaustive and delivers a strong basis for analysis and investigation within this subject matter.

Organization of the Chapter

The exhaustive literature review is composed of four specific topics and culminates with a summary. The first section reviews the literature and research found on gender differences in leadership and how it correlates to the subject of leadership. The second section observes women's leadership styles, but more specifically, how they relate to politics. The third section examines leadership and trait theory in leadership. The last section reviews the study's conceptual framework.

Overview of Leadership

A study focused on women's leadership in government must first provide an overview of the study of leadership. Ofeguby, Clark, and Osagie (2013) posited that numerous leadership theories view leadership as disciplined in one or more of the following three viewpoints: leadership as a process or relationship, leadership as a combination of traits or personality characteristics, and leadership articulated as certain behaviors or, as they are more frequently referred to, as leadership skills. Furthermore, leadership is a process whereby an individual encourages subordinates to achieve a common goal (Northouse, 2013). Miller, Devin, and Shoop

(2007) defined leadership as the activity of encouraging others to strive voluntarily for group intentions. Leadership is often a misconceived, nebulous notion; ill defined and frequently contested; and attributable to the diversity of contexts in which the subject can be verbalized (Alimo & Lawler, 2001; Cragg & Spurgeon, 2007). The study of leadership has often been redefined with a plethora of leadership theories based on various theoretical perspectives and grouped accordingly (Richmond & Allison, 2003). Consequentially, there are a multitude of leadership concepts, frameworks, and theories. Scholars suggests that during the last 50 years, there have been more than 1,000 empirical studies on determining leadership styles, characteristics, and personality traits of effective leaders. Yet, the ideal leader is still a nebulous concept (George, Sims, McClean, & Mayer, 2007).

Definitions of leadership. There are a multitude of leadership definitions found in scholarly works. Bass and Stodgill (1990) would contend that there are arguably as many leadership definitions as there are theorists. Below are leadership definitions since the 1950s:

The 1950s. The 1950s presented many leadership definitions. Stogdill (1950) stated "Leadership may be considered as the process (act) of influencing the activities of an organized group in its efforts toward goal setting and goal achievement" (p. 3). Hemphill and Coons (1957) contended that leadership may be defined as the behavior of an individual when he or she is guiding the behaviors of a group in the direction of a shared goal or vision. Bennis (1959) defined leadership as the process in which a leader persuades a subservient to act in accordance with the leader's wishes.

The 1960s. Prentice (1961) defines leadership as "the accomplishment of a goal through the direction of human assistants. A leader is one who successfully marshals his human collaborators to achieve particular ends" (p. 143). Tannenbaum, Weschler, and Massarik (1961)

defined leadership as, "interpersonal influence, exercised in a situation, and directed, through the communication process, toward the attainment of a specified goal or goals" (p. 24).

The 1970s. Stogdill (1974) redefined his earlier definition of leadership. He defined leadership as the commencement and preservation of structure in expectancy and communication. Hollander (1978) simply defined leadership as, "a process of influence between a leader and those who are followers" (p. 1). Another leadership definition may be gleaned from research. Katz and Kahn (1978) posited that leadership is defined as, "the influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with the routine directives of the organization" (p. 528).

The 1980s. Cribbin (1981) defined leadership as an influence process that allows leaders to get their subordinates to do voluntarily what must be done, and do well simultaneously. Just a few years later, Rauch and Behling (1984) defined leadership as, "the process of influencing the activities of an organized group toward goal achievement" (p. 46). Donnelly, Ivancevich, and Gibson (1985) add that leadership may be defined as an attempt at persuading the actions of followers or subordinates through the communication methods and in the direction of the realization of goals. Hersey and Blanchard (1988) stated that leadership is the "process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation" (p. 86). Another definition of a leader also arose. Hosking (1988) suggested that a leader is a person who consistently make effective contributions to social order, and who is expected and perceived to do so by his or her subordinates. Batten (1989) defined leadership as, "a development of a clear and complete system of expectations in order to identify, evoke, and use the strengths of all resources in the organization the most important of which is people" (p. 35).

Bass and Stogdill (1990) contended:

Leadership is an interaction between two or more members of a group that often involves a structuring or restructuring of the situation and the perceptions and expectations of members…leadership occurs when one group member modifies the motivation or competencies of others in the group. Any member of the group can exhibit some amount of leadership, (pp. 19–20)

The year of 1990 also had definitions of leadership presented by Cohen (1990) and Jacobs and Jaques (1990). Cohen (1990) defined leadership as, "the art of influencing others to their maximum performance to accomplish any task, objective or project" (p. 9). Jacobs and Jacques define leadership as, "a process of giving purpose to collective effort, and causing willing effort to be expended to achieve purpose" (p. 281). Conger (1992) defined who a leader is. Leaders, in accordance with Conger, are "individuals who establish direction for a working group of individuals who gain commitment from this group of members to this direction and who then motivate these members to achieve the direction's outcomes" (p. 18). Zalenik (1992) simply defines leadership as power to influence the thoughts and actions of other people.

The 1990s. Jaques and Clement (1994) defined leadership as a "process in which one person sets the purpose or direction for one or more other persons and gets them to move along together with him or her and with each other in that direction with competence and full commitment" (p. 4). Kouzes and Posner (1995) defined leadership as, "the art of mobilizing others to want to struggle for the shared aspirations" (p. 30).

The 2000s. Vroom and Jago (2007) asserted that a plethora of leadership definitions share the view that leadership involves the process of influence. The authors go on to proclaim that most leaders have one or more follower as a commonality. If no one is following, one cannot

be leading. One person, A, leads another person, B, if the actions of A modify B's behavior in a direction desired by A. Note that this definition of leading is restricted to intended influence. Eliminated are instances in which the influence is in a direction opposite. Green, Miller, and Aarons (2013) define leadership as a "key organizational issue both in times of stable organizational operations and in times of organizational change" (p. 377).

Leadership Theory

Lippitt (1969) asserted that much time in research is being spent on what makes a person a good leader. Lippitt further suggests that behavioral scientists compile such data into four different views about leadership. These views include the Great Man Theory, trait approach, and transformational leadership.

Great man theory. Carlyle (1907) may be credited with founding the Great Man Theory hypothesis. Carlyle further contended that few great men possessed the requisite leadership traits to become a great leader. Lippitt (1969) suggested that such ideology is only for few great heroic men. Furthermore, Lippitt asserted that in the Great Man Theory, people naturally follow a leader who is perceived to be born with leadership qualities. He further posits that the great man is responsible for history rather than history being responsible for the great man.

Bass and Stogdill (1990) assert that it is the inborn traits possessed by formidable social, political, and military leaders that have become known as The Great Man Theory. The Great Man Theory suggests that the leaders are born with their astonishing traits and become leaders of their communities (Hussain & Hassan, 2015). Hussain and Hassan proclaimed that the Great Man Theory evolved into Trait Theory during early 20th century. Moreover, this theory stressed "that leader characteristics are different from non-leaders. The Great Man Theory can be considered the first trait perspective in the study of leadership (Northouse, 2013).

Trait theory. Traits moved from the Great Man Theory looking at a few heroic men's leadership characteristics, to interacting with social demands on leaders. Terman's (1904) study on trait theory could be considered the first in applied psychology. Cowley (1931) examined and compiled the current Trait Theory view and deduced that leadership study is typically examined utilizing the study of traits. Stogdill (1948) conducted a study that analyzed and compiled 124 trait studies into one composite. Stogdill deduced that eight traits were found among leaders. They are intelligence, alertness, insight, responsibility, initiative, persistence, self-confidence, and sociability. However Stogdill noted that the study produced just a mere combination of traits. Stogdill's argument could be why few leadership theorists gave great esteem to the study of trait theory in leadership (Zaccaro, 2007).

From the 1900s to the 1950s, there was a shift in trait theories. Scholars began to specify personality characteristics that leaders possessed. Bird (1940) first accumulated a list of 79 traits and characteristics from 20 psychology students. Jenkins (1947) completed a study for military leaders. Mann (1959) reviewed 1,400 findings of personality and leadership traits in small groups. At this point, trait theory was less focused on situations and moving toward the ideology that personality traits could be a predictor for separating leaders from followers.

Mann (1959) deduced that leaders possessed six common leadership traits. They were intelligence, masculinity, adjustment, dominance, extraversion, and conservatism. Bass and Stogdill (1990) examined many of the studies from the 1900s through 1950. They contended that there were five primary methods that were utilized in gleaning leaders' characteristics. They are examining behavior in group settings, choice of acquaintances, nomination process of the leader by the leader's subordinates, rating the individuals in leadership positions, and examining the

history of biographical and case-study data. The aforementioned traits were often utilized to define the leadership traits that were associated with effective leaders.

In the 1970s to the 1980s, one could examine the role of leadership traits and leadership effectiveness. Stogdill (1974) analyzed 163 empirical studies from 1948 findings. Stogdill's study served as validation to the results of the 1948 study. In this study, 10 characteristics were positively identified with leadership. The 9 characteristics defined were sociability, persistence, knowing how to get things done, self-confidence, alertness, insight into situations, cooperativeness, popularity, adaptability, and verbal facility. Lord, DeVader, and Alliger (1986) utilized meta-analysis to deduce that personality traits can be utilized to differentiate leaders from nonleaders. The authors found three common leadership traits. They were intelligence, masculinity, and dominance. Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) stated that there are six traits that may be examined in an effective leader. These traits are drive, leadership motivation, honesty and integrity, self-confidence, cognitive ability, and knowledge of the business.

Yukl and Van Fleet (1992) found that there were five leadership traits of emergent leaders. They are emotional maturity, integrity, self-confidence, high energy level, and high stress tolerance. Hogan et al. (1994) found four recurring traits in leaders. They are urgency, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and emotional stability. House and Aditya (1997) presented four qualitative views of traits. House and Aditya posit that achievement motivation, personal achievement motivation, adjustment, and self-confidence were necessary traits for leaders. Northouse (1997) first found four personality traits. They are self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability. Yukl (1999) found energy level and stress tolerance, self-confidence, internal locust of control, emotional maturity, personal integrity, socialized power motivation, achievement orientation, and a low need for affiliation were requisite leadership traits. Daft

(1994) proposed that alertness, originality, personal integrity, and self-confidence were all common traits among leaders.

Most recently, Northouse (2013) stated that there are five major leadership traits that a leader ought to posses. These traits are intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability. Intelligence can be defined as having verbal, perceptual, and reasoning capabilities. Self-confidence is defined as having the ability to be confident about one's competencies and skills. Determination is defined as having the initiative, persistence, dominance, and drive to get the job or task done. Integrity may be defined as being honest and trustworthy. Finally, sociability may be defined as having the ability to seek out pleasant relationships.

There has been a plethora of trait theory studies. Leadership traits have been defined by analyzing and examining powerful leaders (Cragg & Spurgeon, 2007; Oliver, 2001; Robbins & Judge, 2013). Trait theory attempts to identify individual traits that separate leaders from other individuals (Adair, 1993). Moreover, trait theory implies that leaders are born rather than developed (Cragg & Spurgeon, 2007). Furthermore, Rosch and Anthony (2012) state, "Essential to the trait-based approach is the idea that leaders possess inner traits or characteristics that lead to their capacity for effective leadership" (p. 41). Scholars have been trying to determine what traits make a leader effective for quite some time. Zaccaro (2007) asserted that there have been a number of empirical studies that have coupled personal traits to leader effectiveness. Although there has been a plethora of trait theory studies conducted, there has been much criticism of the subject. Judge, Illies, Bono, and Gerhardt (2002) assert that this is much a result of the work of Stogdill's (1948) findings.

Ismail and Al-Taee (2012) suggested that trait theories have limitations. The authors posited that a constraint of trait theory is that while examining leadership traits may support the

selection of individuals who could be successful leaders, it does not, evidently categorize traits needed in explicit situations nor the dosage of each trait required to be a good leader.

This study utilizes Northouse's (2013) five traits of intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability to examine if any of the five aforementioned traits are needed for women elected officials to be successful decision makers in all levels of the United States government.

Transformational leadership. Leadership theory moved from traits and situations, to the study of transformational leadership. There was a materialization of transactional and transformational leadership in the 1970s (Burns, 1978), which leverages leader's reinforcement of employee's performance along with innovative transformational behaviors that intend to envelop subordinates in the organization's purpose. Manning (2002) stated, "Transformational leaders characteristically nurture personal and group involvement, share inspiring organizational visions, and foster commitment and motivation toward important goals" (p. 208). Bass and Stogdill (1990) assert that transactional leadership contrasts with transformational leadership, especially because in transactional leadership, organizational goals are motivated by exchanges between the leader and his or her subordinates. Weber (1946) suggested that trait theory was very similar to charismatic leadership. Weber further defined the charismatic leader as a religious savior or profit. Many researchers examined transformational leadership theory and charismatic leadership simultaneously (Bass, 1985; Bass, 1998; Bass & Avolio, 1990; Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Gmelin (2005) commented:

> The study of charismatic leadership theory focuses on exceptional leaders who have
> extraordinary effects on their followers, and eventually, on the entire social system. Such
> leaders transform the needs, values, preferences, and aspirations of followers from self-

interest to collective interest. Charismatic leaders cause followers to become highly committed to the leader's missions, to make significant personal sacrifices in the interest of the missions and to perform above and beyond the call of duty. (p. 26)

Bass and Stogdill (1990) divided transformational leadership into four pillars: (a) idealized influence, (b) inspirational motivation, (c) intellectual stimulation, and (d) individual consideration. Idealized influence may be understood as a leader's role in showing his or her subordinates how the goals of the institution will be realized. Bono and Judge (2004) contends that this ideology is synonymous to charismatic leadership, which is the most significant trait a transformational leader may possess. The inspirational leader encourages his or her subordinates with his or her enthusiasm and confidence that the goals they have set out to reach are attainable. Fogarty (2009) suggests that transformational leaders afford an intellectually stimulating atmosphere that nurtures in followers the ability to advance resolutions to difficulties that stand in the way of realizing organizational goals. Finally, individualized consideration involves a leader extracting individual leadership capabilities out of each of her or her followers.

Bass (1981) recommends that there are three rudimentary ways in which people become leaders. They are:

1. Some people possess traits that naturally place them into leadership roles. This is also known as trait theory.

2. Crises may cause a person to emerge as a leader. A crisis could potentially glean exemplary leadership qualities in a conventional individual. This is known as the Great Events Theory.

3. People can elect to become leaders. Furthermore, people can learn leadership skills. This is the known as transformational leadership theory.

Transformational leadership can be considered a dominant leadership paradigm in the study of leadership (Kennedy 1994). Slater (1999) and Kanter (2003) suggested that leaders are depicted as gurus who are encouraged to transcend the behaviors of their subordinates to cultivate a shared vision. Aldoory and Toth (2004) proclaimed that transformational leadership is also known as charismatic leadership. Shangase and Proches (2014) stated, "Transformational leadership is necessary in today's organizations that are following flat and less hierarchical structures, where teamwork and synergy are required" (p. 6276).

Transformational leaders characteristically cultivate individual and group interest, allot inspiring institutional visions, and encourage commitment and motivation toward vital objectives (Manning, 2002). Greenleaf (2003) proposed that transformational leadership is synonymous with the ideology of the servant leader. Judge and Piccolo (2004) posited that transformational leadership has a commanding impact over leadership effectiveness "as well as employee satisfaction and increase the intrinsic motivation of their followers and build more effective relationships with them" (Odentunde, 2013, p. 5325). Moreover, transformational leadership establishes a vision and influences subordinates to aim further than the required expectations (Aarons, 2006). Additionally, transformational leadership is also congruent with servant leadership theory with regard to fostering higher levels of motivation among the followers' and leaders' ability to visualize the unforeseen (Semad, Reaburn, Davis, & Ahmed, 2015). Furthermore, a transformational leader causes followers to seek rewards intrinsically and promotes their individual development and self-awareness (Scaffidi Abbate & Ruggieri, 2008). Unlike the transactional leader, the transformational leader makes use of existing interests and changes each individual's values to cultivate a new set of values instituted by mutual objectives, and actively is involved with subordinates by obtaining their teamwork and motivating

subordinates to identify with an institutional vision beyond their own self-interest. (Rugierri, 2013).

There have been criticisms of transformational leadership theory. Yukl (1999) posited that the absence of empirical studies relating to stimulation of intentions or sentiments, encouraging sanguinity, or alteration of views about reward exigencies and increased task obligations are direct flaws of transformational leadership. Bryman (2004) urges that transformational leadership is an ephemeral phenomenon, and much of the qualitative studies on the subject are extremely flawed. Northouse (2007) suggested that transformational leadership is an elitist ideology, claiming that theory is based on the premise of traits that only a few may possess. Finally, Tourish (2008) stated that because transformational leaders are perceived as being intrinsically charismatic, the leader becomes mythologized.

Eagly and Carli (2003) stated:

Transformational leadership may be especially advantageous for women because it encompasses some behaviors that are consistent with the female gender role's demand for supportive, considerate behaviors. The transformational repertoire, along with the contingent reward aspect of transactional leadership, may resolve some of the inconsistencies between the demands of leadership roles and the female gender role and therefore allow women to excel as leaders. (p. 4)

Four Factors of Transformational Leadership

Bass (1985) encompassed four mechanisms of transformational leadership. These pillars have progressed as sophistications in the notion and breadth of transformational leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006). A succinct analysis of these components follows.

Idealized influence. Idealized influence includes transformational leaders serving as role models. So much so that there followers will emulate their leaders (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Subordinates value, regard, and trust their leaders. Thus, "There are two aspects to idealized influence: the leader's behaviors and the elements that are attributed to the leaders by followers and other associates" (p. 6). According to Aailtio-Marjosola and Takala (2000), transformational leaders who ranked high in Idealized Influence were considered by their followers to be steady in their behavior, trustworthy, and more strong-minded. Moreover, transformational leaders who measure high in Idealized Influence are able to intensify eagerness within subordinates toward the mission and vision of the institution (Gumusluoglu & Ilsev, 2009).

Individualized consideration. Individualized consideration refers to transformational leaders serving as mentors or coaches. These leaders provide extraordinary attention to each subordinate's needs for achievement and evolution (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Transformational leaders identify the distinct dissimilarities and desires within each follower and establish "acceptance of individual differences (e.g., some employees receive more encouragement, some more autonomy, others firmer standards, and still others more task structure)" (p. 7). Transformational leaders commissioning elevated Individualized Consideration encourage symbiotic communication. The leaders incite dialogue around the institution to procure information and data. Transformational leaders listen well and remember information from aforementioned conversations with their subordiantes (Bass, 1985).

Inspirational motivation. Inspirational motivation refers to transformational leaders serving in the role to motivate and inspire by providing value to subordinates' tasks as well as providing their followers with job encounters (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Bass and Riggio stated that followers get "involved in envisioning attractive future states; they create clearly communicated

expectations that followers want to meet and also demonstrate commitment to goals and the shared vision" (p. 6). Transformational leaders who utilize rousing inspiration support open dialogue and motivate subordinates to become self-actualized through Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (Xirasagar, 2008).

Intellectual stimulation. Intellectual stimulation refers to transformational leaders entailing their subordinates in solving institutional challenges and uplifting modernization and innovation by approaching deep-rooted circumstances in different ways, questioning norms, and reframing challenges (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Transformational leaders motivate subordinates "to try new approaches, and their ideas are not criticized because they differ from the leaders' ideas" (p. 7). Followers who think contrarily and contest the status quo are not critiqued but are respected(Van Eeden, Cilliers, & Van Deventer, 2008).

Leaders appreciate and seek out the unusual intellectual in order to assist the institution, resolve and/or handle unforeseen challenges (Bass, 1990). Transformational leaders nurture their subordinates' knowledge and job safeties, while reinforcing the purpose and mission of the institution. Transformational leaders show respect to their followers and want their subordinates to be respected and valued.

Gender and Leadership

Ismail and Al-Taee (2012) stated, "Gender is considered to be of basic systematic origin in our realization of the world and everything in it" (p. 17). Because of this ideology, a plethora of elucidations have been provided to expound on the existence of gender-based discrimination in reference to the promotion of institutional leaders. The basis for gender-based discrimination can be examined with the following explanations: (a) women being scared of being successful (b) inconsistencies between women's leadership abilities and the needs of leadership (Arvey,

1979), (c) pervasive sexism in organizations (Schwartz, 1971), (d) women having to balance work life with their responsibilities at home (Schwartz, 1994), and (e) stereotypes arguing that men should hold leadership positions and women should serve to support the leadership of men (Yukl, 2006).

Gender roles are consensual beliefs about the traits of women and men because social roles are socially shared hopes that apply to individuals who occupy a certain social status or position, or are members of a particular gender (Eagly & Karua, 2002). Eagly and Karua also stated, "These beliefs are more than beliefs about the attributes of women and men: Many of these expectations are normative in the sense that they describe qualities or behavioral tendencies believed to be desirable for each sex" (p. 13). Therefore, important in social role theory is the philosophy that gender roles include two kinds of expectations or norms. Eagly and Karua proclaim that roles include descriptive norms, which are consensual expectations about what members of a group actually do, and injunctive norms, which are consensual expectations about what a group of individuals ought to do or ideally would do. Descriptive norms are comparable with psychologists' usual definitions of stereotypes of group members, and injunctive norms add a prescriptive element not traditionally included in the stereotype construct. In this case, the term gender role refers to the collection of both descriptive and injunctive expectations associated with women and men.

There are extreme differences in the literature that relate to the similarities and dissimilarities among women and men's leadership traits. Carli and Eagly (2001) stated, "Leadership has traditionally been construed as a masculine enterprise with special challenges and pitfalls for women" (p. 629). Chapman (1975) asserts that women tend to display more relationship-oriented characteristics than men in leadership positions. Chapman further indicated

that the empirical research other researchers did showed women to exhibit traits that encourage group performance toward achieving a goal. In contrast, men typically exude authoritarian leadership traits and sought to attain personal gains. Larwood and Wood (1978) suggest that generally, women have different leadership traits than men. Women typically exude the following leadership characteristics: assertiveness, self-esteem, dependence, competitiveness, and risk-taking. However, Schein (1989) commented that when men and women perform in their leadership positions, how they perform is very similar. Morrison, White, and Velsor (1987) attribute such similarities to the makeup of men and women as it relates to their intellect, emotions, and psyche. Sargent (1981) proclaimed that leaders ought to possess both masculine and female characteristics. Robinson and Lipman-Bluman (2003) suggest that despite the proclamations of previous research, neither men nor women have an advantage in leadership positions in business settings.

An Appelbaum, Audet, and Miller (2003) study found that women employed a collaborative team approach that empowers their colleagues. The authors further contended that women who utilized androgynous leadership traits have a better chance of propelling to positions of leadership in organizations. Koch, Luft, and Kruse (2005) asserted that women were relational leaders, and they exhibited traits of being feminine. Such traits include words such as soft, sentimental, delicate, quiet, sociable, flexible, and bold. Contrarily, men were found to be associated with masculinity and exhibiting traits such as hard, strong, healthy, robust, tense, instinctive, aggressive, dominant, and egoistic.

Much of the empirical studies done on gender and leadership typically covers two topics: women's positions in organizations, and women's wages (Jaffee, 1989). Furthermore, many researchers have examined social relations in regard to inequality in the workplace (Baron, 1984;

Spaeth, 1985; Wright, 1979). It has been realized that as a result of gender discrimination, women hold a small proportion of organization jobs and earn substantially less than their male counterparts (Blau & Ferber, 1985; Treiman & Hartmann, 1981). The income differences are strongly related to the sex differences in the positions of power in organizations (Roos, 1981). The Gender and Equality Act, coupled with other legislation such as the Employment Equity Act Equity, was enacted to address the social inequities in organizations (Maseko & Proches, 2013).

Leadership has been archetypally dominated in most sectors of society, which include the corporate, political, military, and church areas (Eagly & Karau, 2002). However, since the 1970s, women's participation in leadership roles has steadily increased (Fogarty, 2009). Fogarty also contends that in 1972, women held 17 % of leadership positions in *Fortune* 500 companies. In 2006, women held 50.3% of management positions in top-tiered companies (Hoyt, Simon, & Reid, 2009). Haslam and Ryan (2008) proclaimed that women typically work in middle management, yet most men are typically in positions of power. The authors further contend that women are typically paid 24% less than men. Yukl (2006) stated that women were not discriminated against based on their sex; leadership positions in business and government should be approximately 50%. Yet, in 2012, only 5.1% of the highest-ranked corporate officers in *Fortune* 500 companies were women (Ismail &Al-Taee, 2012). Furthermore, women only accounted for 11.7% of the membership of boards of directors in these top-tiered companies, and to aggravate the issue, only 4.1% of top earners were women.

Engen, Leeden, and Willemsen (2001) stated, "The slow advancement of women in leadership positions, especially in the higher, male-dominated regions of organizations, is that women lack the appropriate leadership style" (p. 581). Martell and DeSmet (2001) suggested that the lack of women in leadership in the workplace is a result of gender stereotypes. Gender

stereotypes may be defined as the views of the majority that women and men have different leadership traits. Eagly and Karau (2002) suggest that prejudice may arise if the group or majority believes in societal gender norms. This ideology is where the glass ceiling begins to exist.

Chaffins, Forbes, Fuqua, and Changemin (1995) defined the glass ceiling as an invisible line that women needed to cross to gain access to meaningful leadership roles. Lockwood (2004) gives credit to Hymowitz and Schellhardt, who wrote a report in the *Wall Street Journal* in 1986 to signify the obstacles of the women who tried and sought leadership positions in organizations. The glass ceiling was not a term that was typically overt; it was arguably a secret and obscure marvel that kept senior positions of leadership for affluent Anglo males.

Carli and Eagly (2001) suggested that the United States is near gender equality in leadership. Carli and Eagly suggested that the inconsistency between leader roles and the female gender role have diminished. For instance, Schein's (2001) proclaimed that, in the United States, women, but not men, have embraced a more androgynous ideology of managerial roles. In 2001, 47% of workers in the United States were represented by women (Schein, 2001). Only 18% of managers 30 years prior were female, and in 2001, women made up 45% of managers and administrators (Schein, 2001). In the education realm, women possessed 51% of all bachelor's degrees (Schein, 2001). Since the early 1980s, more than 80% of bachelor degrees have gone to women, with women in 2001 receiving 56% of all undergraduate degrees (U.S. Department of Education, 2010). Women also possessed 45% of the advanced degrees that have been awarded in the year 2000, and 42% of Ph.D.s, and 43% of professional degrees respectively.

Eagly and Carli (2003) proclaimed that due to women's rise is change in organizational practices, civil rights legislation was passed. Specifically, Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of

1967, which deemed sex discrimination in employment illegal in the United States. The authors claim that due to the civil rights laws that were passed, discrimination cases were challenged more often in the courts, and organizations were now required to give women access to positions of power.

Frazier (2005) suggested that women's lack of leadership positions and the glass ceiling resulted from women having less education, experience, and maturity than men. The author also claimed that women failed to aspire to leadership positions because women place family ahead of their careers. However, Frazier did not disregard the glass ceiling's sheer existence. Bosak and Sczesny (2008) posited that women view themselves as possessing fewer requisite leadership characteristics than men. Eagly and Carli (2007) used the term glass ceiling to describe the pervasive leadership barriers women experienced in the workplace. In examining workplace leadership demographics, Eagly and Carli (2007) deduced that the number of women graduating with bachelor's degrees between 1900 and 1945 increased from 20% to 40%, also reaching graduation parity by the 1980s. Women continued their success in the education realm, which for the first time in 2008, the majority of bachelor's degrees, master's degrees, and doctoral degrees conferred in the United States were held by women (Dahlvig & Longman, 2014). Women were attaining 57.3% of bachelor's degrees, 60.6% of the master's degrees, and 51% of doctoral degrees. Taken as a whole, women earn more than half of the graduate degrees in law, business, and other high-status degrees (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Rudman & Phelan, 2010), and yet, women leadership in the workplace continued to be dominated by males (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Helgesen & Johnson, 2010; Kellerman & Rhode, 2007; Sandberg, 2013; Turner, 2012)

Leadership styles differ depending on gender (Cann & Siegfried, 1990). Rosener (1995) deduced that women were more likely to use their socialization experiences to progress their

careers, while men tailored to the traditional command and control, or transactional leadership styles. Furthermore, Odetunde (2013) wrote:

> Women were found to motivate others by transforming their self interests into the goals of the group whereas the men viewed their work performance as a series of transactions resulting in extrinsic rewards and punishments for positive and negative performance. (p. 5327)

There are specific traits of women and men that can be examined in leadership. Such traits for women include cooperative, interpersonal, participatory and relationship oriented. For men, such traits include being task oriented, competitiveness, domination, and self-confidence (Shangase & Proches, 2014). Appelbaum et al. (2003) suggested that men and women become confined by the gender roles they learned and accepted at an early age. Kets de Vries (2001) contended that women outperform males in interpersonal and cross-cultural skills.

Researchers proclaim that women exhibit more transformational leadership skills than men (Ismail & Al-Taee, 2012). Ismail and Al-Taee stated, "Women leaders are more transformational than male leaders and utilize greater use of contingent rewards and their lesser use of unfavorable management by exclusion and Laissez-faire style" (p. 17). Furthermore, the authors asserted that most famous leaders have been men. Ismail and Al-Taee proclaimed that this is especially true for those leaders considered to be transformational. The authors highlight male transformational leaders as Ghandi, Mandela, and John F. Kennedy. The authors only credit a handful of transformational women leaders such as Eleanor Roosevelt, Queen Elizabeth I, and Golda Meir. Yet if the rudiments of transformational leadership are examined, they suggest that women might be more likely to engage in transformational leader behaviors and be more effective transformational leaders than men.

According to the U.S. Department of Education (2010), the percentage of degrees earned by women in 2007–2008 exceeded those of men. Women earned 57.3% of bachelor's degrees, 60.6% of master's degrees, and 51% of doctoral degrees. Longman and Anderson (2011) asserted that such enrollment and graduation rates emphasize the significance of women serving as models in meaningful leadership positions. Wilson (2014) stated, "The majority of studies, research, and literature provided a confirmation that the glass ceiling was, and is still, in existence" (p. 89). McDermott (2014) suggests that women only hold 16% of the director positions in *Fortune* 500 companies, and only 4.6% of the companies' CEOs are women.

In addition to the issue of the glass ceiling, women holding positions of leadership in organizations are often bullied. Einarsen, (1976) proclaimed that bullying typically is a gradual process. Bullying's beginning stages are discrete and progresses to more direct and aggressive acts. Additionally, Einarsen (1976) defines bullying that takes place in the work environment as a type of aggressive behavior that takes place between two individuals or between an individual and a group. Such behaviors could include pestering, wronging, and socially excluding an individual at work, so much so that the behaviors negatively affect individuals' ability to do their jobs. Salin and Hoel (2013) suggested that although both men and women experience workplace bullying, women are being bullied at a much higher rate.

Women's alpha leadership attributes. Ludeman and Erlandson (2007) posited that alpha attributes include strengths such as self-confidence, intelligence, being action oriented, highly disciplined, and holding a direct communication style and may act as strengths in organizations. One may assert that the aforementioned traits would be desirable for a politician to hold. Often, women leaders possess alpha-female personalities in political roles. Recently,

Valenti (2013) proclaimed that 90% of voters in battleground states vote for qualified women in their party, and 86% believe that America is ready for a female president.

Although women can possess alpha personalities, they also have attributes that men do not have; for instance, females are often less comfortable with conflict than men (Ludemand & Erlandson, 2007). Additionally, research indicates that women are very good at consensus building, but they tend not to be as prone to power plays (Boulard, 1999). Additionally, women would be more likely to compromise and find common-ground solutions (Ball, 2013).

Public Leadership

Traditional public leadership studies focused on the formal leader (Taylor, 1911; Weber, 1946). The studies asserted that leaders are one and the same with authority and power. Cox, Plagens, and Sylla (2010) stated, "The paradigmatic leader is the great military or political figure" (p. 37). The authors also proclaimed that historically, leadership or a leader in an institution is viewed as a person who has the capacity and the power to lead subordinates. Cox et al. also suggested that the crux of leadership was based on the notion that the leaders actively lead and the followers or subordinates passively and obediently follow. The basic premise of this style of leadership is that leaders give orders to standardized followers. In this case, Cox et al. asserted that leadership can be characterized as the exercise of power.

Historically, elected officials have served as leaders of their constituencies. Mendiola (2012) stated, "Public leaders use their power and influence to move people towards a desired picture of the future, move people into action conducive to the desired future, and move a society towards progress into the desired state of the future" (p. 59). For the purpose of this study, the elected officials examined will be part of a democratic government. Mendiola defines a democracy as:

Democratic leadership is designed through constitutional agreements between the people

and the established government, which explicitly lays out the framework for government,

distribution of power and authority, and rights granted to all parties. People are given the

right to elect their leaders, who will act as representatives on behalf of the people to

govern in the best interest and common good of all in society. In a democracy, a leader's

power and authority are granted by the people and explicitly stated in a constitution,

which acts as a contract between the government and the people. (p. 61)

Women haven't reached parity in government; it is not because women are incapable of

winning elections, but women are simply not running. Furthermore, there are three main factors

for women not running for office (Ziegler, 2015). These factors include the lack of political

ambition, women need to be asked to run for office, and women do not have well-developed

fund-raising networks. A study done by a political researcher shows that only 11% of women

politicians, compared with 37% of men, enter the political realm on their own (Carroll, 2004).

Such research signifies the demand for women, scholars, and educators to provide the requisite

skills, tools, and resources to have the confidence to run for an elected position in the United

States. If more women run for office, there is a greater likelihood to retain more women elected

officials. This dissertation intends to promote the ideology that women can become successful

elected officials in California decision-making bodies. Therefore, the intent of this study is to

discover the requisite leadership traits that women ought to possess in order to be elected in all

levels of government in the state of California. Furthermore, this study intends to influence

women with a greater interest in politics, thus mobilizing women to sharpen their requisite

attributes that are needed to be successful elected officials in local, state, and federal

governments. Consequently, this will increase the rate at which women are elected, and therefore, reducing the gender disparity among California elected officials.

Women as Leaders in Government

Eagly and Karau (2002) stated, "Leadership has been predominantly a male prerogative in corporate, political, military, and other sectors of society" (p. 573) Historically, the explicit discrimination against minorities and women has long persisted in the United States. Prior to the end of the Civil War, the majority of the beliefs and principles represented in the American people were those of wealthy Caucasian males. It was not until the 15th amendment was adopted, that all men regardless of their ethnicity were allowed to vote (Calkins, 1975). The United States Constitution was based on the idea that the country's citizens are allowed to elect the people who would make up the nation's decision-making body (Papan, 1981).

The 1920s. Since the ratification of the 19th amendment, there have been considerable increases in women's involvement in government. Carroll (2004) examined women's participation in government since the 1920 amendment was enacted. Carroll found that the first woman to be elected to the state legislature was Soledad C. Chacon, who served as New Mexico's secretary of state in 1923. In the 1920s, Delaware, Kentucky, New York, South Carolina, and Texas also elected women officials to their state legislatures. In 1926, Grace B. Urbahns, a Republican from Indiana, served as the first woman to be elected as a state treasurer. The first woman governor to be elected was Nellie Taylor Ross, who was a Democrat from Wyoming. Ross was elected after her husband's death. The first woman elected as a governor, who did not follow her husband, was Ella Grasso. Grasso served as governor of the State of Connecticut.

The 1930s. Storrs (2007) suggested that during the New Deal and World War II, women's roles in government increased radically. The author stated that in 1930, 15% of federal employees in the United States were women, but that number increased in 1947 to 24%. The author further explained that in Washington, D.C., women held 47% of the government positions. It is important to note that a plethora of these government positions were clerical positions, as women only held 3% of the positions that involved leadership roles in public policy and legislation making. Bligh and Kohles (2009) posited that because of the overt gender discrimination that exists, political figures are predominately males.

The 1940s through the 1970s. Van Ingen (2000) proclaimed that from 1912 to 1970, more than 300 women ran for state and national legislative seats. Yet, only 17 of these 300 women were elected. Van Ingen also suggested that prior to the national amendment for suffrage, women engaged in political involvement as bi-partisan outsiders. The author stated that women formed "women's clubs and organizations that pressured legislators through petitions, letter writing, education and parades" (p. 3).

The 1980s. Giegler (1989) asserted that the passage of the Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972 had a substantial effect on women's participation in government. Furthermore, the author conducted a study that examined all state governments from 1980 through 1995, to deduce the level of employment of women in both local and state governments. Although Caucasian men's positions in the workforce decreased from 54.7% in 1980 to 41.8% in 1985, they still controlled government positions. White men also were being paid wages that were higher than their women counterparts. A white man in 1973 had a median salary of $9,837 and that salary increased to $31,441 by 1993. A white woman in 1973 earned an average salary of $7,069 and a $24, 517 salary in 1993. African American men typically earned more than

African American women. African American males earned a median salary of $7,912 in 1973 and median salary of $26,163 in 1993. The African American woman's salary was not as favorable as a White man, African American man, or White woman. African American women in 1973 earned an average salary of $6,886 and $23,043 by 1993. Giegler also suggested that earning gaps increased from 1980 to 1995, and White males still continued to dominate government leadership positions.

The 1990s. Rule (1995) asserted that women were not included in the Voting Rights Act of 1982. Therefore, women were not a protected class, unlike their male counterparts. Because of this, women were being denied their unalienable right to elect the legislatures of their choice, and therefore, women political aspirants were being denied the right to persist to become elected officials.

P. Ward, Orazem, and Schmidt (1992) proclaimed that since the Civil Rights Act was passed, women have yet to attain top leadership positions in the corporate, academic, and government sectors. The authors further contend that in 1992, no woman had ever been elected president or vice president. Women on average held only one of the 13 cabinet positions, 5% of the House of Representative seats were composed of women, and the Senate seats were only 2% women. Furthermore, in the Judicial Branch of government, only one Supreme Court Justice position had ever gone to a woman. Women only held 8% of the United States appellate court positions, and only one of the 12 chief justice positions among the circuit courts. On the state and local levels, women only held three of the 50 state governor positions and only 11% of the available mayoral positions. P. Ward et al. concluded that women only represented 2% to 10% of all elite positions. Elite positions are defined as top policy-making jobs in the political arena.

In 1992, there was a significant increase in women being elected to the highest government positions. Clymer (1992) found that women's numbers in the United States Congress that year practically doubled, with 47 women in the House of Representatives and six women being elected to the Senate. Hernson et al. (2001) contended there was a 20% increase during the next 10 years. In 2001, 59 women were elected to the House of Representatives, 13 women elected to the Senate, 1,656 state legislators in the nation, and there were five state governors. Van Ingen (2000) posited that during the 1990s, women constituted 20% of the states' legislatures, 10% of Congress, and 5% of the available U.S. Senate positions.

Women, when elected to government, tend to work from a liberal framework (Diamond, 1977; Dodson & Carroll, 1991; Reigngold, 2000; S. Thomas, 1994). Women typically support governmental issues such as women's rights, education, health care, social-welfare, the environment, and gun control, while men tend to focus more on issues that involve business, economic regulation, taxes, budgeting, and. Thomas (1994) suggested that such gender differences exist regardless of political party, ideology, region, and political structure.

The 2000s. Hernson et al. (2001) suggested that women's participation in government has increased significantly, as 50 years prior there were only 10 women who held seats in the House of Representatives, one served in the United States Senate, 242 women were state legislators, and there were no women governors. In 1985, there were 24 women elected to Congress, two elected as state governors, and 1,101 serving in the state legislatures (Ziegler, 2015). Carli and Eagly (2001) stated:

> High-profile women serving in powerful positions fuel public interest in women's
> potential as leaders; Supreme Court Justice Sandra Day O'Connor, U.S. National
> Security Advisor Condoleezza Rice, and former Secretary of State Madeline Albright are

just three recent examples from the United States. Many of the newspaper and magazine articles written about these and other female leaders have a positive tone. The idea that women might hold such positions, and the suspicion that they might exercise power somewhat differently than men, no longer seems as alarming to people as in the past. (p. 632)

Goldberg (2012) posited that women make up more than half of the voters in the United States. Yet, gender parity in government has not been reached (Scola, 2013). Ball (2013) contended that women constitute only 18% of the House of Representatives seats, and 20% of the Senate positions available. However, Somani (2013) recommends that a highly functioning government should be composed of 30% of women minimally. Today, women only constitute 24.3% of all legislative seats throughout the United States (Ziegler, 2015).

Boles and Scheurer (2007) purported that gender differences in voting behavior reflect voting bias for gender differences in government. The authors posited that society believes that men are better in areas such as foreign policy, defense, the economy, and crime. Whereas, women tend to focus more on issues that involve family, health care, education, consumer protection, and social welfare (Diamond, 1977; Dodson & Carroll, 1991; Reigngold, 2000; S. Thomas, 1994).

Ziegler (2015) asserted that there are three reasons women have yet to reach gender parity in government. The author comments that women have a lack of political ambition, women lack the fund-raising networks needed to win an election, and women often need to be asked to run for office. Ziegler also purported that when women do run for political office, they are just as likely to win elections as men. Hillary Clinton stated in a speech (as cited in Pollitt, 2015) that the United States is 65th out of 142 nations and other territories on equal pay.

Although the overt gender gap in the United States government has declined (Carroll, 2004), there is still a prodigious disproportion among men and women elected officials in leadership positions in the United States government. This disparity may be observed at all levels of government (Procopio, 2005). Sharma (2012) posited that governmental gender equity is necessary to have a highly functioning democracy.

Women's Participation in Government in California

California did not offer equal suffrage rights for women until 1911 (Van Ingen, 2000). After the passing of equal suffrage in California in 1918, there were four women who were successfully elected as California state legislators (DiCesare, 2001).

Researchers proclaimed that western states have advanced much further than eastern states in terms of women's participation in politics (Lotchin, 1998; MacManus & Bullock, 1995). Kass (1999) suggested that California constituents might be more willing to elect women in government because of their liberal ideologies. However, Van Ingen (2000) stated, "For a maverick state, California failed to pioneer a road for women candidates" (p. 17).

The first women to be elected at the state level in California were Republicans Grace S. Dorris, Elizabeth Hughes, and Anna L. Saylor and Democrat Esto B. Broughton in 1918 (Van Ingen, 2000). Van Ingen also posited that during this time, women composed 5% of the lower house positions that were available. In 1922, there were five women out of the 80 state legislature positions available, which increased women's participation in state government to 6%. Van Ingen also proclaimed that by the end of the decade, only one woman held an assembly seat, giving women slightly more than 1% representation. The author asserts that for the next 30 years, women's participation in government changed only marginally. It was not until 1976, that

the number of women legislators increased to the record-breaking numbers of the 1920s, whereby five women were represented in the assembly seats.

Van Ingen (2000) proclaimed that from 1912 to 1970, 520 women ran for state or national office in the state of California. Approximately 70% of these women ran for state assembly. Of the women who ran for state assembly, only 57 women were elected. Moreover, Van Ingen suggested that there were 22 men to one woman running for elected office in any giving campaign.

Clark (1991) posited that the largest increase in women's participation in government takes place in local government. In 1999, California led the United States with 54 women mayors out of its 196 municipalities (DiCesare, 2001). According to the California List (2015), the state of California has 31 women legislators in the California State Legislature, 12 women who serve as senators, and 19 women in the state assembly. California also has a woman as the Attorney General, Kamala Harris, as well as the state controller, Bette Yee.

Conceptual Framework

Women in political office are leaders and their goal is to transform governments so that they may function effectively. Therefore, the conceptual framework will include Northouse's (2013) five leadership traits. Northouse (1997) has examined leadership traits since the late 1990s, and the following traits are what the author has deduced and synthesized to be prominent in leaders. The traits include intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability.

Intelligence in leadership. Researchers Jenkins (1947), Stogdill (1948) and Mann (1959) posited that intelligence is an integral leadership trait. Intelligence is narrowly related with the rational difficulty essential for reaching the requirements of contemporary life (Gottfredson,

1997). Moreover, intelligence is the top forecaster of job performance in multiple professions (Ones, Viswesvaran & Dilchert, 2005). Furthermore, personal dissimilarities in intelligence draw a parallel with leadership and performance (Bass & Avolio,1990; Simonton, 1995). Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) asserted that leaders ought to gather, integrate, synthesize, and interpret immense amounts of information. The authors suggested that such demands are overt because of rapid technological change. Therefore, leaders need to be intellectual in order to articulate appropriate approaches and strategies, resolve problems, and make accurate decisions.

Judge, Colbert and Illies (2004) assert that intelligence, as a trait, is extremely valuable in Western cultures. Herrnstein and Murray's (1994) research concluded that intelligence is associated to job performance. The authors also discovered that intelligence is supplementary to employment, economic self-sufficiency, affluence, educational achievement, marital stability, legitimacy, and lawful behavior. Schmidt and Hunter (2000) stated, "Intelligence is the most important trait or construct in all of psychology, and the most 'successful' trait in applied psychology" (p. 4). Furthermore, Lord, Foti and DeVader (1984) discovered that of 59 leadership characteristics, honesty, charisma, kindness, and intelligence were the most desirable in a leader. Lord et al. also claimed that intelligence was the only attribute seen as a perilous trait that must be possessed by all leaders.

Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) also suggested that intelligence may be a trait that subordinates expect a leader to have. If an individual is in the role of a leader, followers would expect that person be more adept than they are. Thus, the subordinate's perception of intelligence in a leader is imperative. Zaccaro (2004) posited that leaders are often more intelligent than their subordinates. Hetzel and Barr (2000) assert that intelligence may be viewed in a different domain when extraordinary individuals have insight. Intelligence in this case is not an isolated trait, but

rather intersecting with the capability to decipher needs in a situation, utilizing technical expertise in a social construct. From here, intelligence allows for innovation and opportunities to be seized, thus evoking thinking and exploration.

Northouse (2013) contended that a leader's IQ should not differ too much from the subordinates because it could be counterproductive. If a leader is too intelligent, it may be difficult for the leader to communicate with his or her followers. Researchers often study emotional intelligence as an imperative characteristic in a leader. Goleman (1998) proposed that emotional intelligence encompasses two chief components: personal competence and social competence. Goleman explains that personal competence refers to how leaders handle themselves, whereas social competence refers to how leaders preserve relationships. Goleman expatiated these aptitudes into five realms: self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills. Underlying these five dominions are 25 competencies: emotional awareness, accurate self-assessment, self-confidence, self-control, trustworthiness, conscientiousness, adaptability, innovation, achievement drives, commitment, initiative, optimism, understanding others, developing others, service orientation, leveraging diversity, political awareness, influence, communication, conflict management, leadership, change catalyst, building bonds, collaboration and cooperation, and team capabilities. Bolman and Deal (2013) stated, "Interpersonal skills and emotional intelligence are vital, because personal relationships are a central element of daily life (p. 171). Northouse (2013) defined intelligence as positively related to leadership.

Murray (2015) suggested there are five intelligences in leadership. They include banked intelligence, fluid intelligence, connected intelligence, relational intelligence, and operational intelligence. Banked intelligence refers to content knowledge, which is essential in leadership.

Fluid intelligence refers to one's capability to think in difficult situations. Murray stated, connected intelligence is being able to connect theory and practice in a pragmatic way. Moreover, relational intelligence is having the ability to understand oneself in a social milieu. Finally, operational intelligence refers to the ability to make things happen and get things done. Murray claimed that the five intelligences are equally important in leadership and essentially make up the DNA of an effective leader.

Garcia (2012) stated, "Intelligence is the ability of the mind to comprehend, use thought and reasoning for problem solving—the ability to acquire knowledge and use it practically. Intelligence is important, but as a stand-alone tool for leadership, it lacks penetrating substance" (p. 1).

Self-confidence in leadership. McClellan (1985) asserted that self-confidence is the degree of probability that one can complete a task successfully. Bass and Avolio (1990) proclaimed in the early literature on successful leaders that self-confidence was a positive leadership trait**.** Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) suggested that leadership is difficult, and self-confidence for a leader is imperative as it endows leaders with the ability to finish the job. Kirkpatrick and Locke also posited that self-confidence is an integral part of leadership because a leader who has reservations about his or her skill set may not act in certain situations because he or she fears the outcome of the decision he or she might make. Thus, the leader's delayed response could cause subordinates to lose trust in the leader's abilities.

Daft (1994) described self-confidence as affirmation in one's own conclusions, decisions, philosophies, abilities, and skills. Kolb (1999) stated that self-confidence is at trait that is correlated to leader emergence. Correspondingly, Hollenbeck and Hall (2004) denoted self-confidence as a leader's belief in whether he or she can complete a task. Jennings (2009)

suggests that self-confident leaders are clear about their capacities and the choices they make, allowing their followers to be certain that the team is moving in the right direction. Jennings also stated that self-confident leaders can also motivate others to work toward collective goals and reap respect from their followers because of the decisions they make and the perils they face.

Bennis and Nanus (1985) asserted that transformational leaders are particularly self-confident. Self-confidence in leadership has been recognized in a plethora of research studies related to charismatic leadership, as a central aspect of leadership success, and as a precursor of charisma (Conger & Kanungo, 1987; House, 1977; Shamir, House & Arthur, 1993). By conveying a probability of success, a leader's self-confidence may prove the leader to be more appealing and charismatic, and encourage engrossment in the job or task that needs to be completed (DeCremer & Knippenberg, 2004). Moreover, a leader's exhibition of self-confidence may contribute to the leader's effectiveness. Additionally, a leader's presentation of self-confidence augments the relationship between a leader and his or her subordinates. Northouse (2013) proclaimed that self-confidence is a trait that a leader ought to possess. Leadership encompasses motivating and encouraging subordinates; self-confidence allows the leader to be certain that how he or she motivates followers is suitable in any given situation.

Goel and Aggarwal (2012) suggested that self-confidence is a personality trait that includes a combination of an individual's thoughts and feelings, goals, and desires. It is his or her view of what he or she is, what he or she has been, what he or she might become, and his or her attitudes about what he or she is worth. The authors also proclaim that self-confidence is a trait of an individual's perceived self. Moreover, self-confidence refers to an individual's ability to perceive himself or herself to be socially competent, emotionally mature, intellectually

adequate, successful, satisfied, decisive, optimistic, independent, self-reliant, forward-thinking, assertive, and possessing leadership qualities.

Kukulu, Korucku, Ozdemir, Bezci, and Calik (2013) assert that self-confidence can be categorized into two parts: inner confidence and outer confidence. Sectors of inner confidence are to love oneself, self-knowledge, explicit goals setting, and positive thinking. Inner confidence signifies that a person's ideas and feelings show how much an individual is pleased and at peace with himself or herself. Kukulu et al. also note that individuals with elevated levels of inner confidence are pleased with themselves and have great self-esteem. Moreover, outer confidence is seen in traits such as poise in communication and the aptitude for controlling feelings. Self-confident individuals always have explicit goals; however, self-confidence does not mean that an individual will be satisfied under challenging circumstances Kukulu, Korucku, Ozdemir, Bezci, & Calik, 2013).

Suwandi (2014) defines self confidence as:

Self-confidence is a combination of attitude and personal beliefs in facing the task, which is internal, relative, dynamic and determined by his ability to start, conduct, and solve the problem. Self-confidence is a positive thing that someone has in order to accept themselves, be brave to take a risk, and believe of their own potency that they have. (p. 262)

Suwandi also asserted that self-confidence is synonymous with self-efficacy. The author defined self-efficacy as beliefs or perceptions that a leader holds the aptitude to complete particular responsibilities. Suwandi suggested that self-efficacy for learning refers to a leader's self-confidence in acquiring skills and learning new things, whereas self-efficacy for

performance refers to a leader's confidence in completing a task for which a leader already possesses the requisite skills required to see the task to fruition.

Schwarder (2004) stated that there are five ways to foster self-confidence. They include self-talk, written affirmations, emotional visualization, external messages, and having the courage to act. In regard to self-talk, Schwarder asserted that the way you talk to your self can affect your outcomes. The author also posited that affirmations should be written, in addition to being spoken. When these affirmations are reviewed often, an individual is more likely to believe such thoughts. Emotional visualization refers to being able to visualize your successes. Successful people often utilize visualization in practice. In addition to visualization, in order to build self-confidence, leaders ought to glean inspirational messages from external sources such as books, as they can help uplift one's spirit. Finally, successful leaders have to have the courage to act and make decisions. The more a leader makes decisions, the more he or she is teaching himself or herself self-confidence and success.

Weiss (2004) suggests that in order to increase self-confidence, a leader ought to understand his or her competitors. Studying one's competitors may enhance a leader's competitiveness and increase organizational outcomes.

Determination in leadership. To be self-determining means to practice a sense of choice in instigating and controlling one's own actions. Research has connected self-determination to heightened creativity (Amabile, 1983), theoretical learning (Benware & Deci, 1984), self-esteem (Deci, Schwartz & Sheinman, 1981), and overall well-being (Langer & Rodin, 1976). Furthermore, research in the area of self-determination has allowed psychologists to elucidate the precursor circumstances that indorse self-determination and to detail the significance of self-determination to various applied situations.

Ward (1988) referred to self-determination as the attitudes leaders possess in order to achieve the goals that they have set for themselves**.** Weymeyer (1992) defined self-determination as the ability to act on goals set forth without internal or external influences precluding decision making. Field and Hoffman (1994) referred to self-determination as a leader's aptitude to define and achieve objectives based on the basis of understanding and regarding oneself. Powers, Singer, and Sowers (1996) posited that self-determination refers to when a leader or person is empowered intrinsically to self-direct their goals.

Rather than use the word determination, Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) use the word drive. Kirkpatrick and Locke contend that the five facets of drive include achievement motivation, ambition, energy, tenacity, and initiative. Northouse (2013) commented that a good leader ought to be self-determined. The author suggested that determination includes traits such as initiative, persistence, dominance, and drive. Leaders, who are determined and have drive can persevere through difficulties and challenges. Furthermore, leaders who are determined are not reluctant to be dominant in situations when followers need to be led.

Self-determination is a much-respected leadership trait (Tombari & Litchenstein, 2010). The authors recommend when leaders have prodigious self-determination, they are typically describing individuals with persistence and will-power. Moreover, Tombari and Litchenstein suggest that self-determination refers to individuals' beliefs that they are in control and are responsible for what happens to them, as opposed to believing that outside influences control them. The authors also noted that Self-Determination Theory is a theory of human motivation that explains why some individuals are agents of their success, while others are pawns of what happens around them. Furthermore, self-determination focuses on the social conditions that promote intrinsic motivation, self-regulation, and well-being (Tombari & Litchenstein, 2010).

Seibert and Kramer (2000) evaluated extroversion among leaders in professional settings. To be specific, the authors' research analyzed emerging leaders. Seibert and Kramer found that extroversion allowed leaders to thrive in social settings, thus, allowing for leaders who were social to have successful careers.

Integrity in leadership. Kuhnert and Lewis (1987) suggested that a leader possessing values such as integrity, honor, and justice has the power to transform his or her subordinates. Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) asserted that integrity is a value in all people, but integrity has extraordinary significance for leaders. Furthermore, Kirkpatrick and Locke proclaimed that without integrity, leadership is diluted. Therefore, integrity forms the foundation of a trusting relationship between a leader and his or her subordinates.

Ciulla (1995) proclaimed that ethics is at the heart of leadership. J. Thomas (2008) suggested that ethical leadership involves a leader having personal integrity. Yukl (2001) contended that in a plethora of cultures, integrity is one of the most integral leadership traits. J. Thomas (2008) proclaimed that ethical leadership has historically been thought of as including other individualistic traits such as trustworthiness, honesty, fairness, principled decision making, and behaving ethically in the leader's personal and professional life.

Bloskie (1995) and Simons (1999) suggested that integrity is when one's beliefs are aligned with one's actions. Sampord and Berry (2004) posited that integrity requires a leader to ask questions about his or her subordinates values. The author also asserted that whenever a leader gives an answer to the public, a leader should live by those words. Shacklock and Lewis (2007) posited that by the aforementioned definitions of integrity, a person could possess integrity and not be a good person simultaneously.

Integrity in leadership has long been a concern within business and institutions (Kanungo & Mendonca, 1996). Numerous organizational scholars and experts suggest that leadership without integrity may eventually place the business at risk (Morgan, 1993; Mowday et al., 1982; Parry, 1998). Moreover, integrity is a notion generally used within formal and informal discussions of leadership and organizational behavior theory, but is not evidently defined and comprehended (Rieke & Guastello, 1995). Simons (1999) recommended there is often an incongruity between the standards and ethics a leader may champion, and the tangible morals embodied in their actions. Lacking leadership integrity in an organization may be a risk because of acquiescence issues, lack of effective action, dishonesty, and communication blocks (Kanungo & Mendonca, 1996).

Craig and Gustafason (1998) proclaimed that leaders who are perceived as ethical in their positions, are often successful in their leadership positions. Petrick and Quinn (2000) proclaimed that integrity ability includes the person's and/or collective's capability for repeated alignment of ethical awareness, negotiation, character, and behavior that validates stable judgment, augments continued moral development, and endorses encouraging systems for honest decision making. Shacklock and Lewis (2007) posited that that leading with integrity requires a leader to act morally, regardless of the outcome. Northouse (2013) posited that integrity includes honesty and trustworthiness. The author also stated that individuals with integrity take responsibility for their actions. Leaders with integrity also inspire their followers because they are trusted.

Sociability. House and Howell (1992) asserted that leaders who are dominant tend to be more social. They are not afraid to take the initiative in social settings and tend to utilize humor to create relationships. Bass (1998) suggested that sociability is convincingly associated with transformational leadership. Judge and Bono (2000) asserted that the trait that serves as the

nexus between dominance and sociability is extraversion, which is included in the Big Five Personality model. Costa and McCrae (1988) asserted that extraversion was strongly related to social leadership. Northouse (2013) defined sociability as a leader's ability to seek out pleasant relationships. Social leaders are often approachable, outgoing, dexterous, diplomatic, and polite. The author also concluded that sociability is a trait a leader ought to exhibit.

In Bass and Avolio's (1990) research, results linking extraversion to leadership were inconsistent. However, other scholars proclaim that extraverts should be more likely to emerge as leaders in group settings. Costa and McCrae (1988) proclaimed that extraversion is convincingly correlated to social leadership and, according to Watson and Clark (1997), extraversion is connected to leader emergence in groups. Hogan et al. (1994) state that extraversion is related to being perceived as a leader. Moreover, the authors proclaimed that extraverts tend to be energetic, lively people. Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) stated, "Leaders are more likely than nonleaders to have a high level of energy and stamina and to be generally active, lively, and often restless" (p. 50). Extroverts are often described as active, assertive, energetic, and not silent or withdrawn (Gough, 1988). Furthermore, Gough (1990) discovered that integrity includes aspects of extraversion—dominance and sociability—and were connected to individual and follower ratings of leadership.

The literature revealed that intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability are strongly relevant in the study of trait leadership; as such, they will make up the conceptual framework for this study.

Summary

The purpose of this study is to identify the prominent leadership traits that have contributed to electing women in California by reviewing the existing literature; more than 20

definitions of leadership could be found. Bass (1981) contended that there could very well be as many leadership definitions as leadership theorists.

The literature review discovered different viewpoints as they relate to whether men and women have the same leadership traits. Although there has been a large composite of empirical data that focuses on leadership traits, there has been scant research in regard to what specific leadership traits women elected officials possess in order to be successful in their careers. Furthermore, existing literature regarding gender in the workplace and in leadership focuses on the lack of gender diversity and the glass ceiling. The literature typically examines the disparity of women in meaningful leadership positions, and the differences in wages that women receive in comparison with men.

The studied literature on women elected officials have neglected to provide the specific leadership traits that women ought to possess to become elected officials in the state of California. However, the literature review revealed that intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability are formidable traits of successful leaders. Therefore, this study will utilize the aforementioned leadership traits gleaned from the literature review as the conceptual framework for this research.

Chapter 3: Methods

The purpose of this qualitative study is to identify prominent leadership traits that contributed to the successful election of women in California. Furthermore, this study seeks to discover if specific leadership traits such as intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability contribute to women being elected, specifically in the state of California. This research presents the responses of women politicians from the local, state, and federal levels in the state of California, as they identify leadership traits they demonstrated and believe assisted them in being elected. The information compiled in this research is presented in a narrative style that is consistent with qualitative research.

Organization of the Chapter

This chapter presents the methods utilized to conduct this study. Chapter 3 begins with detailing the landscape of a qualitative study. The foundation of qualitative research is introduced as the method that is utilized to collect the qualitative data for this study. This chapter also presents the research questions and sampling strategies that identify the research participants in this study. Chapter 3 also includes a segment that describes how the human subjects in this study are involved in the research process. The chapter discusses how the research is protected. Indeed, the chapter presents the data collection strategies utilized to ensure the reliability and validity of the data collected. Finally, the methods chapter culminates with data display and analysis.

Purpose and Research Questions

The purpose of this qualitative study is to identify prominent leadership traits that contributed to the election of women in California. Women elected officials who represent the local, state, and federal governments in California serve as the research sample for the

completion of this study. The following research questions shape the basis for this research study, which will help discover leadership traits that women politicians in California contribute to their election.

1. How does intelligence contribute to successful election of women in California?

2. How does self-confidence contribute to successful election of women in California?

3. How does determination contribute to successful election of women in California?

4. How does integrity contribute to successful election of women in California?

5. How does sociability contribute to successful election of women in California?

Design of the Study

Qualitative research. A qualitative research design and method were chosen to exact purpose statements throughout the proposal. Hatch (2002) suggested that qualitative studies encompass the "lived experiences of real people in real settings" (p. 6). The motivation for utilizing qualitative research in this study is noted by authors such as Myers (1997) who stated, "The goal of understanding a phenomenon from the point of view of the participants and its particular social and institutional context is largely lost when textual data are quantified" (p. 3). Kirk and Miller (1986) proclaimed that qualitative research is composed of four stages:

- Invention denotes a phase of preparation, or research design; this phase produces a plan of action.

- Discovery denotes a phase of observation and measurement, or data collection; this phase produces information.

- Interpretation—denotes a phase of evaluation, or analysis; this phase produces understanding.

- Explanation denotes a phase of communication, or packaging; this phase produces a message. (p. 60)

Patton (2002) stated, qualitative methods permit inquiry into selected issues in prodigious depth with careful attention to detail, context, and nuance; that data collection need not be controlled by fixed analytical categories contribute to the potential breadth of qualitative inquiry. Creswell (2013) suggested that qualitative research opens with suppositions and the use of explanatory contexts that inform the study of research issues addressing the significance individuals or groups attribute to a social or human problem. Additionally, Creswell proclaimed to study this issue. Qualitative researchers use an evolving qualitative method to review the collection of data in an organic setting sensitive to the individuals and places under study. Data analysis is both inductive and deductive and ascertains patterns or themes. Additionally, Creswell asserted that the final written report or presentation ought to include the voices of participants in the study, the reflexivity of the researcher, a multifaceted account and understanding of the issue, and its contribution to the literature.

Denzin and Lincoln (2000) proposed that "qualitative research consists of a set of interpretive practices that make the world more visible. These practices transform the world into a series of representations that include field notes, interviews, conversations, photographs, and memos" (p. 3). Merriam (2009) asserted that there are five typical approaches in qualitative research that include basic qualitative study, phenomenology, critical qualitative research, ethnography, and narrative analysis.

Patton (1987) suggested six questions a researcher should ask when selecting a research method:

1. Who is the information for and who will use the findings?

2. What kinds of information are needed?

3. How is the information to be used? For what purposes is evaluation being done?

4. When is the information needed?

5. What resources are available to conduct the evaluation?

6. Given answers to the preceding questions, what methods are appropriate? (p. 8)

Utilizing the aforementioned six questions, a narrative approach was selected to garner data associated with the leadership traits that contribute to the election of women in California.

Narrative. Polkinghorne (2007) stated, "Narrative research is the study of stories" (p. 471). Moreover, Polkinghorne suggested that the narrative analysis process is accepted by a plethora of academic disciplines, including literary criticism, history, philosophy, organizational theory, and social science. Webster and Mertova (2007) stated, "Narrative inquiry has gained momentum in practice and research in a growing number of disciplines, partly on account of the constraints of conventional research methods and their incompatibility with the complexities of human actions" (p. 4). The authors also stated that narrative research "allows researchers to present experiences holistically in all its complexity and richness" (p. 2).

Creswell, Hanson, Plano, Clark, and Morales-Escoto (2007) signified that narrative research is one of the leading approaches to qualitative research studies and noted that it is useful to distinguish between types of narrative research via the "analytic strategies that authors use" (p. 243). Barone (2001) proclaimed that narrative research is comparable to respectable literature, as it "causes us to question our values, prompts new imaginings of the ideal and the possible. It can even stir action against the conventional, the seemingly unquestionable, the tried and true" (p. 736).

Creswell (2013) posited that narrative research is best utilized when it captures comprehensive life experiences of one life or a small number of individuals. Clandinin and Conelly (2000) claimed that narrative inquiry encompasses experiences, as well as the cultural backgrounds of the research participants. Merriam (2009) stated, "Narrative analysis uses the stories people tell analyzing them in various ways, to understand the meanings of experiences as revealed in the story" (p. 23). Patton (2002) stated, "The central idea of narrative analysis is that stories and narratives offer especially translucent windows into cultural and social meanings" (p. 116). Elliott (2005) suggested that narrative research is synonymous to social research.

The notion of narrative interviewing embodies a vital transference in viewpoints in the human sciences about the research interview (Riessman, 2008). In the narrative interview process, the question and answer model gives way to observing the interview as a conversational achievement. Participants engross in a developing dialogue in which the narrator and listener collaboratively harvest and make meaning of events and experiences that the interviewer reports.

Sources of data. This study utilizes purposeful sampling in order to select women who are currently serving as elected officials in the state of California. Patton (2002) suggested that the reasoning and strength of purposeful sampling lie in selecting information-dense cases to research in depth. Patton contends that information-rich cases are those from which an individual can learn about matters of fundamental importance to the purpose of what subject matter is being studied, thus, the term purposeful sampling can be derived. Patton also indicated that studying information-dense cases glean understandings of the subject matter, rather than empirical generalizations. Leedy and Ormrod (2005) stated that in purposeful sampling, "people or other units are chosen, as the name implies, for a particular purpose" (p. 206). Suri (2011) stated that purposeful sampling "requires access to key informants in the field who can help in identifying

information rich cases" (p. 4). Koerber and McMichael (2008) suggested that purposeful

sampling indicates, "Researchers have some degree of choice in selecting their research sample

and that they have a clear purpose that guides their choice" (p. 466). Participants will be selected

because of their experiences as women elected officials in the state of California.

McMillian and Schumaker (2010) noted that selecting the sample size in qualitative

research ought to be connected to the research study's purpose, problem, data collection strategy,

and availability of the information-dense cases. Creswell (2013) asserted that a general guideline

for selecting the same size is to assure that enough data is collected in extensive detail to cover

the subject matter being studied. McMillian and Schumacher (2010) also suggested the following

principles for determining sample size: (a) purpose of the study, (b) focus of the study, (c)

primary data collection strategy, (d) availability of informants, (e) redundancy of data, and (f)

researchers submit the obtained sample size to peer review respectively. For the purpose of this

study, 10 research subjects will be evaluated in this narrative study.

Padgett (2004) suggested that purposeful sampling emphasizes quality over quantity,

with the objective of driving results that will strongly impact the subject matter. Noy (2008)

stated, "This process is, by necessity, repetitive: informants refer the researcher to other

informants, who are contacted by the researcher and then refer her or him to yet other

informants, and so on" (p. 330). For the purposes of this study, 10 women elected officials in

California will serve as the research participants. Each participant will be selected based upon

the following criteria: (a) a woman, (b) elected to serve at the local, state, or federal level in

California.

Patton (2002) proclaimed that maximum variation is an approach for purposeful sampling

that targets encapsulating and detailing the principal patterns or primary conclusions that may be

analyzed. Maximum variation will be used in this research study by interviewing women elected officials who represent the state of California and who are from diverse governmental agencies on the local, state, and federal levels. Maximum variation indicates that diversity will be represented.

Snowballing will also be a strategy utilized in this research study. McMillian and Schumacher (2010) suggested that snowballing is a strategy in which the participant in the research study suggests an additional participant who can also potentially contribute to the study. Biernacki and Wardolf (1981) proclaimed that chain referral sampling, or snowballing, is often used in sociological qualitative research and is well suited for research purposes.

Protecting human subjects. The National Research Act was enacted in 1974, which established the National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical and Behavioral Research. The National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical and Behavioral Research was tasked with establishing procedures for all biomedical and behavioral research engaging human subjects. The ethical guidelines that were established by the national commission were synthesized in the Belmont Report. The Belmont Report is based upon three ethical philosophies essential to the protection of human subjects involved in research. They are: (a) respect for persons, (b) beneficence, and (c) justice (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2010).

In this study, the interviewees will be asked to complete an informed consent form that will include a summary of the research procedures, the purpose of the study, risks and anticipated benefits, discussion of confidentiality, discussion of how the results will be shared, and a statement outlining the voluntary nature of participation. The consent form will be provided online and the consent form will be provided to all research participants prior to

gathering data. Although a consent form will be provided to each of the research participants, no signature will be required.

Patton (1990) suggested that qualitative research methods that utilize human subjects, particularly in areas such as education, therapy, and development involving change, should include the following fundamental ideologies:

1. Each person or community is unique.

2. Each person or community deserves respect.

3. Equity, fairness, and mutual respect should be foundations of human interactions.

4. Change processes (and research) should be negotiated, agreed to, and mutually understood—not imposed, forced, or required.

5. One expresses respect for and concern about others by learning about them, their perspective, and their world—and by being personally involved.

6. Change processes should be person centered, attentive to the effects on real people as individuals with his or her own unique needs and interests.

7. Emotion, feeling, and affect are natural, healthy dimensions of human experience.

8. The change agent, therapist, or researcher is nonjudgmental, accepting, and supportive in respecting others' right to make their own decisions, and live as they choose. The point is empowerment of others, not control judgment.

9. People and communities should be understood in context and holistically.

10. The process (how things are done) is as important as the outcomes (what is achieved).

11. Action and responsibility are shared; unilateral action is avoided.

12. Information should be openly shared and honestly communicated as a matter of mutual respect and in support of openness as a value. (p. 124)

The U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (2010) states that a human subject program ought to fulfill the following:

1. The risks of the research are minimized.

2. The risks to subjects are reasonable in relation to anticipated benefits.

3. The selection of subjects is fair.

4. Each participant gives a voluntary and informed consent form without a requisite signature.

5. When appropriate, the research plan makes adequate provisions for monitoring the data collected to ensure the safety of subjects.

6. There are adequate provisions to protect the privacy of subjects and to maintain the confidentiality of data.

7. Conflicts of interest are transparent and appropriately managed.

8. Consideration is given to what additional protections, if any, are needed for vulnerable populations.

9. Proper training in human subjects protections is provided for research personnel.

For the purposes of this study, the researcher completed the National Institute of Health Institutional Review Board (IRB) training course. The completion of this course is validated by the certificate of completion found in APPENDIX A. Additionally, the researcher will complete an application to be approved by the Pepperdine University IRB requesting an exempt status because of the low levels of risk related to this study.

Data Collection

The data collection for this research study began in Chapter 2 with a review of the pertinent literature related to prominent leadership traits that women elected officials possess in

the state of California. The literature review attempted to show the established and germane theories related to leadership trait theory, and women who succeed at becoming elected officials in California. However, there was scant research on the specific prominent leadership traits that women possessed to be elected in the state of California. Narrative, semistructured interview questions will be utilized to collect data from women elected officials in California. For the purposes of this study, responses gleaned from the interview questions will be coded to reveal leadership traits prominent in the women elected officials in the state of California.

The Instrument

The interview tool is intended to bring about responses related to the research questions and to identify prominent leadership traits in women elected officials in the state of California. Patton (1990) stated, "For purposes of qualitative inquiry, good questions should, at a minimum, be open ended, neutral, singular, and clear" (p. 295). An instrument has been constructed to be purposive in collecting the feedback from the lived experiences of women elected officials in California. The semistructured interview questions are formulated with the objective of understanding participants' experiences and perspectives.

Following Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval, the investigator will contact potential participants based on the criteria detailed in the aforementioned section on sources of data. The preliminary contact to the research participants will be via telephone. Once the participants indicate they will participate, the researcher will send a copy of the Participant Consent Form (See APPENDIX B, Participant Consent Form); however, no signature will be required. After agreeing to participate in the study, the interview will be scheduled at the convenience of the research participants. The interview questions will be provided to the participants so they have time to think about them and ask any questions. Only handwritten notes

will be taken. Following the interview, a transcript will be provided to the research participants in the weeks following the interview for their approval. Research participants will be able to approve the transcript as written or provide clarification or modifications upon their request.

Validity

Polkinghorne (2007) stated, "Narrative researchers undertake their inquiries to have something to say to their readers about the human condition" (p. 476). Patton (2002) stated, "The validity and reliability of qualitative data depend to a great extent of the methodological skill, sensitivity, and integrity of the researcher" (p. 11).

Polkinghorne (2007) wrote:

The purpose of the validation process is to convince readers of the likelihood that the support of the claim can serve as a basis for understanding of action in the human realm. Narrative research issues claims about the meanings of life events hold for people. It claims about how people understand, situations others and themselves. (p. 476)

Kirk and Miller (1986 proclaimed, "Reliability is the extent to which a measurement procedure yields the same answer however and whenever it is carried out; validity is the extent to which it gives the correct answer" (p. 19).

Face and content validity. Face validity may be described as the "extent to which, on the surface an instrument looks like it is measuring a particular characteristic. Face validity is often useful for ensuring the cooperation of people who are participating in a research study" (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005, p. 92). Additionally, Leedy and Ormrod stated, "the extent to which measurement is a representative sample of the content area being measured" (p. 92). For the purposes of this research study, face and content validity will be realized via a comprehensive literature review**.** Likewise, via the use of a panel of experts, data will be ascertained from the

interview questions presented to the interviewees to establish content validity in the interview protocol.

Panel of experts. In order to enrich this research study's validity, three university faculty members will serve as a panel of experts and review the interview questions. Each of the three expert panelists will have a doctorate degree and be an expert in the subject of qualitative research methods. A document will be sent to the panelists to inform them of the purpose of the research study and to acknowledge his or her participation on the panel. The panelists will be provided with an assessment form to evaluate and analyze the interview questions. A copy of the expert panel review form can be found in APPENDIX C. Each participant will be asked to specify whether the interview question is: (a) pertinent to the research question, (b) not applicable to the research question, or (c) should be revised. The researcher will then amalgamate the panelist's responses to augment the validity of the research study.

Reliability. Kirk and Miller (1986) state that reliability may be defined as "the extent to which the same observational procedure in the same context yields the same information" (p. 80). Internal reliability is referred to as the level that other researchers will take a set of current concepts and tie them to statistics in analogous ways as the original investigator (LeCompte & Goetz, 1982). Franklin and Ballan (2001) proclaimed that external reliability tackles whether self-governing researchers would discern the similar veracities or engender comparable theories in analogous situations. Leedy and Ormrod (2005) proclaimed that interreviewer reliability is referred to when two or more people investigating the same issue give indistinguishable evaluations. This research study will utilize interreviewer reliability to certify that the results will be reliable. Hyatt (2010) states that the respective steps ought to be used to determine interreviewer reliability:

1. The chief researcher is the first person to code the data by examining the transcriptions, postponing presumptions about the subject matter (Creswell, 2013), firstly considering all data under inquiry as evenly significant, and then fusing the data by contributing meaning units to the data in the left margin and operational explanations and deductions in the right margin.

2. The principal researcher regarding the coding procedure will then teach the ancillary reviewer(s), including the themes.

3. The primary researcher then utilizes an extract of the transcript in order to ensure that the reviewer(s) grasp the coding method.

4. The reviewer(s) will be given a fresh copy of the data for coding. The copy evaluated by the principal researcher will be saved.

5. The reviewer(s) a minimum of three times will re-cite the transcription.

6. The first reading is largely focused on understanding the data from the texts.

7. The second reading is to become further acquainted with the data and to address any doubts from the initial time the data was read.

8. The third reading is to examine the data by using bracketing for reduction, horizontalization, and amalgamation of the data.

9. The reviewer(s) works with the primary researcher to code one chosen transcription.

10. Meaning units will be located on the left margin whereas conclusions and structural descriptions are inserted on the right margin.

11. The reviewer(s) for all of the outstanding transcripts will utilize the same analysis procedure, but the chief researcher will not assist. All reviewers will work individualistically.

12. After investigation, the primary researcher and reviewer(s) assess the assumptions.

13. During the analysis process, the agreed-upon themes and the areas of inconsistency are pursued.

14. Harmony will be reached on the deductions and a form will be created to distinguish general themes.

15. Hyatt (2010) suggested clarifying measures to be used for key and trivial themes.

Role of the researcher. Patton (2002) posited that integrity of qualitative methods fulcrums to a great extent on the proficiency, aptitude, and precision of the individual doing fieldwork, as well as distractions that an individual may be facing in their personal life. A superior research study behooves the examiner to be unbiased as it relates to the topic being studied. Patton suggested that an investigator cannot plan to substantiate a specific viewpoint or affect the data to come to preset veracities. Additionally, Patton stated, "The investigator's commitment is to understand the world as it is, be true to complexities and multiple perspectives as they emerge, and to be balanced in reporting both confirming and disconfirming evidence" (p. 55). Prasad (2005) suggested that reflexivity is useful to overcome three types of researcher biases: social bias, field bias, and intellectual bias. Prasad explained these three biases as:

(a) Social biases from a researcher's identity locations, as pertaining to age, gender, nationality, ethnicity, occupation, membership in the Western hemisphere or the Third World, and so on, and influences a researcher's interpretation of any social situation; (b) field bias stems from the researcher's position in her or his academic field, whether he or she is a novice researcher or an experienced scholar, and determines the choice of a research focus, degree of investment, and so on; and (c)intellectualist bias is driven by the

demands of the profession and the researcher's desire to be recognized as a leading

scholar, a prominent intellectual, or an expert social scientist. (p. 197)

Statement of Bias

The researcher has experience in the public policy field, is a woman, and aspires to

become an elected official in the state of California. The researcher will make every effort to

preclude any biases by utilizing reflexivity in the research study. Wendler (2012) posited that

reflexivity invites us to be attentive to the limits of our view and to solicit the perspectives of

others. Goodall (2000) stated that reflexivity is "the process of personally and academically

reflecting on lived experiences in ways that reveal deep connections between the writer and his

or her subject" (p. 137). For instance, the researcher will conduct a detailed review of the

scholarly literature related with research topic. Additionally, it is the role of the researcher to

report the responses and opinions of the research study's subjects and synthesize the shared

thematic elements and patterns, which will be brought forth without any personal vendetta or

bias.

Data Analysis

Strauss (1987) stated, "Any researcher who wishes to become proficient at doing

qualitative analysis must learn to code well and easily. The excellence of the research rests in

large part on the excellence of the coding" (p. 27). Saldana (2008) asserted that a consensus does

not exists in research as it relates to coding the data. The author urged choosing the "right tool

for the right job since all research questions, methodologies, conceptual frameworks, and

fieldwork parameters are context-specific" (p. 2).

Hatch (2002) stated, "Qualitative data analysis involves a deductive dimension. As

patterns or relationships are discovered in the data, hypothetical categories are formed, and the

data are then read deductively to determine if these categories are supported by the overall data

set" (p. 10). Holloway (1997) proposed the following process as it relates to data analysis:

1. Ordering and organizing the collected material

2. Rereading the data

3. Breaking the material into manageable sections

4. Identifying and highlighting meaningful phrases

5. Building, comparing, and contrasting categories

6. Looking for consistent patterns of meanings

7. Searching for relationships and grouping categories together

8. Recognizing and describing patterns, themes and typologies

9. Interpreting and searching for meaning. (p. 44)

Saldana (2008) recommended that the investigator in the research study use manual

coding on hard copy printouts. Therefore, the researcher will utilize this method of coding. The

prescribed coding method requires the first step in the coding process to examine the research

participants' interview transcripts to become acquainted with the data and ascertain significant

themes. Saldana articulated, "Coding is a method that enables you to organize and group

similarly coded data into categories or families because they share some characteristic" (p. 8).

Maxwell (2005) stated that the purpose of coding in qualitative research is to rearrange the data

"into categories that facilitate comparison between things in the same category and that aid in the

development of theoretical concepts" (p. 96). The investigator will first code the data

independently.

Data Display

Miles and Huberman (1994) asserted that data display should be organized, synthesized, information that allows for a conclusion to be drawn. Leedy and Ormrod (2005) suggested that data displays for research studies ought to include the following:

1. A description of the body of material the individual studied.

2. Precise definitions and descriptions of the characteristics the researcher set out to find.

3. Tabulations for each characteristic or trait.

4. A description of patterns or themes that the data reflect. (p. 143)

For the purposes of this research study, data will be displayed utilizing a variety of approaches, including narrative and tables, which help characterize the patterns and themes the research participants communicated. Furthermore, the data display will support the significant findings gleaned from the research participants' responses to the narrative interview questions that the investigator has selected to relate to the purpose of this research study.

Limitations of the Study

The following limitations may be associated with this study. The people interviewed in this study will be limited by geography to one state. Interviewing people from other states may yield additional data. Commonly, in qualitative studies, there is a small sample size; therefore, it is not possible to generalize. However, this study does intend to add to the literature. Furthermore, this study is qualitative, utilizing interviews in design; a quantitative study may yield different outcomes.

Summary

Chapter 3 tackled the landscape and design of the study using qualitative research methods—more specifically narrative research. The designated method was discussed along with a justification for why it was ideal for this qualitative research study. Purposeful sampling and the participant selection criteria were addressed along with a narrative of the protection of human subjects. A discussion of narrative interviewing methods and the data collection procedures were included. The role of the researcher in qualitative research was noted. Additionally, limitations of the research study were outlined, as well as sections in the chapter that explained the data sources. The chapter also contained a thorough description of the validity, reliability, and the role of the researcher in the study. Chapter 3 culminated with a section depicting the methods used to analyze and display the data related to leadership traits that contributed to the election of women in California.

Chapter 4: Analysis of Findings

The gender discrepancy in all levels of government has been overt in the United States since the Constitution's ratification. Long after the 19th amendment's ratification (Calkins, 1975), United States elected officials are still pervasively male. This stages a challenge to future women elected officials. Although there has been considerable progress in women's participation in politics (Scola, 2013), women only constitute 24.3% of all legislative seats throughout the United States (Ziegler, 2015). More specifically, according to Close the Gap (2013), women make up more than 50% of the population of the state of California, but only 26% of the state legislature. Furthermore, the state of California ranks 19th in women's representation in government throughout the United States. Therefore, the intent of this study is to identify prominent leadership traits that contributed to the election of women in California. The conceptual framework for this study included Northouse's (2013) five leadership traits: intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability.

Chapter Structure

Chapter 4 starts with the analysis of the study's findings, including a succinct summary of the study, a reiteration of the purpose and research questions, along with a narrative of the elected officials participating in the study. Additionally, Chapter 4 conveys the methods utilized for data collection and analysis, including the tools used to safeguard validity and reliability. The data display section presents the data collected and analyzed from the research questions and related interview questions. Finally, Chapter 4 culminates with a summary of the chapter.

Purpose and Research Questions

The purpose of the study. This study's purpose identifies prominent leadership traits that contributed to women's successful election in California. Moreover**,** this qualitative study

discovers how intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability contribute to the successful election of women in California.

Research questions. The exhaustive review of the literature supported Northouse's (2013) five leadership traits, intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability, as the conceptual framework for this study and provided the basis for the research questions:

1. How does intelligence contribute to successful election of women in California?

2. How does self-confidence contribute to successful election of women in California?

3. How does determination contribute to successful election of women in California?

4. How does integrity contribute to successful election of women in California?

5. How does sociability contribute to successful election of women in California?

Overview of Methods

Participant sample. Ten elected officials were selected to participate in the study from local, state, and federal legislatures in the state of California. Purposeful sampling was utilized to select women elected officials who have experience with being successfully elected in the state of California.

Participant criteria. For the purposes of this narrative study, the 10 women elected officials served as the sample for this study. The 10 diverse participants selected for this study met the following criteria:

1. Participants have to be a woman.

2. Participants are currently elected officials in California at either the local, state, and federal level.

Participant 1 (P1)

P1 is a woman with more than 10 years of experience as an elected official in the state of California. PA has served in California's State Assembly. P1 currently serves as a Congressional member representing the state of California. P1 is African American and is a member of the Democratic Party.

Participant 2 (P2)

P2 is a woman with more than 3 years of experience as an elected official in the state of California. P2 serves in California's State Senate. She is African American and is a member of the Democratic Party.

Participant 3 (P3)

P3 is a woman with more than 1 year of experience as an elected official in the state of California. She serves at the local level as a trustee in a Community College District. She is African American and is a member of the Democratic Party.

Participant 4 (P4)

P4 is a woman with more than 1 year of experience as an elected official in the state of California. She serves at the local level as a trustee of a Community College District. P4 is Caucasian and is a member of the Democratic Party.

Participant 5 (P5)

P5 is a woman with more than 2 years of experience as an elected official in the state of California. She serves in California's State Assembly. P5 is African American and is a member of the Democratic Party

Participant 6 (P6)

P6 is a woman with more than 1 year of experience as an elected official in the state of California. She serves at the local level as a Trustee of a Community College District. P6 is Hispanic and is a member of the Democratic Party.

Participant 7 (P7)

P7 is a woman with more than 1 year of experience as an elected official in the state of California. She serves as a board member for a Unified School District. P7 is Hispanic and is a member of the Democratic Party.

Participant 8 (P8)

P8 is a woman with more than 2 years of experience as an elected official in the state of California. She serves as State Controller. P8 is Chinese American and is a member of the Democratic Party.

Participant 9 (P9)

P9 is a woman with more than 4 years of experience as an elected official in the state of California. She serves as a District Attorney for a California county. P9 is African American and is a member of the Democratic Party.

Participant 10 (P10)

P10 is a woman with more than 3 years of experience as an elected official in the state of California. She serves as a city councilmember. P10 is Hispanic and is a member of the Democratic Party.

One can examine that all participants are members of one political party. This may be a result of the interview method utilized. Snowball sampling could be the cause of all participants belonging to one political party, as the first participant was a member of the Democratic Party.

Data Collection

Following approval from Pepperdine University's Institutional Review Board, data were procured from 10 elected officials from local, state, and federal legislatures in the state of California.

The interview instrument was established to glean data to inform the research questions in this study. Detailed hand-written notes were taken at each individual interview. A letter sequenced from the alphabet was used to identify each research participant in order to increase confidentiality.

Research participants were informed of the method of informed consent. The interview protocol is spelled out in APPENDIX D. The semistructured interviews were conducted with 10 elected officials from local, state, and federal legislatures in the state of California. Each participant had the chance to review the transcript or further expand on his or her initial comments.

The following procedure involved:

1. Identifying participants who met the research criteria.

2. Participants were procured utilizing a recruitment flyer (see APPENDIX E).

3. Participants who were interested in voluntarily participating in the research study contacted the primary researcher.

4. Individual face-to-face, and phone interviews were set up with each research participant.

5. The principal researcher reviewed the informed consent form, purpose of the study, and methods with each research participant.

6. The primary researcher asked if any participants had any clarifying questions.

7. Once consent was received from each research participant, alphanumeric identifiers (P1-P10) were assigned to the research participants.

8. The principal researcher asked about the research participants' position titles and verified that each participant was an elected official from local, state, and federal legislatures in the state of California.

9. The principal researcher provided interview questions either face-to-face or over the phone.

10. Research participants responded to each question after it was asked by the researcher.

11. Responses were turned into a transcript for the research participants review.

12. The researcher expressed gratitude for participants' willingness to participate in the dissertation study.

13. Concluding the study, each research participant was provided with a summary of the findings and results.

Data Analysis

Research participants reviewed and verified their answers to the interview questions (Creswell, 2013). Additionally, participants were given the chance to expand further their responses. The data were presented in a way that permitted the research participants' responses to be associated with the conceptual framework components. Upon completion of all interviews, the data were synthesized in for coding purposes.

The researcher analyzed each participant's interview responses multiple times before coding to become familiar with the participant's responses (Creswell, 2013). During the reading of each interview transcript, similar words and/or phrases were highlighted. Additionally, bracketing was utilized in order to identify key themes in the data. Tesch (1990) suggests that the

researcher write down ideas that were comparable to other research participants. Tesch also suggests that the researcher reflect on the significance of each research participant's response and write down the responses and ideas of the research participants beside their answers in the margin of the interview transcripts. According to Tesch, this process ought to be repeated for each interview transcript. Upon the review of all the interview transcripts, the researcher synthesized the identified themes, topics, and patterns into columns as a reference during the coding process. Last, similar topics were clustered together, which highlighted common themes.

Study Validity and Reliability

Validity. According to Creswell (2013), validity is an integral component of qualitative research and it is vital to determine the accuracy of the research findings and results. The semistructured interview questions were created to relate to the conceptual framework and asked in a way that would identify key leadership traits that women elected officials ought to possess to become successfully elected.

In order to ensure content validity, an expert-panel of three individuals was assembled. These individuals have all completed doctoral-level research courses. Additionally, the individuals had experience enabling them to identify, review, and assess the interview questions in order to indicate that the responses would draw the requisite data needed to address the research questions. A copy of the expert panel form may be found in APPENDIX C.

Reliability. Creswell (2013) defines reliability as the researcher's method to remain steady and consistent. Patton (1987) also suggested that another individual analyze and review the interview transcripts and provide explanations and viewpoints on the responses. The process of interreviewer reliability (Hyatt, 2012) was used in this study. The primary researcher and an additional reviewer compared and contrasted coding responses and key findings for any

regularities and agreed-upon themes and patterns as well as inconsistencies. To heighten the level of accuracy in the study, Hyatt's 15-step inter-reviewer process was applied as follows:

1. The primary researcher analyzes the transcripts using bracketing for reduction, horizontalization, and synthesis for textual description and conclusions.

2. The primary researcher meets with the reviewer(s) to review the coding process for identifying themes.

3. The primary researcher selects a transcript for the purpose of familiarizing the reviewer(s) [with] the coding process.

4. The researcher maintains the highlighted and analyzed version of the transcript.

5. The reviewer(s) is provided with a clean copy of the selected transcript.

6. Prior to analysis, the researcher and reviewer(s) will each read a transcript three times. The purpose of the initial reading is to merely familiarize the reviewer(s) with the data from the transcripts.

7. The purpose of the second reading is to further the reviewer(s) consideration of the information and to answer any questions about the transcript.

8. The purpose of the third reading is to analyze the data by bracketing for reduction, horizontalization, and synthesis of the text for structural descriptions and conclusions.

9. The researcher assists the reviewer(s) in completing the analysis of one selected transcript.

10. Meaning units are entered in the left margin. Structural descriptions and conclusions are entered into the right margin. This completes analysis of the transcript.

11. The additional reviewer(s) applies the same process to the remaining transcripts independent of the primary researcher. If there are multiple reviewers, each works independently.

12. After completion of the process for all transcripts, the primary researcher and reviewer(s) reconvene. The primary researcher and the reviewer(s) review their identified conclusions.

13. An analysis form may be used to identify the agreed-upon themes and help to discover any areas of disagreement.

14. The primary researcher and reviewer(s) discuss similarities and differences, and come to a consensus on the conclusions. A categorizing form may be created to identify overall themes.

15. Generally, criteria for themes are met when a minimum of 60% of participants provide supportive data for the theme(s).

The aforementioned process provided a supplementary perspective, thus, heightening the probability of reliability of the interpretation of the themes and patterns related with the responses provided by the research participants. This process advanced shared themes, identified by a minimum of 60% of the research participants. Furthermore, themes were then categorized, engendering consistency and reliability in the study (Creswell, 2013).

Research Findings

Research question 1 and corresponding interview question. Research Question 1 asked: How does intelligence contribute to successful election of women in California? The corresponding interview question asked: Describe how intelligence contributed to your successful election?

The key theme distinguished by a minimum of 60% of the research participants arose as follows: (1a) It's important to be knowledgeable and smart. Table 1 depicts research participant responses that classified the chief theme.

Table 1

Concluding Research Participants' Reponses That Identified the Key Themes for Research Question 1

Theme	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7	P8	P9	P10
1a. It's important to be knowledgeable and smart.	X		X			X	X		X	X

Theme 1a: It's important to be knowledgeable and smart. This theme arose in six of the 10 research participant responses (60%).

The respective quotes from the data expose the theme:

Intelligence is important. However, I don't think of being elected in terms of being smart. It is more so about experience. It obviously is helpful to read, but I do not think you need to be a genius; it is more about commitment to the work. (P1, personal communication, May 15, 2016)

However, there are different ways to define intelligence. For instance, having knowledge of the dynamics of running a race and understanding the landscape of the field. With that, being smart contributed to my election and campaign. (P3, personal communication, May 18, 2016)

For me personally, I knew a lot about the community college system. I also teach a political science class, so I had a lot of political knowledge. What I did not have in money, I had to have in knowledge. I had to be able to navigate the system and navigate politically. (P6, personal communication, May 20, 2016)

But I do not think of intelligence as substantive knowledge but rather, it is how you apply your skills. Intelligence is not about your IQ, but how you take all of the tools

you have developed in your discipline and apply those tools and skills to other areas.

Intelligence is about being critical, analytical and being aware. (P7, personal

communication, May 25, 2016)

When you are running for office, most of the people you meet who will vote for

you or endorse you will ask two questions. Is she smart and knowledgeable? And can she

win? You have to be versed, a good listener, and well read on a number of topics that will

become a part of your work. (P9, May 26, 2016)

This is interesting because this is a question women ask themselves more than

men. In my 12 years of office, women are harder on themselves than men. We ask

ourselves, do we have what it takes? Are we smart enough? Do we have the knowledge?

These are questions I ask myself all the time when I am debating. I do not think that this

is a process that my male counterparts go through. Women put this pressure on

themselves that men don't. (P10, personal communication, May 27, 2016)

Research Question 2 and Corresponding Interview Question

Research Question 2 asked: How does self-confidence contribute to successful election of

women in California? The corresponding interview question asked: Describe how self-

confidence contributed to your successful election?

The key theme distinguished by a minimum of 60% of the research participants arose as

follows: (2a) overcoming challenges, self-doubt and belief. Table 2 depicts research participant

responses that classified the chief theme.

Table 2

*Concluding Research Participants' Reponses That Identified the Key Themes for Research
Question 2*

Theme	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7	P8	P9	P10
2a. Overcoming challenges, self- doubt and belief.	X	X	X	X		X		X		

Theme 2a: Overcoming challenges, self-doubt, and belief. This theme arose in six of the 10 research participant responses (60%).

The respective quotes from the data expose the theme:

Self-confidence is everything, as a woman seeking to become an elected official. This is a really big issue for women. Women second guess and doubt themselves often. So if you are not self-confident, you better at least know how to pretend to be. (P1, personal communication, May 15, 2016)

Self-confidence is critical. As an elected official you are a target of your opponent. People oppose you for various reasons such as being a woman, being Black or whatever it is that they do not like about you. You are truly a target to agnostic people. Therefore, you really have to be strong to sway away from the attacks of those people who do not support you. People elect people who they feel can navigate through challenges. (P2, personal communication, May 18, 2016)

Self-confidence contributed to an extent. There can always be self-doubt. But you have to fake it until you make it. Meaning, you have to have the ability to push through the doubt. More importantly, doubt can play a positive role; as it pushes you to dig deeper within yourself. Winning an election is about strength. (P3, personal communication, May 18, 2016)

I had to believe in myself so that my constituents could see what I believed (P4, personal communication, May 20, 2016)

You have to believe in yourself when no one else does….I actually lost my prior election, with helped me become more self-confident for the second race. (P6, personal communication, May 20, 2016)

Self-confidence is at the core of what each of us set out to do. Confidence comes

from going through challenges. Confidence is about knowing that you can overcome

things. When I think about the challenges, issues, and problems that I have overcome, it

means that I can accomplish my goals. (P8, personal communication, May 25, 2016)

Research Question 3 and Corresponding Interview Question

Research Question 3 asked: How does determination contribute to successful election of

women in California? The corresponding interview question asked: Describe how determination

contributed to your successful election?

The key theme distinguished by a minimum of 60% of the research participants arose as

follows: (3a) determination is key. Table 3 depicts research participant responses that classified

the chief theme.

Table 3

*Concluding Research Participants' Reponses That Identified the Key Themes for Research
Question 3*

Theme	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7	P8	P9	P10
3a. Determination is key.	X	X	X	X			X	X		

Theme 3a: Determination is key. This theme arose in six of the 10 research participant

responses (60%).

The respective quotes from the data expose the theme:

"Another phrase for determination is whether or not you have "the fire in the belly". As a

woman, you have to whole heartedly want to become an elected official." (P1, personal

communication, May 15, 2016)

A person who wants to become an elected official must be willing to put him or

herself out there, and ask people for money. Along with that, you are running for an idea

that you believe in, so you must have the drive and determination to campaign. (P2,

personal communication, May 18, 2016)

Determination is key. There is only one person on the ballot. Your character and integrity is all on the line, so ultimately it is on you. You cannot depend on others, so you have to be determined, or otherwise you will come in second place at the very least. (P3, personal communication, May 18, 2016)

My determination was to win. I had to plan and map out my campaign. I had to be determined to push people to vote. Civic engagement was my motivation. The best prize for me was winning. (P4, personal communication, May 20, 2016)

Determination starts from before you are elected. You must be a determined and a persistent person. It just does not happen during the campaign. You have to have the vision; you have to know who will support you. Every person who is elected is determined. (P7, personal communication, May 21, 2016)

You have to have the ability to look at what you accomplished and have the focus and determination to reach your goals. (P8, personal communication, May 25, 2016)

Research Question 4 and Corresponding Interview Question

Research Question 4 asked: How does integrity contribute to successful election of women in California? The corresponding interview question asked: Describe how integrity contributed to your successful election?

The key theme distinguished by a minimum of 60% of the research participants arose as follows: (4a) integrity as a value. Table 4 depicts research participant responses that classified the chief theme.

Table 4

Concluding Research Participants' Reponses That Identified the Key Themes for Research Question 4

Theme	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7	P8	P9	P10
4a. Integrity as a value.	X	X	X				X	X	X	

Theme 4: Integrity as a value. This theme arose in six of the 10 research participant responses (60%).

The respective quotes from the data expose the theme:

Integrity is the most important word in my vocabulary and value that I hold as an individual. (P1, personal communication, May 15, 2016)

Integrity for me is the absolute pillar upon which I stand. I take my oath to office very seriously. (P2, personal communication, May 18, 2016)

I value the word integrity. I am a woman of my word. (P3, personal communication, May 18, 2016)

Integrity is one of the most important traits as an elected official. My morals and values are everything. Whatever decision I make, I want to make it the right way. All of my decisions need to be aligned to my values. (P7, personal communication, May 21, 2016)

Integrity suggests to me that we have a set of core values. You have to stay true to yourself and others. Everybody will not agree with you. Integrity has to do with how one leads from their value-based core. These values include honesty, respect, and staying true to your word. (P8, personal communication, May 25, 2016)

If you want longevity in office, you need to be a person of integrity. (P9, personal communication, May 26, 2016)

Research Question 5 and Corresponding Interview Question

Research Question 5 asked, "How does sociability contribute to successful election of women in California?" The corresponding interview question asked, "Describe how sociability

contributed to your successful election?"

The key theme distinguished by a minimum of 60% of the research participants arose as follows: (5a) relating (relationship) to others, approachability and connecting to people. Table 5 depicts research participant responses that classified the chief theme.

Table 5

Concluding Research Participants' Reponses That Identified the Key Themes for Research Question 5

Theme	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7	P8	P9	P10
5a. Relating (relationships) to others, approachability and connecting to people	X	X	X	X					X	X

Theme 5: Relating (relationships) to others, approachability, and connecting to people. This theme arose in 6 of the 10 research participant responses (60%).

The respective quotes from the data expose the theme:

Sociability is the ability to relate to others. This is at the core of becoming a politician. (P1, personal communication, May 15, 2016)

My ability to be social made me think that I could be a good policy maker. Additionally, it was my ability to review data, hear stories, and personalize them. This allows me to relate to all walks of life. (P2, personal communication, May 18, 2016)

I am not by nature a social person. But being an elected official is about relationships. You have to have the desire to connect with people along with the willingness and persistence to get the work done. (P3, personal communication, May 18, 2016)

I believe sociability is important, but it is not necessarily what older politicians think it is. You just need to be able to connect to people. That is how you excel. (P4, personal communication, May 20, 2016)

To be elected, people have to like you, you have to be approachable, and people need to have something in common with you. People don't think sociability is important, but it is. You need to be able to appeal to a wide base. (P9, personal communication, May 26, 2016)

You have to live in a district and be able to relate to the average person. In the primary election that I lost in 2013, I did not do well with that. There were no stories told about my daughter, my stance on the environment. The reason I won was because I hired someone who was able to tell my story.…People need to be able to relate to the issues at the park, crime or the environmental issues in our neighborhood.…I remember a woman calling me and telling me she connected to my story. (P10, personal communication, May 27, 2016)

Summary

The data for this study were procured utilizing semi-structured, interview questions via phone and face-to-face dialogue. Each research participant was given an individual alphanumeric identifier to ensure the confidentiality of the elected official. Research participants were given the chance to review and modify their responses. The inter-reviewer method encompassed an analysis of the data by a second rater to maximize reliability. A primary theme surfaced, so long as it was found in at least 60% of research participants' responses. It was interesting to note that a few participant responses did not emerge as part of the major themes. While this is not unusual, it would be interesting to research if culture or philosophy played role in this.

Chapter 5: Findings and Conclusions

This narrative study focused on discovering prominent leadership traits among women that would contribute to a successful election on the local, state, and federal levels in the state of California. While research exists regarding women's participation in government in the United States, how the longevity of the gender disparity has increased in government, and why women are not being elected at nearly the same rate as men (Goldberg, 2012; Scola, 2013), there is scant research and literature examining the traits that contribute to their successful election. The conceptual framework for this study included Northouse's (2013) five leadership traits: intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability.

Chapter Structure

Chapter 5 begins with a summary of the study, including the problem and a summation of the conceptual framework. Restatements of the purpose along with the research questions are provided. Additionally, Chapter 5 includes a synopsis of the methods utilized in this study. A description of the findings and results is conferred. Additionally, implications along with recommendations for further research are presented for the study. Chapter 5 culminates with a summary.

Overview of the Study

Review of the problem. Women's participation in all levels of government ought to be decorated in literary works and research as a result of the improved rate at which women are elected in the United States. Women constitute much of the electorate, continue to vote at higher rates than men, and have the capabilities to fundraise similarly to men (Goldberg, 2012; Ziegler, 2015). Yet, the United States ranks 98th in the world as it relates to women's participation in politics (Hill, 2014). Moreover, California ranks 19th as it relates to women's representation in

government throughout the United States. The problem is that gender equality in decision making and leadership at all levels of government is a necessary prerequisite to the suitable performance of a democracy (Sharma, 2012). Therefore, the gender disparity in government presents a great concern.

Conceptual framework synthesis. The conceptual framework for this study was informed by the exhaustive literature review and based on Northouse's (2013) five leadership traits: intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability. Many authors have researched trait theory, gender, and leadership and women in government. Table 6 synthesized the theorists and the aforementioned trait theories in Table 6.

Table 6

Table 6 Synthesis of Theorist for Conceptual Framework

Intelligence	Self-Confidence	Determination	Integrity	Sociability
Jenkins (1947) Stogdill (1948) Mann (1959) Lord, Foti, & DeVader (1984) Bass & Avolio, (1990) Kirkpatrick & Locke (1991) Herrnstein & Murray (1994) Simonton (1995) Gottfredson (1997) Goleman (1998) Schmidt & Hunter (2000) Hetzel & Barr (2000)	House (1977) McClellan (1985) Bennis & Nanus (1985) Conger & Kanungo (1987) Bass & Avolio(1990) Kirkpatrick & Locke (1991) Shamir et al. (1993) Daft (1994) Kolb (1999) Hollenbeck & Hall (2004) DeCremer & Knippenberg (2004)	Langer & Rodin (1976) Amabile (1983) Benware & Deci (1984) Deci, Schwartz, Sheinman, & Ryan (1981) M. Ward (1988) Kirkpatrick & Locke (1991) Weymeyer (1992) Field & Hoffman (1994) Powers, Singer, & Sowers (1996) Seibert & Kramer (2001)	Kuhnert & Lewis (1987) Kirkpatrick & Locke (1991) Morgan (1993) Bloskie (1995) Ciulla (1995) Rieke & Guastello (1995) Kanungo & Mendonca (1996) Craig & Gustafason (1998) Simons (1999) Petrick & Quinn (2000) Yukl (2001)	House & Howell (1992) Hogan, Curphy, & Hogan (1994) Watson & Clark (1997) Bass (1998) Judge & Bono (2000) Northouse (2013)

Intelligence	Self-Confidence	Determination	Integrity	Sociability
Judge, Colbert & Illies (2004)	Schwarder (2004) Weiss (2004) Jennings (2009) Goel & Aggarwal (2012) Kukulu, Korucku, Ozdemir, Bezci & Calik (2013) Northouse (2013) Suwandi	Tombari & Litchenstein (2010) Northouse (2013)	Sampord & Berry (2004) Shacklock & Lewis (2007) J. Thomas (2008) Northouse (2013)	

Restatement of purpose and research questions. The purpose of this study is to identify prominent leadership traits that contributed to women's successful election in California. Moreover, this qualitative study discovered how intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability contribute to the successful election of women in California. A thorough review of the literature identified Northouse's (2013) five leadership traits— intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability—as the conceptual framework for this study and provided the basis for the research questions:

1. How does intelligence contribute to successful election of women in California?

2. How does self-confidence contribute to successful election of women in California?

3. How does determination contribute to successful election of women in California?

4. How does integrity contribute to successful election of women in California?

5. How does sociability contribute to successful election of women in California?

Methods

Data collection. The semistructured interview instrument was used to glean data from 10 women elected officials and to inform the research questions. Data were procured via phone and

face-to-face interviews, which were individually scheduled and conducted with each research participant. The primary researcher jotted down thorough notes of the interviews and reviewed the transcripts from the handwritten notes with each research participant to ensure accuracy in their responses. To maintain confidentiality, all identifying information was extracted and each research participant was given an alphanumeric identifier. The primary researcher divulged the process through the informed consent form.

Data analysis. As recommended by Creswell (2013), to ensure accuracy, research participants were given the opportunity to review their individual responses for substantiation. Research participants reviewed their own responses. These participants' responses denoted the data for the coding process.

Coding. Responses to the interview questions were analyzed multiple times to increase comprehension of the data. Shared words and themes that emerged were highlighted. Bracketing was utilized to identify topics and patterns (Creswell, 2013). All transcripts from the semistructured interviews were reviewed; the data was coded, compared, and contrasted to the components of the conceptual framework. To improve consistency, Hyatt's (2012) 15-step interreviewer process was employed. The steps are as follows:

1. The primary researcher analyzes the transcripts using bracketing for reduction, horizontalization, and synthesis for textual description and conclusions.

2. The primary researcher meets with the reviewer(s) to review the coding process for identifying themes.

3. The primary researcher selects a transcript for the purpose of familiarizing the reviewer(s) [with] the coding process.

4. The researcher maintains the highlighted and analyzed version of the transcript.

5. The reviewer(s) is provided with a clean copy of the selected transcript.

6. Prior to analysis, the researcher and reviewer(s) will each read a transcript three times. The purpose of the initial reading is to merely familiarize the reviewer(s) with the data from the transcripts.

7. The purpose of the second reading is to further the reviewer(s) consideration of the information and to answer any questions about the transcript.

8. The purpose of the third reading is to analyze the data by bracketing for reduction, horizontalization, and synthesis of the text for structural descriptions and conclusions.

9. The researcher assists the reviewer(s) in completing the analysis of one selected transcript.

10. Meaning units are entered in the left margin. Structural descriptions and conclusions are entered into the right margin. This completes analysis of the transcript.

11. The additional reviewer(s) applies the same process to the remaining transcripts independent of the primary researcher. If there are multiple reviewers, each works independently.

12. After completion of the process for all transcripts, the primary researcher and reviewer(s) reconvene. The primary researcher and the reviewer(s) review their identified conclusions.

13. An analysis form may be used to identify the agreed-upon themes and help to discover any areas of disagreement.

14. The primary researcher and reviewer(s) discuss similarities and differences, and come to a consensus on the conclusions. A categorizing form may be created to identify overall themes.

15. Criteria for major themes are met when a minimum of 60% of participants provide supportive data for the theme(s).

Hyatt's interreviewer method increased reliability of the data provided by each research participant. Shared themes noted by a minimum of 60% of the research participants were categorized as key themes and linked together.

Results and Conclusions

Findings for research question 1. Describe how intelligence contributed to your successful election? The key theme distinguished by a minimum of 60% of the research participants arose as follows: It's important to be knowledgeable and smart.

Theme 1: It's important to be knowledgeable and smart. This theme arose in six of the 10 research participant responses (60%). The following quotes from the data are examples that expose the theme:

However, there are different ways to define intelligence. For instance, having knowledge of the dynamics of running a race and understanding the landscape of the field. With that, being smart contributed to my election and campaign. (P3, personal communication, May 18, 2016)

When you are running for office, most of the people you meet who will vote for you or endorse you will ask two questions. Is she smart and knowledgeable? And can she win? You have to be versed, a good listener, and well read on a number of topics that will become a part of your work. (P9, personal communication, May 26, 2016)

For me personally, I knew a lot about the community college system. I also teach a political science class, so I had a lot of political knowledge. What I did not have in money, I had to have in knowledge. I had to be able to navigate the system and navigate politically. (P6, personal communication, May 20, 2016)

Researchers Jenkins (1947), Stogdill (1948), and Mann (1959) suggest that intelligence is an important leadership trait. Intelligence is scarcely associated with the rational difficulty essential for reaching the necessities of modern day life (Gottfredson, 1997). Furthermore, intelligence is the top predictor of job performance in multiple sectors (Ones et al., 2005). Moreover, personal differences in intelligence draw a equivalent with leadership and performance (Bass & Avolio, 1990; Simonton, 1995). Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) avowed that leaders ought to collect, assimilate, fuse, and understand massive amounts of data. The authors indicated that such demands are evident because of speedy technological change. Thus, leaders need to be intelligent in order to articulate suitable approaches and strategies, resolve issues, and make precise decisions.

Judge et al. (2004) proclaim that knowledge, as a trait, is extremely valuable in Western cultures. Nonaka, Toyama, and Konno (2000) provide that we live in a world where knowledge is the source of the highest quality of power. The democratic process gives power over legislation to govern local, state, and federal entities. Somin (2013) suggests that in order for a democracy to run effectively, the people who are governing need to possess political knowledge. In a study conducted on voter preferences, knowledge is the number one trait that a political figure ought to possess to be elected (Islamoglu, Alniacik, & Ozbek, 2002). Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) suggest that in order for a leader to be effective, he or she ought to have

knowledge of the industry. The authors also stated, "Although cognitive ability is needed to gain a thorough understanding of the business, formal education is not a requirement" (p. 56).

Findings for research question 2. Research Question 2 asked: How does self-confidence contribute to successful election of women in California? The corresponding interview question asked: Describe how self-confidence contributed to your successful election? The key theme distinguished by a minimum of 60% of the research participants arose as follows: overcoming challenges, self-doubt and belief.

Theme 2: Overcoming challenges, self-doubt, and belief. This theme arose in six of the 10 research participant responses (60%). The following are quotes from the data are examples that expose the theme:

Self-confidence is everything, as a woman seeking to become an elected official. This is a really big issue for women. Women second guess and doubt themselves often. So if you are not self-confident, you better at least know how to pretend to be. (P1, personal communication, May 15, 2016)

Self-confidence is critical. As an elected official you are a target of your opponent. People oppose you for various reasons such as being a woman, being Black or whatever it is that they do not like about you. You are truly a target to agnostic people. Therefore, you really have to be strong to sway away from the attacks of those people who do not support you. People elect people who they feel can navigate through challenges. (P2, personal communication, May 18, 2016)

You have to believe in yourself when no one else does.…I actually lost my prior election, which helped me become more self-confident for the second race. (P6, personal communication, May 20, 2016)

Kirkatrick and Locke (1991) stated, "Self-confidence is needed to withstand setbacks,

persevere through hard times, and lead others in new directions. Confidence gives effective

leaders the ability to make hard decisions and to stand by them" (p. 58). Kirkpatrick and Locke

also contend that leaders are better at overcoming obstacles than those who are not in leadership

positions. Furthermore, the authors suggest that an individual pierced with self-doubt would

never be able to take the requisite actions needed, nor command the respect of their subordinates.

Self-doubt is the act or state of doubting oneself, it is a "subjective sense of doubt or instability

in self-views" (Braslow, Guerrettaz, Arkin, & Oleson, 2012, p. 124). The authors also suggest

that people often experience challenges daily and have doubts about their ability and their

capacity to perform. Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) recommend that self-confidence plays a

viable role in leaders' decision-making process and in gaining others' trust. Thus, if the leader

does not make decisions with conviction or expresses a high degree of doubt, then the followers

are less likely to trust the leader and be dedicated to the leader's vision.

Findings for research question 3. Describe how determination contributed to your

successful election? The key theme distinguished by a minimum of 60% of the research

participants arose as follows: determination is key.

Theme 3: Determination is key. This theme arose in six of the 10 research participant

responses (60%). The respective quotes from the data are examples that expose the theme:

> A person who wants to become an elected official must be willing to put him or herself
>
> out there, and ask people for money. Along with that, you are running for an idea that you
>
> believe in, so you must have the drive and determination to campaign. (P2, personal
>
> communication, May 18, 2016)

Determination is key. There is only one person on the ballot. Your character and integrity is all on the line, so ultimately it is on you. You cannot depend on others, so you have to be determined, or otherwise you will come in second place at the very least. (P3, personal communication, May 18, 2016)

Determination starts from before you are elected. You must be a determined and a persistent person. It just does not happen during the campaign. You have to have the vision; you have to know who will support you. Every person who is elected is determined. (P7, personal communication, May 21, 2016)

Ward (1988) indicated that determination is the intrinsic trait that leaders obtain in order to realize the goals and objectives they have set for themselves. Weymeyer (1992) denoted determination as the ability to act on goals and tasks set without internal or external impacts dissuading decision making. Field and Hoffman (1994) propose that self-determination is a leader's capacity to outline and complete objectives based on the understanding concerning oneself. Powers, Singer and Sower (1996) state that self-determination refers to when a leader or an individual is inspired inherently to self-direct their own goals and objectives.

Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) utilize the word drive in place of determination. Kirkpatrick and Locke recommend that there are five components of drive, which include achievement motivation, ambition, energy, tenacity, and initiative. Northouse (2013) contends that an effective leader ought to be self-determined. The author suggests that determination includes traits such as initiative, persistence, dominance, and drive. Leaders who are determined and have drive can navigate through difficulties and challenges. Furthermore, leaders who are determined, dominate in situations when followers need to be led. Self-determination is a valued

trait of effective leaders (Tombari & Litchenstein, 2010). The authors assert that when leaders are determined, they are typically describing an individual with persistence and willpower.

Findings for research question 4. Describe how integrity contributed to your successful election? The key theme distinguished by a minimum of 60% of the research participants arose as follows: (4) integrity as a value.

Theme 4: Integrity as a value. This theme arose in six of the 10 research participant responses (60%). The respective quotes from the data are examples that expose the theme:

Integrity is the most important word in my vocabulary and value that I hold as an individual. (P1, personal communication, May 15, 2016)

Integrity for me is the absolute pillar upon which I stand. I take my oath to office very seriously. (P2, personal communication, May 18, 2016)

I value the word integrity. I am a woman of my word. (P3, personal communication, May 18, 2016)

Kuhnert and Lewis (1987) suggest that a leader who employs values such as integrity, honor, and justice, has the capacity to transform his or her subordinates. Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) contend that integrity is a value in all people, but integrity has an important meaning for leaders. The authors also stated, "Honesty and integrity are virtues in all individuals, but have special significance for leaders. Without these qualities, leadership is undermined" (p. 53). Moreover, Kirkpatrick and Locke assert that with the lack of integrity, leadership can be reduced. Thus, integrity shapes the foundation of a trusting relationship between a leader and his or her subordinates.

J. Thomas (2008) posits that ethical leadership relates to a leader having personal integrity. Yukl (2001) recommends that in many cultures, integrity is one of the most viable

traits of a leader. Bloskie (1995) and Simons (1999) believe that integrity is when an individual's beliefs are aligned with his or her actions. Sampord and Berry (2004) assert that integrity requires a leader to question the principles and values about his or her subordinates.

Findings for research question 5. Describe how sociability contributed to your successful election? The key theme distinguished by a minimum of 60% of the research participants arose as follows: relating (relationship) to others, approachability and connecting to people.

Theme 5: Relating (relationships) to others, approachability, and connecting to people. This theme arose in six of the 10 research participant responses (60%). The respective quotes are examples from the data that expose the theme:

Sociability is the ability to relate to others. This is at the core of becoming a politician. (P1, personal communication, May 15, 2016)

I believe sociability is important, but it is not necessarily what older politicians think it is. You just need to be able to connect to people. That is how you excel. (P4, personal communication, May 20, 2016)

To be elected, people have to like you, you have to be approachable and people need to have something in common with you. People don't think sociability is important, but it is. You need to be able to appeal to a wide base. (P9, personal communication, May 26, 2016)

House and Howell (1992) contend that leaders who succeed are more inclined to be social. Social leaders are not frightened to start dialogue in social settings and tend to use humor to nurture their relationships. Northouse (2013) defines sociability as a leader's ability to hunt sociable relationships. Thus, Northouse suggests that sociability is a trait that effective leaders

employ. Social leaders are often approachable, outward, adroit, diplomatic, and well-mannered. Northouse also stated that sociability is a trait a successful leader ought to exhibit. Finally, Northouse (2013) suggests that social leaders are more likely to have the skill-set to network. Thus, one may argue that networking is a concept that may be included in the framework of sociability.

Overview of the Results

This study identified prominent leadership traits that contributed to women's successful election in California. Moreover**,** this qualitative study discovered how intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability contribute to the successful election of women in California. Northouse's (2013) trait theory was utilized as the conceptual framework for this study. Ten women elected officials from the local, state, and federal levels in California were asked to describe how intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability contributed to their successful election.

This research study resulted in five major themes that contributed to the successful election of women in California: (a) it's important to be knowledgeable and smart; (b) overcoming challenges, self-doubt, and belief; (c) determination is key; (d) integrity as a value; and (e) relating (relationships) to others, approachability, and connecting to people. These five themes are relative to becoming successfully elected through the conceptual framework of this research study: intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability (Northouse, 2013). The resultant contributing themes to the successful election of women elected officials in California are presented in Table 7.

Table 7

Contributing Factors to Successful Election of Women Elected Officials in California Aligned With the Conceptual Framework: Intelligence, Self-Confidence, Determination, Integrity, and Sociability

Intelligence	Self-Confidence	Determination	Integrity	Sociability
It's important to be knowledgeable and smart.	Overcoming challenges, self-doubt and belief.	Determination is key.	Integrity as a value.	Relating (relationship) to others, approachability and connecting to people.

Implications of the Study

This research study was designed to identify traits that contributed to the successful election of women in California. Because of the scant research relating to traits that are important for women to become elected officials, the responses procured from women elected officials on the local, state, and federal level in California afforded valuable information to the field of study. The research findings revealed important leadership traits that women attributed to their election. Data gleaned from this study could be utilized to help women who aspire to become elected officials. The findings for this study suggest implications for the discipline of women in politics, policy makers, and women who seek elected office.

Women in public policy. According to Carroll (2004), women's participation in government has increased substantially since the 1920s in the United States. However, women have yet to reach parity in government. As it relates to California, women make up more than 50% of the population, but only 26% of the state legislature. Moreover, California ranks 19th in women's representation in government throughout the United States. With that, the findings of this research study contribute to the body of literature associated with the field of government, but more specifically to the field of women's participation in politics.

The traits identified in this study could be significant for scholars who conduct research related to women's participation in politics and trait leadership theories. Moreover, scholars may utilize this study as a composite for research on the aforementioned topics. Additionally, scholars may use the traits identified in this study to research samples of women who have sought to and become elected officials.

The traits that were revealed in this research study could be significant for policy makers, political parties, and think tanks. Policy makers, political parties, and think tanks may utilize this research study to examine the current landscape of women's participation in government in the United States and in the state of California. Moreover, political parties and think tanks will be able to utilize this research to help inform women who aspire to become elected officials of what requisite leadership traits are needed to be elected.

Women who seek elected office. In addition to this study being relevant for scholars and policy makers, this study is relevant for women who seek to become an elected official. This research study contributes to the literature on the current landscape of elected women officials in the United States government. Moreover, this study may serve as an outline for women who may be interested in attaining leadership positions in government, or becoming an elected official.

One could recommend that overt discrimination against women in government may act as a deterrent to pursuing a position in government. This study affords information for women who aspire to hold elected seats in all levels of the United States government. Last, the findings in this study serve as a framework for universities and institutions informing women leaders who aspire to become an elected official.

Recommendations for Further Research

A thorough review of the literature identified the conceptual framework utilized for this study to identify traits that contributed to the successful election of women in California at the local, state, and federal levels. The research revealed five common traits that women attribute to their successful election. This study was specific to the state of California. Further research could compare the traits women attribute to their successful election to other states. Another possible study would be to compare the traits women attribute to their successful election based on varying levels of government. A quantitative research approach using surveys could produce additional findings.

Summary

Chapter 5 exhibited the conclusions and findings connected to this research study designed to identify prominent leadership traits that contributed to women's successful election in California. The final chapter began with an overview of the study, a conceptual framework synthesis, a summation of the data collection process, and a synopsis of the data analysis procedures.

The findings and conclusions of the research study and the literature review were compared to the conceptual framework found in the literature review, and the data collected provided consistent themes linked to traits that women attributed to their successful election. The major themes were identified as: (a) it's important to be knowledgeable and smart; (b) overcoming challenges, self-doubt, and belief; (c) determination is key; (d) integrity as a value; and (e) relating (relationships) to others, approachability, and connecting to people.

Implications for the field of government and women's participation in politics were presented. This study contributes to the body of literature related to government, but more

specifically, to women in politics. Implications for scholars, policy makers, and women who seek to become elected officials were presented. Additionally, recommendations for future research regarding traits that women attribute to their election were exhibited.

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APPENDIX A

Coursework Requirements

COLLABORATIVE INSTITUTIONAL TRAINING INITIATIVE (CITI PROGRAM)
COURSEWORK REQUIREMENTS REPORT*

* NOTE: Scores on this Requirements Report reflect quiz completions at the time all requirements for the course were met. See list below for details.
See separate Transcript Report for more recent quiz scores, including those on optional (supplemental) course elements.

- **Name:** Diandra Bremond (ID: 5428771)
- **Email:**
- **Institution Affiliation:** Pepperdine University
- **Institution Unit:** GSEP

- **Curriculum Group:** Graduate & Professional Schools HSR
- **Course Learner Group:** Graduate & Professional Schools - Psychology Division Human Subjects Training
- **Stage:** Stage 1 – Basic Course
- **Description:** Choose this group to satisfy CITI training requirements for Investigators and staff involved primarily in Social/Behavioral Research with human subjects.

- **Report ID:** 18865984
- **Completion Date:** 02/28/2016
- **Expiration Date:** 02/27/2019
- **Minimum Passing:** 80
- **Reported Score*:** 88

REQUIRED AND ELECTIVE MODULES ONLY	DATE COMPLETED	SCORE
Belmont Report and CITI Course Introduction (ID: 1127)	02/28/16	3/3 (100%)
History and Ethical Principles - SBE (ID: 490)	02/28/16	5/5 (100%)
Defining Research with Human Subjects - SBE (ID: 491)	02/28/16	4/5 (80%)
The Federal Regulations - SBE (ID: 502)	02/28/16	5/5 (100%)
Assessing Risk - SBE (ID: 503)	02/28/16	4/5 (80%)
Informed Consent - SBE (ID: 504)	02/28/16	4/5 (80%)
Privacy and Confidentiality - SBE (ID: 505)	02/28/16	5/5 (100%)
Conflicts of Interest in Research Involving Human Subjects (ID: 488)	02/28/16	5/5 (100%)
Cultural Competence in Research (ID: 15166)	02/28/16	3/5 (60%)

For this Report to be valid, the learner identified above must have had a valid affiliation with the CITI Program subscribing institution identified above or have been a paid Independent Learner.

CITI Program
Email: citisupport@miami.edu
Phone: 305-243-7970
Web: https://www.citiprogram.org

APPENDIX B

Participant Consent Form

PEPPERDINE UNIVERSITY

Graduate School of Education and Psychology

INFORMED CONSENT FOR PARTICIPATION IN RESEARCH ACTIVITIES

When women win: Prominent Leadership Traits that Contributed to the Successful Election of Women in California

You are invited to participate in a research study conducted by **Diandra Bremond, MPP and Dr. Laura Hyatt, faculty advisor** at Pepperdine University, because you are **a woman elected official in the State of California.** Your participation is voluntary. You should read the information below, and ask questions about anything that you do not understand, before deciding whether to participate. Please take as much time as you need to read the consent form. You may also decide to discuss participation with your family or friends. You will also be given a copy of this form for you records.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this qualitative study is to identify prominent leadership traits that contributed to the successful election of women in California. Moreover**,** this qualitative study intends to discover how, intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability contribute to the successful election of women in California.

STUDY PROCEDURES

Once you agree to participate in this study you will be asked to do the following:

1. Participate in a 30-minute interview to identify prominent leadership traits that contributed to a successful election for public office in California. I will take notes during the interview. The following are the interview questions:
    1) Describe how intelligence contributed to your successful election?
    2) Describe how self-confidence contributed to your successful election?
    3) Describe how determination contributed to your successful election?
    4) Describe how integrity contributed to your successful election?
    5) Describe how sociability contributed to your successful election?

2. The interview will take place either at your office or by phone and is expected to be 30 minutes in duration. A 30-minute follow-up call may occur if further information or clarification is needed.

3. You will be given an opportunity to review the written transcript of their interview to verify their responses and or provide additional comments.

4. You will be provided an electronic copy of the summary of findings once the study is completed.

POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

The potential and foreseeable risks associated with participation in this study are no more than one would experience normal everyday life. There is always a risk related to potential breach of confidentiality. Thus, to mitigate a potential breach of confidentiality, you will be assigned an alpha-numeric code. Participants may opt out of study at any time without any repercussions. Your participation in the study will have no bearing your employment.

POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO PARTICIPANTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY

There are no direct benefits to the participants. However, information provided by the participants will inform the field of leadership. The results generated from this study will assist others who are interested in being elected to public office.

CONFIDENTIALITY

I will keep your records for this study *confidential* as far as permitted by law. However, if I am required to do so by law, I may be required to disclose information collected about you. Examples of the types of issues that would require me to break confidentiality are if you tell me about instances of child abuse and elder abuse. Pepperdine's University's Human Subjects Protection Program (HSPP) may also access the data collected. The HSPP occasionally reviews and monitors research studies to protect the rights and welfare of research subjects.

All data stored on hard drive will be password protected and be in a locked cabinet in a locked office of the home of the principal researcher (Diandra Bremond). All interview content will also be transcribed solely by the principal researcher. In addition, all of the collected data, including interview notes, and transcriptions, will be stored in a locked cabinet in a locked office in the principal researcher's home for three years and, thereafter, will be destroyed.

PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

Your participation is completely voluntary. Your refusal to participate will involve no penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study.

ALTERNATIVES TO FULL PARTICIPATION

Your alternative is to not participate in this study.

EMERGENCY CARE AND COMPENSATION FOR INJURY

If you are injured as a direct result of research procedures you will receive medical treatment; however, you or your insurance will be responsible for the cost. Pepperdine University does not provide any monetary compensation for injury.

INVESTIGATOR'S CONTACT INFORMATION

I understand that the investigator is willing to answer any inquiries I may have concerning the research herein described. I understand that I may contact ***Diandra Bremond*** *if* I have any other questions or concerns about this research.

RIGHTS OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANT – IRB CONTACT INFORMATION

If you have questions, concerns or complaints about your rights as a research participant or research in general please contact Dr. Judy Ho*,* Chairperson of the Graduate & Professional Schools Institutional Review Board at Pepperdine University 6100 Center Drive Suite 500 Los Angeles, CA 90045, 310-568-5753 or gpsirb@pepperdine.edu

APPENDIX C

Expert Panel Review Form

Please circle the appropriate number in the rating scale for each item: (1)Relevant, (2) Not Relevant, (3) Needs Modification.

Research Question	Interview Question(s)	Rating 1. Relevant 2. Not Relevant 3. Needs Modification
How does intelligence contribute to successful election of women in California?	Describe how intelligence contributed to your successful election?	1. 2. 3. Modify as follows:
How does self-confidence contribute to successful election of women in California?	Describe how self-confidence contributed to your successful election?	1. 2. 3. Modify as follows:
How does determination contribute to successful election of women in California?	Describe how determination contributed to your successful election?	1. 2. 3. Modify as follows:
How does integrity contribute to successful election of women in California?	Describe how integrity contributed to your successful election?	1. 2. 3. Modify as follows:
How does sociability contribute to successful election of women in California?	Describe how sociability contributed to your successful election?	1. 2. 3. Modify as follows:

APPENDIX D

Interview Protocol

Interview Protocol Project: Prominent Leadership Traits That Contributed To The Successful
Election Of Women in California
Time of Interview:
Date:
Position of Interviewee:

1. **Introductory Comments**

    a. Thank interviewee for their participation in the interview process

    b. Review consent form (confidentiality, confirm participation is voluntary)

    c. Explain interview process, including recording and note-taking

    d. Ask for questions

2. **Purpose of the Study.** The purpose of this qualitative study is to identify prominent

    leadership traits contributed to the successful election of women in California.

3. **Questions:**

    a. Describe how intelligence contributed to your successful election?
    b. Describe how self-confidence contributed to your successful election?
    c. Describe how determination contributed to your successful election?
    d. Describe how integrity contributed to your successful election?
    e. Describe how sociability contributed to your successful election?

4. **Closing Comments**
    a. Thank the interviewee for participating in the interview process
    b. Review the process that will be used to verify the transcription.
    c. Ask for questions

APPENDIX E

Expert Review Panel Letter

Name
Title of Organization
Address

Dear Expert,

Thank you for agreeing to participate on a panel of experts validating the interview questions that I will be using in my dissertation. The purpose of this validation is to certify that the interview questions suitably connect the research questions of the research study and will allow me to collect data to address the purpose of the study.

The purpose of this qualitative study is to identify prominent leadership traits contributed to the successful election of women in California. This study will examine how, intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability contributes to the successful election of women in California. These leadership traits will be explored through interviews with women elected officials in local, state, and federal government positions in the state of California. For the purposes of this study, elected officials will be defined as any person who has been voted into a government seat on the local, state, and federal levels by citizens of the United States.

Based on your expertise, I am requesting that you assess the interview questions for intelligibility and for significance to the research questions. Enclosed, you will find an evaluation review form to assess the questions. Next to each of the questions is a rating scale where you will rate the questions according to the extent of relevance to the research questions. A rating of "1" means that the question is "relevant" to the research question identified a rating of "2" means that the question is "not relevant" to the research question identified and should be deleted, and a rating of "3" indicates the question "needs modification." Additionally, a space is provided for suggested modifications. Furthermore, additional space is also provided on the review form for any overall comments or suggestions.
I look forward to your review.

Sincerely,

APPENDIX F

Participation in Dissertation Study

Hello, my name is Diandra Bremond. I am a student at Pepperdine University working on my doctorate degree in Organizational Leadership. I am conducting a study entitled *When Women Win: Prominent Leadership Traits That Contributed To The Successful Election Of Women In California*. The purpose of this qualitative study is to identify prominent leadership traits that contributed to women's successful election in California. You have been identified as a woman elected official in the state of California.

Participation in this study includes a 30-minute interview. I would appreciate scheduling an individual meeting or phone interview with each individual participating in the study. If you agree to voluntarily participate in this study, you will be given a copy of the Informed Consent for your records though no signature will be collected. Information gathered from this study intends to discover how intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability contribute to the successful election of women in California. If you have any questions or would like to participate in the research, I can be reached via phone or email. You are welcome to contact me at any time.

Thank you for your consideration,
Diandra Bremond

APPENDIX G

Human Research Approval

PEPPERDINE

NOTICE OF APPROVAL FOR HUMAN RESEARCH

Date: May 04, 2016

Protocol Investigator Name: Diandra Bremond

Protocol #: 16-04-245

Project Title: When Women Win: Prominent Leadership Traits That Contributed to the Successful Election of Women in California

School: Graduate School of Education and Psychology

Dear Diandra Bremond:

Thank you for submitting your application for exempt review to Pepperdine University's Institutional Review Board (IRB). We appreciate the work you have done on your proposal. The IRB has reviewed your submitted IRB application and all ancillary materials. Upon review, the IRB has determined that the above entitled project meets the requirements for exemption under the federal regulations 45 CFR 46.101 that govern the protections of human subjects.

Your research must be conducted according to the proposal that was submitted to the IRB. If changes to the approved protocol occur, a revised protocol must be reviewed and approved by the IRB before implementation. For any proposed changes in your research protocol, please submit an amendment to the IRB. Since your study falls under exemption, there is no requirement for continuing IRB review of your project. Please be aware that changes to your protocol may prevent the research from qualifying for exemption from 45 CFR 46.101 and require submission of a new IRB application or other materials to the IRB.

A goal of the IRB is to prevent negative occurrences during any research study. However, despite the best intent, unforeseen circumstances or events may arise during the research. If an unexpected situation or adverse event happens during your investigation, please notify the IRB as soon as possible. We will ask for a complete written explanation of the event and your written response. Other actions also may be required depending on the nature of the event. Details regarding the timeframe in which adverse events must be reported to the IRB and documenting the adverse event can be found in the *Pepperdine University Protection of Human Participants in Research: Policies and Procedures Manual* at community.pepperdine.edu/irb.

Please refer to the protocol number denoted above in all communication or correspondence related to your application and this approval. Should you have additional questions or require clarification of the contents of this letter, please contact the IRB Office. On behalf of the IRB, I wish you success in this scholarly pursuit.

Sincerely,

Judy Ho, Ph.D., IRB Chairperson

cc: Dr. Lee Kats, Vice Provost for Research and Strategic Initiatives