



Deliverable 1: Literature Review

Fostering Gender Equity at Work: Leveraging Leadership, Inclusion, and Self-Care Training

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November 30, 2020

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**Report prepared for:
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Executive Summary

Although we have known for some time that leadership behaviour can be taught and coached (Follett, 1927), how to teach leadership skills that *promote gender equity and inclusion* in the workplace is less clear. Moreover, how to protect the health of female leaders until we create equitable and inclusive workplaces is equally uncertain. Therefore, the purpose of this paper was threefold:

1. To investigate what leadership behaviours are most likely to support gender equity and inclusion in the workplace, by suggesting that we integrate the leadership training/development literature with gender equity and inclusion training literatures, and to examine how to measure these behaviours and their effects in the workplace.
2. To identify how best to train people in these behaviours, and who should be trained.
3. To investigate plausible means for protecting female leaders' health, both in the short- and long-terms.

Very little research has linked the leadership literature to the literature on gender diversity and inclusion, and currently no single model of leadership can be identified as superior in building capacity for workplace equity and inclusion; This simply has not typically been an outcome predicted in the leadership literature. However, some leadership behaviours that may foster positive outcomes in this regard are beginning to emerge from the budding literature on male allies as we will discuss shortly (e.g., Madsen et al., 2020). Leadership training that enables senior male (and possibly female) leaders to engage in ally behaviours could prove very effective in promoting gender equity and inclusion over and above basic leadership training/coaching.

We also reviewed the literature that is beginning to surface on how to mitigate backlash from such training. The issue of who to train is also important. In some cases, training homogenous groups in an organization may be appropriate (e.g., training female leaders in how to develop strong leader identities for the purposes of self-advocacy and/or training in self-care).

Our review suggests that several steps must be taken in order for this training/coaching to be effective:

1. In developing female leaders and creating inclusive workplaces, we should take a multidimensional approach to leadership development, targeting leaders, groups, and the overall organization.
2. Leaders can recognize, develop, and support ally behaviours (e.g., how to promote pay equity, support advancement, provide recognition, ensure fair workloads and opportunities for women, support developmental relationships, and challenge sexist behaviours).
3. Organizations can identify and train both male and female allies, sponsors, and mentors for female leaders.

4. Organizations should ensure that leaders have the appropriate skills and training to engage in these ally behaviours.
5. Training may incorporate work on reducing bias and stereotypes.
6. Organizations must ensure that the right people are being trained in the right way.
7. Sustainable change must ensure that any inclusion or diversity training (in addition to basic leadership training) does not create backlash from those currently in power (primarily male leaders).
8. Consider the content of the training in order to decide whether group vs. individual training is best, whether heterogenous vs. homogenous groups are more effective, and whether female leaders need to be trained, both female and male leaders, and/or the overall organization.
9. We can use training evaluation frameworks (e.g., Kirkpatrick, 1993) to examine the proximal and distal outcomes of training.

Training sponsors and mentors (often men by necessity) in how to support women in leadership roles may also benefit from homogeneous groups of like-minded individuals. However, in other cases, it will be necessary to train/coach heterogenous groups from the larger organizational community if we are to create a climate for gender equity and inclusion in our workplaces (e.g., training everyone in bias reduction and links between stereotypes and leadership selection and promotion).

There is much to be learned about measuring outcomes in this area because diversity and inclusion are not typical outcomes that are studied in the leadership literature. Furthermore, even with active intervention, changing the degree of female representation at all levels of management will take time, so proximal outcomes from training/coaching must also be sought (e.g., openness to gender equity and inclusion, efficacy in engaging in ally behaviours). It also may be important to consider more covert behavioural changes such as reductions in ‘selective incivility’ toward female leaders, as signs of moving toward workplace equity and inclusion.

Efforts to change the diversity of senior management in Canada have been ongoing for some time, and there are few ‘magic bullets’. However, until organizations are accountable for demonstrating such change, recent history demonstrates that it is unlikely to occur. Accountability for diversity and inclusion in senior management ranks is critical. For organizations desiring genuine change, this review offers some tangible steps that can support moving in this direction.

Project Background & Definitions

We have developed this literature review as part of Phase 1 for a larger project for Women and Gender Equality Canada / Government of Canada. This report addresses four of the Gender Equity areas:

1. Leadership and involvement of women in leadership roles
2. Education and skills development
3. Health and well-being of women
4. Examining interventions to promote gender equity in senior management and board of director positions

This literature review addresses these four areas by:

- a. Identifying workplace leadership behaviours and practices that directly promote gender equity and inclusion and support women in leadership roles.
- b. Exploring interventions/protocols at the individual and team levels that are designed to reduce discrimination and other barriers that limit effective involvement and development of female leaders.
- c. Finding ways to protect female leader's health in current workplaces.

Definitions of key terms based on the current literature:

- **Diversity** is an empirical question: It either exists or it does not. That is, are people of all types proportionally represented throughout all levels of the organization or not?
- **Gender Equity:** Having equal access and opportunities—including having equal opportunity to be represented at all levels of an organization—regardless of gender orientation¹ (Government of Canada, 2019b).
- **Health** is “a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity” (WHO Constitution, 1948, p. 1)
- **Inclusion:** Feeling welcomed, respected, and valued across all levels of the organization (Ryerson, 2017), and it includes having a genuine say in decision-making.
- **Inclusive Leadership** is defined as the openness, accessibility, and availability of a leader (Gotsis & Grimani, 2017) in order to remove “obstacles to the full participation and contribution of employees in organizations” (Roberson, 2006, p. 217).
- **Inclusive workplaces:** An inclusive workplace is one that “values and utilizes individual and intergroup differences within the workforce, cooperates with, and contributes to, its

¹ We recognize that not all workers define themselves in binary terms of ‘male/man’ and ‘female/woman’. However, most of the research in this area uses this terminology, and as such, we use these terms (and where available, discuss research on non-binary gender).

surrounding community, alleviates the needs of disadvantaged groups in its wider national environment, and collaborates with individuals, groups and organizations across national and cultural boundaries.” (Mor-Barak, 2000, p. 339-340)

- **Leadership** is “the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives” (Yukl, 2006, p. 3).
- **Leadership Development** involves enhancing and leveraging human-, social-, and system-related resources (Day & O’Connor, 2003) to improve leadership competencies, performance, and overall success.
- **Leadership Self Efficacy:** “A person’s judgment that he or she can successfully exert leadership by setting a direction for the work group, building relationships with followers in order to gain commitment to change goals, and working with them to overcome obstacles to change” (Paglis & Green, 2002, p. 217).
- **Organizational Culture and Climate:** For the purposes of this paper, we use the terms organizational ‘culture’ and ‘climate’ interchangeably² to refer to “(a) a pattern of basic assumptions, (b) invented, discovered, or developed by a given group, (c) as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, (d) that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore (e) is to be taught to new members as the (f) correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems” (Schein, 1990, p. 111).
- **Training:** “Training refers to formal and planned efforts to help employees acquire knowledge, skills, and abilities to improve performance in their current job” (Saks, 2019, p. 7). We use a broad view of training to include any educational, individual, or group efforts aimed at improving knowledge, skills, and group functioning (Kirkpatrick, 1993).

² Some researchers argue that the two terms ‘culture’ and ‘climate’ are distinct. However, for the purpose of the paper, we are more concerned about the key aspects of the terms that are interchangeable.

Methodology – Literature Review

We conducted a multi-faceted investigation of the constraints and resources related to gender equity and inclusion in leadership roles. More specifically, our review covers the current literature and organizational best practices on leadership behaviours associated with gender and inclusion in the workplace, training/coaching these behaviours, leader wellbeing, and the impact of group culture on leader success as well as work factors/barriers that create challenges to effective leadership for female leaders (e.g., biased culture; inaccurate stereotypes).

We have a two-pronged approach to this review: We provide a brief overview of the formative literature on leadership, gender, and inclusivity based on our own subject matter expertise. We then focus the majority of the review on the current leadership literature particularly where it intersects with the literature on gender and inclusion in the workplace (particularly critical, new studies done in the last 5 years). We also review the literature on how these issues link to female leader’s health. To ensure we accessed all of the key works, we used multiple search engines and multiple terms to identify the current literature on the topic (see Table 1).

We organized our review based on the three primary areas based on our overall goals:

1. Identifying the leadership behaviours that support gender equity and inclusion at work
2. Identifying the components of interventions that support gender equity and inclusion at work
3. Understanding the factors and resources that protect female leaders’ health and wellbeing.

Table 1: Literature Search Terms and Search Engines used

<i>Topic</i>	<i>Search Terms</i>
Diversity/Inclusion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • inclusive (culture; climate); inclusion; diversity (intervention; training)
Gender	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • gender; gender equity (climate/culture); gender differences
Leadership	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • leadership/leader (intervention; training; management; transformational leadership; inclusive leadership; collective management/leadership)
Leadership Development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • leadership competencies; effectiveness; leadership development; skill development
Organizational Culture	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • culture; climate; workplace environment
Training/Interventions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • intervention; training; programs; workplace health & leadership training; diversity training; program evaluation; training evaluation; training effectiveness
Wellness	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • wellness; stress/strain; wellbeing (well-being); health; burnout
Women	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • women; woman; female

Search Engines

A full search was conducted for all peer-reviewed articles related to the above search terms, with a focus on more recent works (because the classic works were already addressed in the background research section) using multiple search engines:

- Internal: SMU Patrick Power Library and online resources; Novanet (NS academic online resources)
- External: Psyc Info, ABI Inform, EBSCO, Google Scholar

Based on the topic of ‘women and leadership’, we located 2700 articles and identified 10 peer reviewed journal articles that were directly relevant to our review. An additional search on the topic of ‘gender, inclusion, and leadership interventions’ returned 28,000 articles, of which we identified 18 that were directly relevant to our review. Based on refined searches (using our university databases to narrow searches to peer-reviewed journal articles), we located 569 articles covering the topics of ‘gender, equity, training, and business leadership’ and included 47 that were directly relevant to our review. We also found 219 works on ‘women, wellness and leadership’ and included 13 that were directly relevant in the current review. We supplemented these works with specific formative articles in leadership, training, development, culture, diversity, and equity.

We organized our review based on the three primary areas identified above (i.e., leadership behaviours and interventions that support gender equity and inclusion at work; designing leadership, diversity, and inclusion interventions, and protecting female leaders’ health).

Setting the Stage for Equity & Inclusive Workplaces: Women in Leadership Roles

“Men continue to dominate the upper echelons of organizations and retain the most powerful positions, leaving women consistently underrepresented or completely absent from senior leadership teams” (Madsen, Townsend, & Scribner, 2020, p. 239).

*“Sure [Fred Astaire] was great, but don't forget that **Ginger Rogers** did everything he did... backwards and in **high heels**” (Frank and Ernest cartoon, by Bob Thaves, 1982).*

The issue of increasing women in leadership roles has been a predominant topic of workplace equity for decades. Canada was rated as the top country for embracing diversity when benchmarked against 15 other OECD nations (Conference Board of Canada, 2013). However, gender inequality in Canadian organizations still exists: Women make up only 34.6% of all managers, and only 28.9% of senior managers. And the picture is even bleaker at the C-Suite level, where only 9.4% of 540 positions are held by women in Canada's 100 largest publicly traded firms (Catalyst, 2018).

A recent Conference Board of Canada (2011) study found that “between 1987 and 2009, the proportion of women in middle management - a category that includes directors and managers - rose by about 4 percent. At that rate, it will take approximately 151 years before the proportion of men and women at the management level are equal.” (p. 2). McKinsey's (2018) research over the past decade also documents a very slow pace of change. Equally disconcerting is the fact that half of men and one third of women surveyed in 2017 indicated that the “status quo” is sufficient (Devillard, Hunt, & Yee, 2018). This culture and acceptance of non-inclusive workplaces is an additional stumbling block to gender equality in leadership, and it is a psychosocial stressor for women at work.

Moreover, when (or if) women reach these leadership roles, they are expected to do everything male leaders do while navigating a labyrinth of obstacles and carrying a backpack of sex role stereotypes and societal expectations (e.g., Eagly & Carli, 2007; Eagly & Heilman, 2016). Although female leaders are in a similar dance as their male counterparts, they face additional challenges of bias and stereotypes and different leadership benchmarks that negatively impact on their *perceived* ability to lead, as well as their *perceived* effectiveness. For example, sex-role stereotypes of men (e.g., being agentic, hard driving) are synonymous with leadership. However, sex-role stereotypes of women (e.g., sensitive, emotional, being communal/caring, etc.) are not associated with the stereotype of ‘leader’. The persistence of these biases has been repeatedly demonstrated (e.g., Catalyst 2005; Eagly, Nater, Miller, Kaufmann, & Sczesny, 2019). Overall, the heavier burdens on female leaders appear to be taking their toll: Recent findings suggest that women are leaving the leadership pipeline due to the mounting pressure that they experience as they climb the ranks (McKinsey, 2016). These challenges impact women's participation in leadership roles in Canada, with no clear resolution in the short term.

All of these issues – the slow rate of change, the extra challenges women face, the general acceptance of non-inclusive workplaces, and a lack of senior leadership skill and motivation to create inclusive ones – are key impediments to gender equity and inclusion in organizational

leadership roles. That is, in order to move toward more equitable and inclusive workplace cultures, not only do we need to increase the rate of change and numbers of women in leadership positions, but we also have to create specific workplace training for both men and women at the individual (e.g., skills training) and team (e.g., interventions to create acceptance of inclusive culture) levels.

We (and other scholars) have addressed the issue of how sex/gender can bias the selection and promotion of female leaders (e.g., Loughlin, Arnold, & Bell-Crawford, 2011). Therefore, we argue that the direction of future research should be based on the premise that it is no longer sufficient, or valid, to assume that the answer is to change women: In order to have true equity and inclusion, not only must we support female leaders, but we also must change the contexts in which they work (Arnold & Loughlin, 2019). Achieving gender equity and inclusion not only requires access to effective and supportive development opportunities for female leaders, it also requires leadership and gender equity/inclusion training for senior leaders (typically men), and it requires this training to be linked to broad organizational training in bias and stereotypes associated with leadership to facilitate effective and inclusive workplace cultures.

The Current Review: Leveraging Leadership, Inclusion, and Self-Care Training

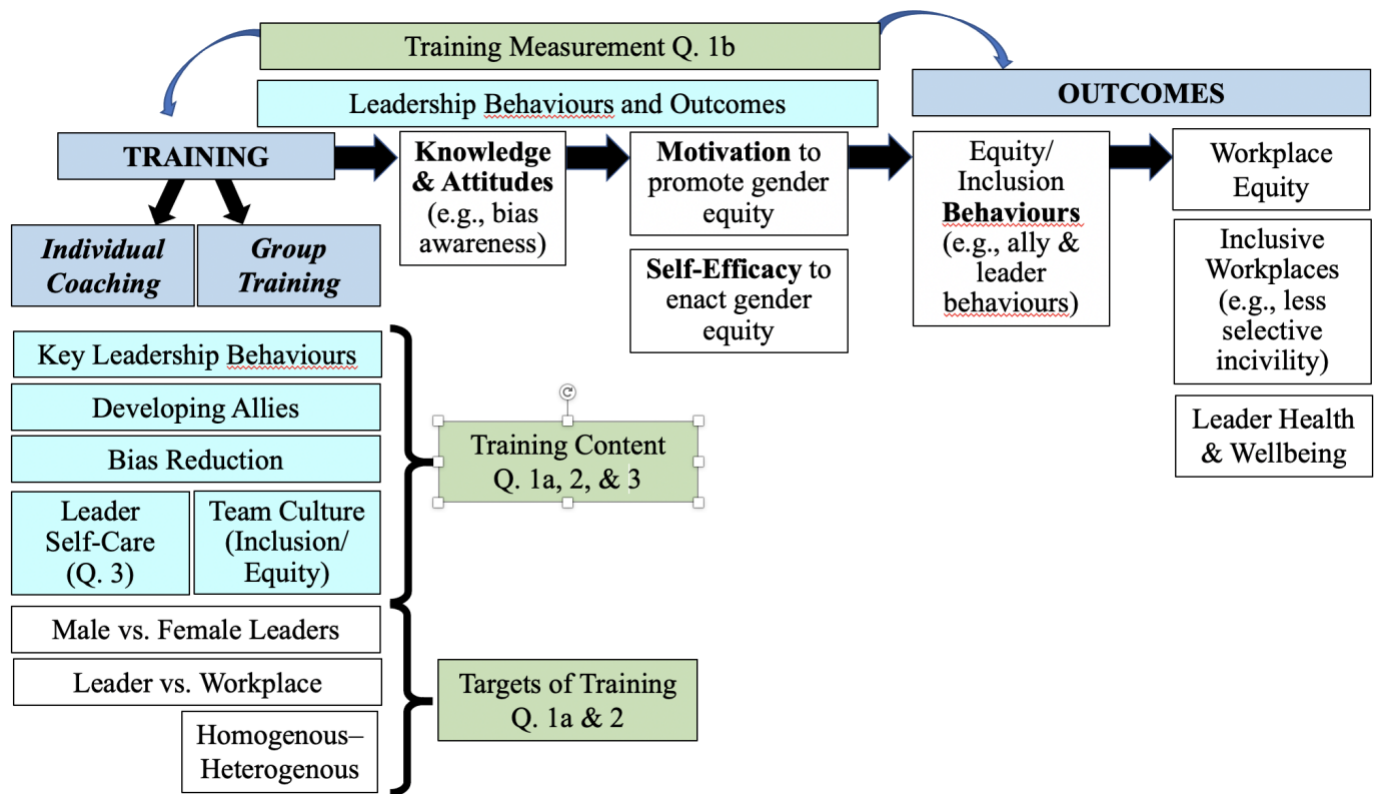
In the current review, we address these challenges that female leaders face (and challenges to changing the system) by summarizing the recent scholarly literature on what this training could entail (Training Content), who should be trained (Target of Training), and how to measure ‘success’ outcomes (Training Measurement). We integrate the multidimensional perspective of leadership development literature (e.g., Day & O’Connor, 2003) to help us understand how to move forward with leadership development to create gender equity and inclusive workplaces. The basic premises to take this multidimensional approach are that leadership development can (and should) be directed not only at leaders, but also at other individuals in the workplace, dyads, groups, and/or the overall organization. Second, development involves enhancing and leveraging the human-, social-, and system-related resources to improve leadership competencies, performance, and overall success; Day & O’Connor, 2003).

The basic message of this perspective is that “scientists and practitioners should expand the lens of leadership beyond the traditional, personal, individual-leader approaches that have been emphasized historically in leadership development” (Day & O’Connor, 2003, p. 18). This perspective may provide a foundation to leverage support for female leaders while developing inclusive workplace cultures.

Therefore, we integrate the previous works on gender and leadership, multidimensional perspective of leadership, leader self-care, and organizational culture to take a three-pronged approach toward fostering inclusive workplaces by: (1) investigating the leadership behaviours and practices needed to support women in leadership roles, while (2) examining the training factors that not only support female leaders, but also facilitate the development of positive, inclusive cultures at work, and (3) examining how to support female leader’s health while women navigate the labyrinth of current organizational cultures that are lacking in equity and inclusion in their leadership ranks. This multi-pronged approach is necessary because we need to better understand how to support female leaders both in the short-term (inclusive leadership and self-care training) and long-term (training leaders in ally behaviours and all organizational members in bias reduction in leadership selection and promotion decisions).

More specifically, in addition to more traditional transformational leadership training, we also focus on leadership behaviours that can reduce such biases in the workplace (e.g., ally behaviours), as well as on using training in diversity and inclusion –for both leaders and teams – to augment these leadership behaviours to create more gender equitable and inclusive cultures in the workplace. Finally, we also investigate how to train female leaders in the active self-care necessary to mitigate the exhaustion that comes from leading organizations that currently lack diversity and inclusion at the senior levels (see Figure 1 for a conceptual overview of the focus of the review).

FIGURE 1:
Conceptual Overview of the Research Questions and Key Factors of Fostering Equity & Inclusive Workplaces by Supporting Women in Leadership Positions.



Developed from: training, leadership, wellbeing, behaviour change literatures (e.g., Kirkpatrick’s model of training, 1993; the Multidimensional Perspective of Development, Day & O’Connor, 2003)

Research Questions

To address each of the goals of this review, we organize the primary section of the review around the three predominant questions:

Question 1: (a) What leadership behaviours and interventions support gender equity and inclusion in the workplace, and (b) how can we measure their impact?

Question 2: How should leadership and gender equity and inclusion interventions be designed and for whom?

Question 3: How do we protect the health of women currently in leadership roles?

Question 1:

(a) What leadership behaviours and interventions support gender equity and inclusion in the workplace, and (b) how can we measure their impact?

Although there is a generally agreed upon definition of leadership (i.e., influencing and supporting workers to accomplish job tasks toward a common goal; e.g., Kelloway & Barling, 2010; Yukl, 2006), there is less knowledge and agreement about *which* leadership behaviours are most likely to promote gender equity and inclusion in the workplace. Despite this lack of agreement, some research suggests that certain leadership models may be better than others at supporting specific equity-related initiatives. For example, although research has consistently indicated that transformational leadership is related to higher wellbeing across a variety of employees (e.g., Arnold, 2017; Bono, Foldes, Vinson, & Muros, 2007), Sims, Carter, and Moore De Peralta (2020) found that servant leadership appeared to be most the most effective model to increase mentoring and inclusion. Other work has demonstrated that transformational leadership is linked to improved diversity climate at work (McCallaghan, Jackson, & Heyns, 2019).

It also appears that context may be an important moderator of effectiveness in terms of leadership models that promote diversity (Loughlin & Arnold, 2018). That is, similar to results regarding safety-specific transformational leadership (Barling, Loughlin, & Kelloway, 2002), we may need to tailor existing frameworks of leadership development to understand, develop, and strengthen gender inclusive work cultures. To date, there has been little or no research in the training literature on using leadership to foster gender diversity and inclusion. However, we use the extant literatures in the separate areas to identify directions for future research.

Therefore, in addressing this first research question, our review will briefly note general leadership behaviours that have been well-established in the literature (e.g., transformational leadership behaviours), and instead, it will focus on the content and contextual factors of training that support gender diversity and inclusion.

That is, we first examine the **training content** in terms of:

1. supporting effective leadership behaviours;
2. reducing sex-role stereotypes and bias; and
3. developing ally behaviours.

By identifying several caveats related to these content issues of interventions, we then focus on:

4. the target of training (i.e., involving the entire team and organization) and
5. mitigating the potential backlash against both the training initiatives and female leaders.

Q. 1a: Training Content

The obvious starting point when examining training that may foster gender equity and create an inclusive workplace is to understand what training content is most effective. Our review of the literature suggests that change in the representation of women throughout organizational leadership ranks can be supported through educating and training the wider organizational community in bias reduction; developing male allies; and developing female leaders. Therefore, we focus less on the literature about developing key traditional leadership behaviours, to focus

more on two other areas that are important for training success: the impact of sex role stereotypes on perceptions of leadership behaviours (both in terms of selecting for, and developing, these behaviours), and the ally behaviours that promote women in leadership.

1. Supporting Effective Leadership Behaviours

Transformational leadership is one of the most widely studied leadership models (Lowe & Gardner, 2000), and there are multiple studies and meta-analyses showing that transformational leadership behaviours are positively related to performance outcomes (e.g., Dum Dum, Lowe, & Avolio, 2013; Hoch, Bommer, Dulebohn, & Wu 2009; Wang, Oh, Courtright, & Colbert, 2011). Not surprisingly, meta-analyses have demonstrated that effective leadership (including relational leadership) is positively associated with job wellbeing (e.g., Kaluza et al., 2020; Kelloway, Turner, Barling, & Loughlin, 2012; Kuoppala et al., 2008). Given the vast amount of work in this area, it also isn't surprising that there has been a lot of work on developing transformation leadership behaviours (e.g., Kelloway & Barling, 2010; Kelloway, Barling, & Helleur, 2000; see page 21 of this report for more information on transformational leadership training).

However, much less is known about how these behaviours may be used to support female leaders, improve gender equity in the workplace, and foster more inclusive workplaces. There has been much speculation that transformational leadership is related to healthier workplaces (Day, Penny, & Hartling, 2019; Jimenez, Winkler, & Dunkl, 2017; Nielsen, 2014; Penny, 2019). Moreover, transformational leadership has been used to implement and maintain diversity management systems (Aguirre Jr & Martinez, 2006; Brown, Brown, & Nandedkar, 2019). Given the potential to support female leaders and develop inclusive workplaces, future research must address this issue.

Given that transformational leadership is considered one of the most effective forms of leadership (and related to organizational performance) and given that women have been rated as being more transformational than men as leaders (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Eagly et al., 2003), we would expect that women would be seen as more effective leaders. Ironically, that is not the case. One reason may be due to the prevalence of gender-based stereotypes as to what makes a competent leader.

2. Reducing Sex-Role Stereotypes and Bias

A critical component of leadership training and bias reduction is separating gender stereotypes from actual leadership skills and behaviours in the overall organizational community. Many organizations still embrace masculine leadership cultures, where women feel they must embody masculine leadership characteristics in order to fit in to the system (AAUW, 2016). Therefore, one key, yet often overlooked, area to support female leaders is in bias reduction initiatives.

Successful training components to reduce gender bias include gender bias awareness education and bias literacy (learning about types of stereotype-based gender bias such as expectancy bias and occupational role congruity), and training to increase self-efficacy for overcoming gender bias (AAUW, 2016; Carnes et al., 2015; McCarty Kilian et al., 2005).

Bias reduction can take two different approaches: (1) addressing bias in HR functions, such as recruitment, selection, and training opportunities, and (2) addressing bias in group and organizational culture. First, when looking at selection decisions in large companies, some simple leadership interventions can likely provide large dividends in terms of promoting gender

equity. For example, managers in charge of hiring appear to be less inclined to make biased hiring decisions when they hire in ‘batches’ rather than on an individual basis (Chang, Kirgios, Rai, & Milkman, 2020). The implication is that ‘isolated choice effects’ (whereby groups constructed via an aggregation of isolated selection decisions are less diverse than groups selected in collections) can be avoided by simply hiring multiple individuals at once (Chang et al., 2020). Knowing that organizations are likely to construct more gender-diverse groups when making ‘sets’ of hiring and selection decisions is very practical and actionable knowledge for large organizations.

However, this suggestion may not be feasible for the many leaders who work in smaller organizations. Given that 98% of companies fall into the small business category in Canada (Government of Canada, 2019a), this type of intervention will have limited generalizability. Therefore, when looking for evidence-based leadership interventions/models that will promote gender equity and inclusion across workplaces of various sizes, contexts, and industries, the situation becomes more complicated, and there is little agreement in the literature on many of these issues.

The second approach—addressing workplace biases—has received mixed support. Carnes et al. (2015) conducted a gender-bias-habit-reducing intervention, which consisted of a 2.5-hour interactive group workshop. The intervention included an introduction about stereotype-based gender bias in decision making and judgement, followed by three modules: (1) the origins of bias as a habit; (2) bias literacy, which involved describing and labeling different types of stereotype-based gender bias; and (3) behavioural strategies to overcome gender bias. Additionally, the intervention included two strategies that are counterproductive to preventing stereotype-based bias (e.g., stereotype suppression). The intervention was found to increase personal awareness, internal motivation, perception of benefits, and self-efficacy to engage in gender-equity-promoting behaviours. Furthermore, for both men and women, the intervention resulted in sustained heightened self-efficacy beliefs three months post-intervention and when at least 25% of a department’s faculty participated in the intervention, intentions to promote gender equity increased three months post-intervention (Carnes et al., 2015).

Training in counter-stereotypical thinking is another successful intervention to reduce gender bias among the larger organizational community. According to gender role development theories, beginning in childhood, observing same-sex role models leads people to internalize gender stereotypical aspirations and behaviours, which may be one reason why women are underrepresented in top leadership positions (Olsson & Martiny, 2018). In response to this theory, interventions involving observing, learning about, or interacting with *counter-stereotypical role models* can be a successful tool to reduce gender bias. It is suggested that observing gender-incongruent role models can reduce gender stereotyping and stimulate gender-atypical aspirations and behaviours (Olsson & Martiny, 2018).

In addition to increasing women’s leadership aspirations and improving perceptions about women in leadership positions, counter-stereotypical thinking interventions also can reduce the bias associated with stereotypically female leadership styles (e.g., a communal style). For example, in the context of uncertainty (e.g., economic instability), Randsley de Moura et al. (2018) found that role-incongruent female leaders (i.e., women who apply a more stereotypically male leadership style) were rated as more effective than role-congruent female leaders. However, after implementing an intervention on counter-stereotypical thinking (which consisted of a lab-

based task where participants were asked to describe a target that had either a counter-stereotypic or a stereotypic gender occupation and then to rate the leadership style of a new female CEO who was described as having either a stereotypically masculine or feminine leadership style), role congruent and role incongruent women were rated as equally effective leaders (Randsley de Moura et al., 2018). This finding suggests that counter-stereotypical thinking interventions may be valuable for improving perceptions of women as leaders, without requiring women to adopt stereotypically male leadership styles.

Although brief exposure to counter-stereotypical role models and counter-stereotypical thinking through interventions can change stereotypical beliefs about women, these results often are temporary. Thus, it is ultimately essential that women are better represented in leadership positions throughout organizations in order to successfully increase women's leadership aspirations and perceptions about women as leaders in the long term (Olsson & Martiny, 2018). Until women are adequately represented in leadership positions, training other members of the organization, rather than focusing solely on training women, should increase positive perceptions of female leaders and support more gender equitable and inclusive workplace cultures.

3. Developing Ally Behaviours

Closely related to the arguments around bias reduction is the issue of who should be the target of training. That is, when it comes to increasing positive perceptions of female leaders and creating a more inclusive gender equitable culture within organizational contexts, training that supports women (skill development; self-care; etc.) is integral. However, it is not only women who need to be the targets of such programs (AAUW, 2016; Carnes et al., 2015; McCarty Kilian et al., 2005). Rather than requiring women to fit in and engage in unauthentic leadership in order to progress in their careers, making changes in the organization so that 'masculine leadership styles' are not seen as the 'only leadership styles' is essential (Burkinshaw & White, 2017).

Within the literatures on leadership development and gender equity, there is increasing recognition that we often target the wrong people in the workplace for behavioural change (i.e., women), when it is men (particularly white men; Quast, 2012) who actually have the power to create change in leadership ranks (see Arnold & Loughlin, 2019, for a fuller discussion of this topic). Consequently, researchers are now recognizing that diversity efforts must also focus on men (Cheng, Ng, Trump-Steele, Corrington, & Hebl, 2018). Although scholarly research on male allies in the workplace is still in its early stages (Madsen et al., 2020), there are several themes that are beginning to emerge that can impact training and equity outcomes.

Senior leaders (typically men) can engage in specific behaviours to create gender equity (and possibly inclusion) on multiple fronts. For example, Cheng, Ng, Trump-Steele, Corrington, and Hebl (2018) found that male allies could improve gender equity at work by: (1) reducing pay inequity – male leaders can work with women to better navigate negotiations, equalize salaries, and implement transparent pay policies; (2) supporting advancement – male allies can invite women to join their networks; (3) providing recognition – male allies can encourage women to apply for awards and make sure there is more than one woman in the selection pool (which increases the probability of women succeeding); (4) ensuring fair distribution of workloads (whereby women are not disproportionately doing 'service' work); and (5) providing equal access to professional opportunities (e.g., in academia, men are typically invited to give more talks, especially if no women are on the speaker selection committee).

Madsen et al. (2020) conducted one of the largest studies on the topic of ‘male allies’ to date, analysing qualitative responses from around 250 men and women surveyed through Chambers of Commerce and other organizations in a U.S. state to identify strategies that male allies could utilize to advance women in the workplace. Top responses included: fostering developmental relationships; human resource processes that promote equity (e.g., deliberately including women in selection pools); leadership development; recognition (both public and private); treating women as equals (e.g., not assuming women will have work-family challenges if they take a promotion); and challenging sexist behaviour. Although some differences existed between the perceptions of men and women surveyed in terms of the most critical ally behaviours, there was considerable agreement on these interventions in general (Madsen et al., 2020). Interestingly, given these results, future research may want to examine whether senior women can also act as allies in this regard.

Mentorship can be a successful tool in women’s leader development programs. However, Gipson et al. (2017) suggested that organizations should establish formal mentorship programs that match women leaders with senior leaders of both genders to prevent the bias that can occur when only men are included as mentors. Sponsorship programs are also considered a more advanced level of leader development that aims to increase career advancement directly by enhancing the visibility and credibility of new leaders by matching them with a more senior leader who will advocate for the junior leader’s progression (Athanasopoulou et al., 2018; Gottlieb & Travis, 2018; Helms et al., 2016). Sponsors for women often are senior male leaders in the organization (Gottlieb & Travis, 2018), likely because of the lack of women senior leaders available. Training sponsors in how to advance women’s leadership careers through endorsement for promotions and leadership opportunities and engaging in ally behaviours may be an effective step to increase positive perceptions of female leaders and to create a more inclusive gender equitable culture within organizational contexts.

Training Caveats

Closely related to the issue of ally behaviours is the more general issue of who should be the target of any training to support equity and inclusive leadership/culture. The most obvious answer –leaders– is not necessarily the only answer. That is, one of the major caveats when proceeding with equity and inclusion training, includes the necessity of having men (and the larger organizational community) on board to support gender equity and inclusion in the workplace, and ensuring that they have adequate training in order to provide this support (i.e., Target of Training). Another major caution in the literature is that the workforce must be engaged in gender-equity/inclusion training in a way that does not create backlash (i.e., Backlash Mitigation).

4. Target of Training

One of the key issues when developing any type of workplace initiative is to ensure engagement of the larger workplace community in discussions about an inclusive culture, and male and female sex-role stereotypes. For example, male leaders are more likely to buy into employment equity policies and education if they have something to gain from the initiatives. In their findings on how to improve gender education in medicine and to engage more faculty members in the topic, Risberg, Johansson, and Hamberg (2011) found that broadening the discussion was key to successful training. They found that in order for medical faculty to engage in discussions about

gender and inclusion, it was imperative not to blame men, but to include a discussion around the gender roles that both men and women embrace in society. It was important to include literature and examples of aspects of gender and gender bias in men's as well as women's lives, and also to make it clear that current gender and leader stereotypes/expectations restrict both men and women. Furthermore, the gender of the instructor mattered. Male teachers were taken more seriously than female teachers when teaching about gender (Risberg et al., 2011).

Risberg et al. (2011) identified several other intervention elements that were important to help engage the larger work community (in this case male physicians). Calling attention to the perception of 'male bashing' and discussing ways to avoid it can help to keep people interested in the topic and create a more supportive, inclusive training environment. Focusing on the negative consequences of sex role stereotypes in both men and women's lives and focusing on structural rather than individual aspects of power helps to keep people open to this topic.

5. Mitigating Backlash

Leaders need to ensure men are at the table in promoting gender equity. Anicha, Bilén-Green, and Green (2020) noted that "after two decades of determined and well-funded gender equity efforts at nearly 200 Universities in the U.S., higher education continues to be a profoundly gendered institution" (p. 2). Therefore, they argued that men must be at the table and willing to acknowledge their privilege. Programs cited by these authors include the 'Advocates and Allies Initiative' (Anicha, Bilén-Green, & Burnett, 2018) and Men Advocating Real Change, designed by Catalyst (Prime, Foust-Cummings, Salib, & Moss-Racusin, 2012). Both training programs focus on giving men data on the lack of equity in society and in their own workplaces, how they may be contributing to the problem, and how to become part of the solution. However, these researchers also acknowledge that pointing out to men how they benefit from sexism often results in backlash, which leads to a second theme that appears to be emerging in the literature.

Leaders need to ensure that intervention programs mitigate against backlash. In their review of the diversity training literature, Bezrukova, Jehn, and Spell (2012) found that diversity and inclusion interventions focussed on increasing knowledge, versus demanding behavioural change and challenging someone's existing belief system, created the least backlash. Hideg and Wilson (2020) argued that backlash occurs because reminders of past injustices against women heighten men's defensiveness, by threatening their social identity (e.g., undermining their self-image as competent, and feeling blamed for being perpetrators of past injustice). This process undermines their support for workplace policies promoting women. Hideg and Wilson's (2020) empirical research demonstrated that if men are to 'buy in' to equity policies, threats to their social identity must be mitigated. They found that this can be accomplished by focussing on how far we have come in remedying past injustice against women. In this case, men were less likely to deny the existence of current gender discrimination compared to men who did not receive such mitigating information about the improvement of women's rights. In addition, lower denial of gender discrimination was related to men's enhanced support for a contemporary gender-based employment equity policies. Their findings suggest that without alleviating the "social identity threat to the traditionally advantaged group" we will not be able to move forward (Hideg & Wilson, 2020, p. 11). Men also need opportunities to affirm their social identity by highlighting positive values embodied by their group.

At this point, it is important to note that even organizational initiatives that come from a place of good intentions can end up having detrimental effects (e.g., Hebl & King, 2019). Some unintentional and unexpected negative outcomes can include promoting gender stereotyping and reducing personal accountability for addressing bias (Hebl & King, 2019). One aspect that has been found to decrease the possibility of backlash is focusing training on a variety of diversity dimensions versus being more specific (e.g., including race, gender, and age versus focusing only on race; Bezrukova et al., 2012), as well as programs focused on increasing trainees' motivation and engagement to increase diversity (versus a command-and-control approach to policing 'bad' behaviour), increasing contact with minorities, and creating conditions that instill 'social accountability' through use of task forces and diversity managers tend to create less backlash (e.g., Dobbin & Kalev, 2016).

Q. 1b: How do we Best Measure the Impact of Leadership Behaviours and Training?

Determining what leadership behaviours increase support for equitable and gender inclusive workplaces (see Hideg & Wilson, 2020) and address the extant caveats are the key first steps in designing training interventions. The next step is identifying out how best to measure their impact on workplace gender diversity and inclusion. That is, we not only need to ensure we encourage the appropriate leadership behaviours, but we also have to ensure we have valid measures of these behaviours and organizational outcomes.

a. Measuring Ally Behaviours. For example, the extent to which Cheng et al.'s (2018) male ally behaviours lead to support for employment equity policies could be measured (e.g., do leaders promote pay equity, support advancement, provide recognition, and ensure fair workloads and opportunities). Madsen et al. (2020) identified strategies that male allies can use to advance women in the workplace in terms of: the extent to which allies nurture developmental relationships (e.g., through mentoring/coaching); human resource processes (e.g., ensuring female representation in selection pools); leadership development of female leaders; public and private recognition; treating women as equals (e.g., not assuming family will stand in their way); and challenging sexist behaviours (men can have a particular impact in influencing other men). However, no measures currently exist to assess these factors. Therefore, they will have to be operationalized and scales to measure these behaviours and their impact on outcomes will need to be developed.

b. Proximal vs. Distal Outcomes. Given that quantitative change will take time, Bezrukova et al. (2012) argued that "to overcome limitations in measuring outcomes, we suggest that researchers focus more on developing assessment instruments based on implicit measures of attitudes and behaviors (e.g., the Implicit Association Test...The Instructor Cultural Competence Questionnaire (ICCQ)...a Q-sort activity to identify types of preferred behaviors or critical incident analysis of what trainees would do in a given situation" (p. 211). These measures all can be used to assess participants' attitudes and intentions with regard to diversity. To evaluate whether interventions are successful in increasing positive perceptions of female leaders and creating more inclusive gender equitable cultures within organizations, several methods have been employed in recent studies. Training outcomes such as implicit bias, bias awareness, motivation to promote gender equity, self-efficacy to enact gender equity, outcome expectations from promoting gender equity, and action to promote gender equity may be valuable sources of information (Carnes et al., 2015).

One significant challenge in accurately measuring the behaviours most likely to impact gender equity and inclusion is that most sexism today appears to be covert. For example, Cortina, Kabat-Farr, Leskinen, Huerta, and Magley (2013) argue that ‘selective incivility’ (e.g., targeting women) is the most likely mechanism for modern discrimination in organizations, whereby modern sexists (and racists) publicly endorse egalitarian values and only discriminate when the biased nature of their behavior is not obvious, or when a negative response can be attributed to something other than gender or race. Consequently, it also is worthwhile to measure less obvious behaviours, such as perceptions of selective incivility toward women, in predicting how gender-inclusive a workplace culture is perceived to be.

c. Raters and Feedback. To evaluate perceptions of female leaders, 360-degree feedback reports and peer coaching can be beneficial both to collect leader performance ratings and also to evaluate the success of interventions to improve leadership skills (Van Oosten et al., 2017). However, it is also important to raise awareness of potential biases toward female leaders during review, promotion, and selection processes in order for women to receive accurate developmental feedback (Gloor, Morf, Paustian-Underdahl, & Backes-Gellner, 2020). Gipson et al. (2017) recommended the utility of multi-rater feedback to improve self-awareness of leaders, noting the potential bias that can occur due to biased perceptions of what “good” leader performance looks like. It is important, however, for leaders to receive developmental feedback in order to improve, thus training women in how to spot and disregard contradictory feedback and educating other raters on how to avoid bias in ratings may be a valuable tool for leadership interventions in order to improve positive perceptions of female leaders (Gipson et al., 2017).

In addition, there is more research focused on how supervisors’ leadership styles affect employees than on how leaders themselves are affected by enacting specific leadership styles (e.g., Arnold, 2017; Lin et al., 2019). The evaluation of the planned intervention focusing on leader self-care will be a unique contribution to the leadership training literature. Leaders who are in better health can lead more effectively (e.g., Byrne et al., 2014). Therefore, evaluating training that has the potential to influence leader well-being is key to incorporating leader development for a healthy organization (e.g., Day et al., 2019). Investigating this question through a gendered lens is important, because women face additional barriers to leadership compared to men (Arnold & Loughlin, 2019). These barriers have an increased probability of affecting female leaders’ health.

Question 2:
How should leadership and gender equity and inclusion interventions be designed and for whom?

In designing interventions to impact gender diversity and inclusion in organizational leadership, we have alluded to several problems above, and we are confronted with numerous decisions. For example, how should people be trained (e.g., 1-1 coaching vs. group training)?; Who should be trained (men and women separately or in mixed groups)?; How will this training fit into the larger system? Important features of intervention design discussed in the literature include the delivery, length/timing, and composition of participants. The most common forms of leadership interventions described in the literature include group training, individual coaching, and mentoring. Group training has been described as a successful method for reducing organizational gender bias (Carnes et al., 2015) and for leadership development (Van Oosten et al., 2017). At the individual level, executive coaching can be a valuable tool in leader development, especially for women, as it can be individualized to ensure the developmental plan targets individual strengths and weaknesses, while also taking into account the leader's personal life and how that can affect their career trajectory (Gipson et al., 2017). Some studies have suggested the utility of having all female facilitators in leadership interventions for women (e.g., Van Oosten et al., 2017). However, it is somewhat ironic that when it comes to diversity and inclusion training, male facilitators seem to carry more weight (Risberg et al., 2011). The length and timing of interventions varies throughout the recent literature, ranging from a 2.5-hour interactive workshop (e.g., Carnes et al., 2015) to seven days of experiential learning over a three-month intervention (e.g. Van Oosten et al., 2017). Furthermore, diversity training may only be valuable if part of a larger system of change with clear accountability.

In general, the evidence is clear that leadership development interventions are effective. The form that leadership training takes can be workshops (i.e., group training), individual coaching, or a combination of both (e.g., Kelloway & Barling, 2010). For example, Barling, Weber, and Kelloway (1996) reported an experimental study where bank branch managers were randomly assigned to training and wait list control conditions. The training group received a one-day workshop on transformational leadership and then follow-up individual sessions in which the leader received feedback on their leadership and engaged in a goal-setting activity related to improving their leadership. They found that three months post-training, direct reports of leaders in the training group reported perceived increases in the transformational leadership behaviours of the managers, increased organizational commitment, and the branches with trained managers had better financial performance than the branches in the control group.

Kelloway et al. (2000) investigated whether group workshops or individual coaching was more effective for leadership development. Using a similar experimental study design, they found that either workshops or coaching was effective in terms of increasing follower perceptions of increased transformational leadership; however, the effects of combining both did not further improve outcomes. In a study combining various types of content in five days of training, Dvir et al. (2002) found that in comparison to a control group, a group of infantry soldiers who participated in five days of training were more knowledgeable about, and perceived by followers to be, more transformational in their leadership. Leadership training programs have also been created to focus on safety-specific transformational leadership and to compare the effectiveness

of this type of leadership training with ‘regular’ transformational leadership training. These studies report improved safety outcomes when the training relates to specifically to safety (e.g., Mullen & Kelloway, 2009).

Although the above studies focused on the efficacy of transformational leadership training, there are other types of leadership training that might be considered. Clarke and Taylor (2018) found that a training intervention focused on both transformational and active transactional leadership was effective in increasing perceptions of safety climate. Parry and Sinha (2005) showed that training increased transformational and contingent reward leadership behaviours and decreased passive behaviours.

Overall, published studies reporting leadership training interventions describe a variety of approaches (e.g., Kelloway & Barling, 2010), even within the same sector (e.g., Cleary et al., 2020). There is significant variation in the length (hours to multiple days) and type of training (group and individual level) provided. It appears quite common to incorporate a goal setting activity as part of the training (e.g., Parry & Sinha, 2005), regardless of length or whether the training is group or individually focused. Despite the variability, many different types of training interventions in the published literature have shown some effectiveness in terms of various outcomes. The most common outcomes relate to direct report perceptions of the leaders’ behaviour or style and direct reports’ attitudes (e.g., organizational commitment).

It should be noted here that the literature demonstrates these effects despite the fact that these types of leadership interventions are “notoriously difficult to evaluate” (Kelloway & Barling, 2010, p. 273). Many researchers are calling for more intervention research in order to evaluate the outcomes of leadership training. Moreover, these studies all refer to general leadership training, and not leader training related to equity, diversity, and inclusion. Given the dearth of leadership intervention studies investigating how leader training impacts leaders’ ability to support equity, diversity, and inclusion, and given the current environment related to diversity and inclusion (e.g., #MeToo; Black Lives Matter), the question of the design of training is very timely and relevant to pursue, and as such, it is the primary focus of our research project.

1. How should leadership and diversity/inclusion interventions be designed?

To help determine what diversity programs have the most effect on tangible outcomes like the numbers of women and minorities in management roles, Dobbin, Kalev and Kelly (2007) examined 31 years of data from the U.S. Government’s Equal Employment Opportunity Commission’s (EEOC) Equal Employment Opportunity survey (EEO-1). In combination with this data, they surveyed over 829 of the companies in the EEO dataset, asking companies to report on the types of diversity programs they had employed:

The diversity management programs that companies reported using fell into six categories: 1) Diversity training, defined as educating people about members of other groups to reduce stereotyping; 2) Diversity evaluation programs, offering feedback on manager diversity efforts; 3) Network programs, addressing whether women or minorities have the social resources needed to succeed (i.e., networking events); 4) Mentor programs, putting aspiring managers in contact with people who can help them, through advice and finding them jobs, to move up; 5) Creating a Diversity taskforce; and 6) Creating Diversity Management positions, making new programs the responsibility of a specific person (or committee).

Dobbin et al. (2007) argued that although diversity training has become very popular, it may actually be one of the least effective programs compared to other interventions. Diversity training along with diversity evaluations and network programs showed negligible to no improvement (as measured by percentage of subsequent change in the proportion of managers from each group), whereas mentorship programs, diversity taskforces, and appointing diversity managers resulted in measurable and significant changes in the percentage of women and minorities in management (Dobbin et al., 2007).

These types of diversity interventions (i.e., mentorship, diversity taskforces, diversity managers) are probably effective in increasing the representation of women and minorities for a few reasons. First, these types of programs incorporate a sense of responsibility and accountability for results. Without *accountability*, it is difficult to get results. Second, a grassroots approach (i.e., committee/taskforce) enables employees to take part and increase their commitment to the results. In addition, these types of committees can interpret statistics with the local context in mind in order to identify the most effective intervention points. Finally, programs focusing on mentoring deal with systemic issues such as access to information and networks, instead of focusing on changing individual attitudes. Dobbin et al. (2007) stated that both taskforces and diversity managers can provide:

“specific solutions to the company’s problems in finding, hiring, keeping, and promoting women and minorities. Taskforces have the added advantage of eliciting buy-in, they focus the attention of department heads from across the firm who sit together with a collective mission” (p.27).

Thus, diversity and inclusion training may impact measurable attitudinal, behavioural, and outcome changes only if it is endorsed from above by senior leaders and reflected throughout the organization. This finding was echoed by Bezrukova et al. (2012), who argued that top management must signal that diversity training is a priority and “not just window-dressing.” This support may be conveyed by senior management by prioritizing diversity objectives, having supportive policies, and providing resources (e.g., diversity manager). Therefore, if we are to see quantifiable change, diversity training must be embedded in other diversity programs and supported by senior management. This signaling of support may predict training outcomes, such as managerial diversity (Bezrukova et al., 2012).

In addressing the shortcomings of diversity training, Fujimoto and Härtel (2017) developed a ‘organizational diversity-learning framework’, suggesting that diversity and inclusion must be embedded in the entire system with minority group members part of the decision-making process throughout. This approach requires heterogeneous teams with equal opportunities to speak and the power to influence decisions. They argued that by “inviting minority perspectives into the organizational decision-making process, top managers can explicitly send a message to minority groups that their perspectives matter and that their contributions are highly valued by the organization” (p. 1120). These researchers remind us that inclusion goes beyond representation to actual involvement in decision-making. Fujimoto and Härtel’s (2017) organizational diversity-learning framework has not been empirically tested, nor is it readily apparent that such an approach can be superimposed on/in an organization not yet open to broader (e.g., non-hierarchical decision making) changes. Nonetheless, it does highlight the hidden complexity, futility, and ineffectiveness of some diversity and inclusion training. In his longitudinal study of organizational change surrounding equity and inclusion initiatives, van den Brink (2020),

reminds us that although training may be provided, the long-term impact of equity and inclusion initiatives may be lost unless a more integrated, prolonged and systemic program of equity and inclusion is implemented. These suggestions echo back to Day and O'Connor's (2003) multidimensional perspective of leadership, emphasizing the integrated nature of systemic development (i.e., human-, social-, and system-related resources) to improve leadership competencies, performance, and overall success.

2. Who should leadership and diversity/inclusion interventions be designed for?

As we first noted in responding to our research question about leadership behaviours, a key issue to be addressed in designing interventions is *who should be trained?* That is, should the organization provide training only to senior managers and decision makers, or to middle managers, or to all managers and staff? Another critical, yet unanswered, question is whether different groups require different information. Furthermore, should these groups be combined for training (in heterogeneous trainee groups) or trained separately (in homogeneous groups)? In terms of gender equity and inclusion training, should men and women should be in the room together, or is it more beneficial to have separate training? Is individual, tailored training more effective?

The published literature is fairly silent on many of these questions, although a few papers address the issue. For example, Catalysts' 2012 report entitled 'Calling All White Men: Can Training Help Create Inclusive Workplaces?' suggested that inclusivity training should target white men as potential allies and or advocates for women. However, Hebl and King (2019) pointed out the irony in segregating individuals according to one or two characteristics (e.g., senior managers, sex or race) only to then train these individuals to appreciate the individuality and uniqueness of others.

There also may be contextual factors to consider when making decisions about the composition of training groups. According to work on racial diversity, when individuals have had more diversity training experience, they can benefit from being trained with similar employees (Bezrukova et al., 2012). Such participant similarity presumably creates conditions where participants can learn new skills by increasing the comfort that trainees have to engage with the training. In contrast, within the realm of higher education, it has been suggested that a mixed group enables sharing of information and experience with one another, and this can be a powerful learning experience. From their qualitative study of business undergraduates, Crocitto, Walsh, Murphy, and Keefe, (2018) concluded that heterogeneity allowed greater opportunities for sharing diverse perspectives and experiences.

Roberson, Kulik, and Pepper (2003) argued that the composition of trainee groups is an important determinant of diversity training effectiveness, yet Bezrukova, Spell, Perry, and Jehn (2016) found that age, sex, and race of participants did not moderate the overall effect size, suggesting that training group composition may not impact effectiveness as much as we might think. Consequently, although training homogeneous groups may be necessary (e.g., senior level managers for the credibility and efficacy of diversity and inclusion training initiatives; or female leaders to target their leadership development or self-care), creating heterogeneous groups of trainees (e.g., various management levels, race, gender, age, etc.) may be most effective for training in diversity and inclusion initiatives (e.g., for reducing bias, separating sex role stereotypes and perceptions of leadership, and engaging with counter-stereotypical role models).

Question 3: How do we protect the health of women currently in leadership roles?

In addition to leader development, protecting leader health as they move into and occupy leadership roles is a key piece to the gender equity puzzle. Special consideration should be given to developing female leaders, both in terms of how training should address development (i.e., developing leadership skills, leader identity, and self-acceptance as leaders) and in terms of protecting leaders' health throughout the process of becoming leaders and holding leadership positions. For example, recent research has found that transformational leadership training may come at a cost for leader's own health (Hartling & Day, 2018; Szu-Han, Scott, & Matta, in press). How can we still support leaders' functioning and individual health, while still developing effective leaders? Not surprising, there has been little research on how we can support leader health, and even less that looks at it from a gendered lens.

Moreover, some research suggests that women need more social support in the workplace than men to protect their health, which may be due to the unique workplace stressors that female managers experience such as being a 'token' person, who is highly visible with disproportionate performance pressure, in addition to sex role stereotypes that don't support women in leadership roles. Consequently, it is argued that women experience greater health-related benefits than men from higher levels of workplace social support (Gadinger, Fischer, Schneider, Terris, Krückeberg, Yamamoto, Frank, & Kromm, 2009). Therefore, these authors argued that "[i]ncreasing social support for female managers may help to overcome gender inequalities in management positions" (p. 531). In contrast, other authors argue that more senior women actually need less social support than men in the workplace because they seem to be more resilient in terms of their physical health (Juster, Moskowitz, Lavoie, & D'Antono, 2013). This result may be due to women having to work harder to overcome obstacles to reach similar positions to men. It also is possible that women may simply give up attempting to find social support at work as time goes on (due to family obligations or failed previous attempts). Alternatively, they may need it less due to their innate or increasingly developed personal coping skills and resources.

Interestingly, Trzcinski and Holst (2010) found that whereas there was a "clear hierarchy" for men in terms of how status within the labour market was associated with subjective life satisfaction (p. 16), yet this was not the case for women. That is, there was no statistically significant association between labour market status and life satisfaction for women. Women appear to be "forced to choose between an orientation towards professional success and an orientation towards family" (p.19). Likely due to various costs associated with attaining increasingly higher (social status) positions, women need evidence (that if successful) the pursuit of such goals will lead to increased subjective well-being compared to other alternatives. For both men and women, the costs of promotions include greater investment in formal education and longer work hours. However, for women there are also opportunity costs; delaying or foregoing childbearing and/or marriage; bearing the main responsibilities for household duties and childrearing (increasing total workload). Therefore, these authors argue that in addition to changes in policies (e.g., increasing the number of positions available to women via quotas) and social norms (e.g., normalizing women in higher status jobs), incentives in the workplace need to

change (e.g., increasing non-pecuniary rewards). Such changes would enable women to “have the same chances as men to fulfill multiple sets of values and orientations” (p. 19).

Consequently, Trzcinski and Holst (2010) argued that non-monetary incentives may need to be explored as a means to increase the number of women ‘in the pipeline’ for more senior management positions. Perrakis and Martinez (2012) were quite prescriptive in how incentives should be provided to women with children (as they negotiate personal and professional goals). They suggested three specific approaches: (1) encourage a flexible work schedule for working mothers that allows them to complete tasks outside the office; (2) consider single working mothers’ responsibilities; perhaps schedule work events at more convenient times and/or communicate that children are welcome to attend (if appropriate); and (3) mentor working mothers and encourage them to pursue leadership roles. As more working mothers are represented in junior leadership positions, more working mothers will begin to aspire to such roles and see such goals as reasonable and feasible. Brockmann, Koch, Diederich, Edling (2018) came to similar conclusions in exploring the happiness of both male and female managers, finding lower self-reported life satisfaction for women compared to men across all managerial positions. Thus, to maintain equivalent levels of happiness (to men), women may need to be compensated more for each hour of time. This increase in compensation can be either take the form of higher incomes (an average increase of around 10%) or more spare time. Brockmann et al. advocated for “a new mix of carrots and sticks in order to boost female representation in leadership positions” (p. 755). However, it is unclear whether such increases would simply bring women toward parity with men (given widespread pay inequities) or surpass the compensation of men.

Further evidence of a need to provide additional incentives for women may be found in research by Ellinas, Fouad, and Byars-Winston (2018). Examining the predictors of women’s intent to leave, and aspirations to leadership and advancement in academic medicine (i.e., women’s decision to leave, linger, or lean-in), Ellinas et al. found that women faculty “may not be leaning into promotion and leadership roles because of increased role conflict, work–life concerns, and organizational factors” (p. 324). Perhaps unsurprisingly, for both men and women “perceived positive views of organizational support and commitment were associated with promotion seeking and persistence” (p. 324). The need to address role strain is perhaps most evident when considering possible personal and organizational outcomes of those who face role strain. Ellinas et al. found that “role strain was positively correlated with desire for promotion and leadership, and with intent to leave” (p.324). Consequently, work–family conflicts need to be addressed to remove barriers and retain female faculty seeking leadership positions.

Phillips and Grandy (2018) acknowledged that many women leaders confront a ‘labyrinth’ (Eagly & Carli, 2007) of gender-organization-system challenges, which can lead to stress, health problems, and intentions to leave managerial careers. However, leadership development programs rarely consider gender and women’s experiences of learning leadership. Although both men and women in management experience high workloads and stress, women face additional and unique challenges, such as: discrimination, gendered assumptions/sex-role stereotypes contributing to a double bind. Consequently, Phillips and Grandy suggested that leadership development programs need to be designed specifically for women, and one key component of these programs should be the inclusion of mindfulness practices. They define mindfulness practices as yoga and or meditation. Although Phillips and Grandy overtly address the ‘fix the

women’ optics of their approach to women’s leadership development, they also note that, “women are more likely to engage in mindfulness practices and experience greater benefits” (p.367).

It is unclear and unaddressed by Phillips and Grandy (2018) if they are recommending that mindfulness training be given to all genders simultaneously (i.e., heterogeneous trainee groups) and if so, whether this training protocol would still mitigate negative health and well-being outcomes for women in a mixed format. Addressing resiliency among women leaders in South Africa, Pillay (2020) also argued that mindfulness can serve as an important internal resource to increase resiliency. Pillay suggested that the creation of organisational climates that facilitate the development of positive affect and mindfulness, and leadership support programmes for women that provide opportunities to cultivate positive affect and mindfulness. Although the conclusions appear well intentioned, when such mindfulness is aimed at women in particular, there may be perceptions that such programs are simply attempting to ‘fix women’. Furthermore, this framing of resiliency as a psychological attribute, overlooks others research that suggests personal resiliency is also a proxy for social support (Ungar, 2018). That is, people and the support systems around women may be as, or more, important than training women to be resilient.

Interestingly, in exploring the interplay of job level, gender, and coping strategies for occupational stress, Torkelson and Muhonen (2004) found that men and women at the managerial level use essentially the same coping strategies, whereas at a non-managerial level more ‘traditionally-conceived’ coping patterns were found. At a non-managerial level, men used ‘planning’ as a problem-focused strategy, and alcohol or drugs as another coping strategy, more frequently than women. Whereas women used ‘seeking instrumental and emotional support’ and a ‘focus on and venting of emotions’, as their social support-related strategies, more frequently than men. At the managerial level, men and women both employed planning, seeking support, and focussing on venting emotions, as coping strategies. Torkelson and Muhonen (2004) argued that “at a non-managerial level the women and the men are socialized into traditional coping patterns...whereas at a managerial level both women and men are socialized into thinking in terms of instrumentality and have access to many resources” (p. 273).

As was the case when examining the leadership behaviours that are most likely to lead to equity and inclusion at work, the limited literature in this area is anything but conclusive. However, some patterns do seem to be emerging:

1. Women deal with unique stressors in the workplace compared to men (e.g., Arnold & Loughlin, 2019).
2. Women in leadership are still dealing with disproportionate stressors at home compared to men (Perrakis and Martinez, 2012).
3. Across managerial positions, women seem to be experiencing lower satisfaction than men, and some women may be leaving leadership pipelines because of role conflict (Ellinas, Fouad, and Byars-Winston (2018).
4. Organizations may need to offer women additional training and development, and workplace incentives, to keep them in leadership positions while also raising families, when the ‘trades-offs’ can become too great (Brockmann, Koch, Diederich, Edling (2018).

Developing Female Leader Identity

To address the issue of developing female leaders, another issue to consider is that of leader identity. Athanasopoulou et al. (2018) recommended that because women are less likely to be considered for leadership positions by others, to begin the process of becoming a leader and to be recognized by others as a leader, they must first see themselves this way (i.e., develop a leader identity) and take active ownership of their progression as a leader. Similarly, Ely, Ibarra, and Kolb (2011) argued that before a woman can advocate for her value as a leader, she must see herself as a leader.

Female leaders (more so than males) may need to engage in self-development and find a style of leadership that fits them best because leadership is synonymous with male sex-role stereotypes (Athanasopoulou et al., 2018). Rather than engaging only in stereotypically male leadership practices, which can sometimes harm women more than it can help them (due to backlash), Athanasopoulou et al. (2018) recommended successful female leaders embrace gynandrous leadership, where they put their feminine leadership practices first, and blend them with other leadership skills and behaviours that work well for them (including stereotypically male practices). The ultimate goal is for women to translate leadership into a form that feels authentic. Women may feel that it is inauthentic to enact stereotypically female leadership characteristics in some situations and stereotypically male characteristics in other situations, even though each can be effective. However, successful women in leadership roles have described the benefit of blending these two roles into a style that feels authentic and effective (Athanasopoulou et al., 2018).

Leader training that increases women's self-acceptance as leaders and ultimately increases their self-advocacy in leadership positions may be integral to developing an inclusive workplace. This content may also include topics such as bias, barriers, and skill development (Van Oosten et al., 2017). As an example, Van Oosten et al. (2017) developed a successful leadership program for women in the male-dominated science, technology, engineering, and math (STEM) fields. The program covered topics such as gender diversity in organizations, implicit bias, leadership skills, self-efficacy, negotiation, and peer coaching. These training components were described by trainees to have increased their confidence in their leadership abilities, which empowered them to question unfair workplace experiences and to articulate their own value, which may have ultimately contributed to a more inclusive and gender equitable culture (Van Oosten et al., 2017). Additionally, throughout the program, the individual, relational, organizational, and socio-cultural factors that may impact women's effectiveness and success as leaders were explored (Van Oosten et al., 2017).

Summary

Supporting leaders and changing the culture of work to one that values all gender identities are both critical factors not only in creating an inclusive workplace, and also in promoting the healthy functioning of all workers and leaders. Research has consistently demonstrated that leadership is important to organizational functioning, and that effective leadership is associated with the health and wellbeing of workers. However, there is much less known about the leadership behaviours and training that may support female leaders, gender equity, and inclusive workplaces. Therefore, we need to move forward in creating an agenda for leveraging leadership to fostering gender equity at work. Because this process is not a quick fix (and may be viewed as a more ‘distal’ outcome, we also recognize the importance of promoting self-care of female leaders to support their health and wellbeing in their leadership roles.

We addressed three main questions in this review, identifying the leadership behaviours and interventions that support a gender-inclusive workplace (and how best to measure these behaviours and their outcomes), the design of leadership interventions that effectively create inclusive and gender equitable cultures, and finally how to protect the health of female leaders while in these roles.

There are several key messages from this review:

1. Assuming that women should be the primary focus of training to increase equity and inclusion in the workplace is not justified.
2. Assuming that women have to change to take on masculine traits to be effective leaders is misguided. We need environments (including group cultures) that embrace a diversity of effective leadership qualities.
3. Applying a multidimensional perspective of leadership development to developing female leaders and fostering an inclusive workplace culture can be effective.
4. Developing ally behaviours in both male and female leaders may be an effective and novel training perspective to support gender equity.
5. The training mechanisms to support this change and support inclusive cultures (as well as mitigate against backlash) must be better understood.
6. Valid measurement of both proximal (attitudes and behaviours) and distal (health and workplace equity) is critical to understanding the training process and effectiveness.
7. Supporting leadership self-care may be one way to protect the health of female leaders while change efforts are underway.

Very little research has linked the leadership literature to the literature on gender diversity and inclusion, and currently no one model of leadership can be identified as superior in building equity and inclusion in the workplace. However, there appears to be particular leader behaviours that can foster positive outcomes in this regard. Leadership training that enables male (and possibly female) leaders in the workplace to engage in ally behaviours could prove very effective in promoting gender equity and inclusion over and above basic leadership training or coaching (again a topic that has not yet been studied in the literature). In order for this training/coaching to

be effective, leaders must first recognize what these ally behaviours are (e.g., how to promote pay equity, support advancement, provide recognition, ensure fair workloads and opportunities for women, support developmental relationships, and challenge sexist behaviours). Leaders must then have the efficacy to engage in these behaviours.

Sustainable change also must ensure that diversity and inclusion training does not create backlash from those currently in power (primarily male leaders). As we transition to more gender inclusive workplaces, it will also be critical to support female leaders already in the leadership pipeline. The issue of who to train is also important. In some cases, homogenous groups in the organization will be appropriate (e.g., training female leaders in how to develop strong leader identities for the purposes of self-advocacy and self-care) or training sponsors and mentors in how to support women in leadership. However, in other cases it will be necessary to engage heterogenous groups from the larger organizational community to create a climate for gender equity and inclusion (e.g., training all organizational members in bias reduction and links between stereotypes and leadership selection/promotion). In terms of measuring outcomes, changes in the representation of women at each level of management take time, so proximal outcomes from training/coaching must typically be sought (e.g., in terms of openness to equity and inclusion, etc.). It also will be important to consider more covert behaviours such as ‘selective incivility’ toward women if we are to create gender inclusive environments.

Implications & Research Agenda

Our review of the extant literature has raised as many questions as it has answered: The current research literature simply is not yet at a point where there are clear answers to many of the questions raised in this review, because leadership research typically does not include gender diversity and inclusion as an outcome. Therefore, there are some key avenues future research must examine:

- **Leadership Behaviours, Training Content, and Focal Group(s) of Training:**
 - **Ally Behaviours:** In addition to the more traditional successful leadership behaviours, developing ally behaviours is definitely a promising line of research in promoting diversity and inclusive workplaces. Creating leadership allies should be a focus with training of senior managers (while ensuring that backlash is not created), and future research should examine its effectiveness, including how to measure these behaviours and the efficacy of including female senior managers.
 - **Self-Care:** Protecting women’s health in leadership roles and during leadership development is a key challenge. Training female leaders (e.g., mindfulness, resilience) may help bolster coping strategies, but the optics of this approach are problematic, such that we can’t expect women to simply carry the burden of systemic stressors. Ways to integrate such self-care strategies for *all leaders* in more traditional leadership development programs is critical, such that finding ways to engage both male and female leaders will likely be the key to success (and least likely to create backlash).
- **Intervention Design:** Several aspects of the training design must be considered when implementing training.

- **Group vs. Individual Training:** Some training may best occur in homogeneous groups, heterogeneous groups, or with individualized, tailored coaching, depending on the group and the topic. For example, using homogenous groups and/or one-on-one coaching may be more effective when developing women’s leadership identities, allowing women to advocate for themselves, or developing deeper understanding of self-care for female leaders). Sponsors and mentors (e.g., who are being trained in how to engage in ally behaviours) also may benefit from training in homogeneous groups and/or one-on-one coaching. Other forms of training (e.g., work group culture and inclusion, leadership bias awareness or the role of sex role stereotypes in leadership selection, promotion, and retention) may best be done in mixed training groups and at all levels of organizations.
- **Timing of Training:** Research appears to support opportunities for implementing and practicing new behaviours, such that having ongoing training and supports (or at least more than one session of training) would be optimal.
- **Training Outcomes:** The ‘criterion issue’ is a key concern in looking at training success. That is, what behaviours and individual, group, and organizational outcomes are critical to assess as consequences of training? How do we best set up and measure the outcomes related to these interventions, both in terms of proximal and more distal outcomes? To some extent, many organizations are currently engaging in such programs. However, the quality and the valid content of these programs must be ensured (e.g., the design must mitigate backlash). Pilot studies may be useful to flesh out the best ways to engage people in this regard.

The current review has provided new insights into the potential methodologies and content for interventions to support female leaders and to create more equitable and inclusive workplaces. Creating inclusive leadership and high functioning teams are in the organization’s best interest for numerous reasons, not only in terms of increasing the number of women in the pipeline for leadership roles and improved succession planning in organizations, but also in terms of creating positive and inclusive workplaces and supporting female leaders’ health.

This review also may help to start to create practical implications for enabling organizations to better support and train leaders in creating more inclusive cultures that support women in the workplace, while still allowing them to care for their health. Some recent work suggests that small tangible steps to reduce these psychosocial stressors can make a difference (St-Hilaire, in press). We integrate this work with our own work on leadership interventions to create a foundation to build new knowledge and best practices around gender equity and inclusion in the workplace.

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