Fall 11-1-2018

The Impact of Male Gender Dissonance on Women's Potential Eligibility for Advancement to the Position of High School Principal

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The Impact of Male Gender Dissonance on Women's Potential Eligibility for Advancement to the Position of High School Principal

A Dissertation by

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Irvine, California

School of Education

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership

November 2018

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The dissertation journey is one that I embarked on with the help of many. First, I would like to thank Dr. Marilou Ryder for providing me the opportunity to replicate her study 20 years later. Throughout this process, her encouragement, support, and advice has become invaluable. I will be forever shaped by this process and what I have learned through this study. I also want to thank my committee, Dr. Riley and Dr. Avila for providing support and valuable perspective to ensure this dissertation was quality work. Additionally, I would like to express my sincere gratitude to the 12 principals who took the time to share their lived experiences with me so this study could be possible.

I am incredibly grateful for the four members of the Menifee cohort that embarked on this journey alongside me. Thank you for the laughs, encouragement, support, and for becoming my family. A special thank you to Dr. Phil Pendley, our incredible cohort mentor. Dr. Pendley and his wonderful wife Laurie were there for us every step of the way. Dr. Pendley helped me become a better writer, researcher, and person. I will forever be grateful for this process because I had the opportunity to be mentored by one of the greatest leaders I have ever known.

To the staff at Santiago High School and my colleagues there that supported me through this process. A special thank you to my admin team, many of which embarked on this doctoral journey with me. I am grateful that we could encourage and support one another through this process.

A special thank you to my friends and family for your support through this entire journey. The love and encouragement I felt through this whole process from all my friends and family was what helped me get through the long nights and weekends of

writing. For the grandparents that helped entertain Jordan so I could write, I am forever grateful. To my mom, who has always been my biggest fan, your love and encouragement in everything I do pushes me to be better every day.

Most importantly, I would like to thank my two best friends, Tommy and Jordan. The two of you have sacrificed the most through this process so I could make my dream a reality. They say you should find a partner in life that supports your dreams and pushes you to be better, and I am fortunate to have that. Tommy, you have always pushed me to be the best version of myself and allowed me to chase whatever aspirations I have. I am so thankful for your love, support, and encouragement, and would not have been able to do this without you. Jordan, thank you letting me write "my book" and being an incredible, inquisitive, creative, adventurous, and patient young man. I look forward to the many adventures we get to take together as a family.

ABSTRACT

The Impact of Male Gender Dissonance on Women's Potential Eligibility for Advancement to the Position of High School Principal

by Kristen Harris

Purpose: The purpose of this qualitative, replication study was to discover what behaviors female administrators exhibit that may prompt male administrators with whom they work in California public education to demonstrate behaviors associated with gender dissonance and also to determine what impact these dissonant behaviors may have on women's potential eligibility for advancement to the position of high school principal.

Methodology: This qualitative phenomenological study examined the experience of six male and six female high school principals in Riverside County, California. Purposive criterion sampling method was applied to identify participants based on delimiting criteria. The researcher collected and coded data from in depth interviews.

Findings: Examination of qualitative data from the 12 high school principals were aligned to the four conceptual areas: role confusion, communication differences, cultural differences, and women's personal power. Findings show that females display specific behaviors associated with gender dissonance that cause men to exhibit dissonant behaviors. The majority of study participants concur that behaviors associated with gender dissonance impact eligibility for advancement to the position of high school principal.

Conclusions: The study supported the conclusions that women should manage their professional brand. Women need to focus on building one another up and supporting each other. Men still view women as imposters in the role of high school principal and

women feel the need to prove themselves in their role. Women need to be decisive when making decisions and stand by those tough decisions. The #MeToo movement has had unintended consequences on the educational administration environment. Women need to work on controlling emotions in the workplace and need to be more direct in their communication. Finally, the good ol' boy culture is prevalent in educational institutions. **Recommendations:** Eight areas of further research were recommended to increase the body of literature, including other replication studies with different populations.

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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

In the field of education women have historically been regarded as teachers, however many have moved up the ranks to leadership capacities, breaking the proverbial glass ceiling in educational administration. Over the last 40 years, women have made significant progress in the workforce and leadership, dissipating gender discrepancies that persist. Rosin (2012) pointed out that, despite the progress women have made, men have been in charge for thousands of years and barriers remain that need to be overcome.

Women have made progress in achieving gender parity in the workforce. According to the U. S. Department of Labor (2016), women have increased their presence in the labor force from 32.7% in 1948 to 56.8% in 2016. Over 51% of women in the workforce are employed in a position of management, professional, or other related occupation compared with 80% of men (Catalyst, 2017). At the current rate of change, it is estimated that by the year 2085 women in the United States will reach parity in positions of leadership (Catalyst, 2017). Women have also made strides in closing the gender gap in politics. According to Rutgers (2018), the United States has had 52 female senators, 23 of which are currently serving in 2018. Also, women hold 20% of congressional seats, 19.3% positions in the House of Representatives, three current Supreme Court judges, and seven presidential cabinet positions under the current administration (Rutgers, 2018).

Despite the dissipation of the gap between males and females with regard to representation in the workforce, females remain underrepresented in executive leadership roles (Hurley et al., 2016; Jardina & Burns, 2016). Over the past four decades, women have made strides in obtaining positions of leadership. There are currently 32 female

Fortune 500 CEOs, in addition 5.2% of S&P 500 company CEOs are female (Dickinson, 2017). The proportion of female CEOs at 6.4% is the highest reported in the 63 years that Fortune has been collecting data (Dickinson, 2017). This data shows that female CEOs are underrepresented, and the top positions of leadership are still held by men (Rosin, 2012). While women possess leadership skills necessary to be successful leaders they continue to face barriers to advancement (Buckner, 2011; Eckman, 2004; Grogan & Shakeshaft, 2010; Snedden, 2013).

Women now represent over half of the workforce; however, they are underrepresented in leadership positions (Wan Ismail & Al-Taee, 2012). This percentage is higher in female-dominated professions such as the education and healthcare sector where they account for 77.4% (Johns, 2013). Women have always found the field of education as a profession where they can experience financial autonomy and intellectual stability (Lewis, 2009; Weiler, 2009). According to Glass (2000), "teaching traditionally has been a preserve of women" (p. 1). Until recently women were excluded from professions such as engineering, law, dentistry, and medicine (Boyd, 1997; DiPrete & Buchmann, 2013).

Women dominate the ranks of teachers at approximately 75% of the teaching force, yet despite the number of women educators, the increase in the number of women obtaining positions in educational leadership is yet to be representative of their overall numbers in the profession (Sanchez & Thornton, 2010). Statistical data has been presented to provide evidence to the gender discrepancy in high school principal positions nationally. Women are more equitably represented as elementary at 64% and

middle school principals at 42%; however, women continue to be underrepresented as high school principals at 30% (Goldring, Gray, & Bitterman, 2013).

The National Center of Education Statistics (2013) reported that in 2011-2012, 72.6% of teachers in California were female compared with 76.3% in the United States. The California Department of Education (CDE) (2017) reported that in 2016-2017, 73.3% of teachers in California were female revealing that a gender gap in administration is still prevalent. According to a recent U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (2016) population survey in 2017, 60.5% of high school level teachers were women, compared with 78.5% at the elementary and middle school level. There is a persistent gender overrepresentation of women at elementary and middle school levels and a more equal gender parity at the high school level. Women have dominated elementary education, perhaps due to the perceived societal role of women as caring, nurturing, and collaborative (A. H. Eagly & Carli, 2007; A. H. Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Krüger, 2008; Weiler, 2009).

Women continue to face gender barriers when aspiring to the role of high school principal even though they are the dominant gender in the field. Education is a profession primarily run by women, yet led by men (S. L. Gupton, 2009). Results from the 2011–2012 Schools and Staffing Survey showed 64% of elementary principals were women, compared with 42% of middle schools, and only 30% in high school (Goldring et al., 2013). The percentage of female principals increased from 20% to 48% from 1988 to 1998 (Helterbran & Rieg, 2004). When it comes to the position of high school principal, the numbers change. The number of female high school principals has progressively

increased over the last two decades, from 14% in 1994, to 22% in 2000, 26% in 2004, doubling to 30% in 2012 (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2007).

The gender gap is narrowing in both the high school principalship as well as the superintendency. Blount (1998), reported that women occupied an estimated 3% of superintendent positions in the 1970s, which has increased to 22% over the last 40 years. This demonstrates that despite progress made, females continue to be significantly underrepresented as superintendents (Glass, 2000; S. L. Gupton, 2009; Paustian-Underdahl, Walker, & Woehr, 2014).

Women have thrived as leaders of schools. Rosin (2012) found that women are well matched with the qualities that make a good leader. Experts agree that women are now reaching leadership levels in organizations and have more career options than previous generations (Hacker & Kleiner, 1993; M. Tallerico & Blount, 2004). Even though women leaders are obtaining more positions in educational leadership, they continue to fall behind their male counterparts in obtaining top administrative positions such as high school principal and superintendent (Grogan & Shakeshaft, 2010; Walker, 2014). Although women are closing the opportunity gap, achieving gender equity in education continues to be an issue.

Women who have broken the glass ceiling in educational administration are insightful and have experience obtaining positions and leading in a realm historically reserved for men. An exploration of women in leadership remains a pertinent discussion as increasingly more women are overcoming barriers and entering the leadership ranks.

Background

The traditional roles that women have held in education have been transformed in recent years. Despite women historically being regarded as teachers, many have moved up the ranks to leadership positions such as principals and even superintendents. However, in spite of the increase in the numbers of women leaders in education, the numbers of women serving in educational leadership positions is still not representative of their overall numbers in the profession (Sanchez & Thornton, 2010).

Despite the dissipation of the gap between men and women in regard to representation in the workforce, females remain underrepresented in executive and educational leadership roles (Goldring et al., 2013; Hurley et al., 2016; Jardina & Burns, 2016; Johns, 2013; Wan Ismail & Al-Taee, 2012). Women possess leadership skills necessary to be successful leaders such as collaboration, shared power, and relationship building (A. H. Eagly & Carli 2007; A. H. Eagly & Carli 2003; A. H. Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Gill & Jones 2013); however, they face barriers in advancement (Buckner, 2011; Eckman, 2004; Grogan & Shakeshaft, 2010; Snedden, 2013).

Experts agree that women are now reaching leadership levels in education and have more career options than previous generations (Hacker & Kleiner, 1993; M. Tallerico & Blount, 2004). Although women are closing the opportunity gap, achieving gender equity in education has been a highly studied topic for decades. The main researchers studying women in educational administration have found that the school system faces gender inequity that results in women being less probable than men to obtain leadership positions (Jones, 2017; Malveaux, 2017; Olsen, 2007; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014; M. Tallerico, 2000; Young & McLeod, 2001).

Recent research and initiatives have identified a need to increase the number of women in educational leadership. Until recently, little consideration has been directed toward the difference between rates of promotion for men and women in school administration. The research of Young and McLeod (2001) found that the educational system is structured to ensure that women are less probable to obtain positions in leadership than men. Additionally, a study by Olsen (2007) found that school boards have a "think manager, think male" mindset that hinders females aspiring to the leadership positions in education. Findings such as these indicate that gender bias is present in hiring and promotional practices for female educational administrators, and that further research should be done regarding barriers that women aspiring to positions of educational administration face.

Gender Dissonance

The concept of gender dissonance is derived from cognitive dissonance theory, first introduced by Festinger (1957). Festinger's research identified that "inconsistencies capture our interest primarily because they stand in sharp contrast to the backdrop of consistency" (1957, p. 1). Festinger also replaced the term "dissonance" with "inconsistency" to describe the occurrence that emerges internally when an individual does not feel internal "consistency" and seeks to ratify this feeling. Festinger's research identified that dissonance is the feeling of being psychologically uncomfortable. He explains that when faced with dissonance, people are motivated to reduce this feeling through avoiding situations and information that contribute to an increase in dissonance (Festinger, 1957). While dissonance results in avoidance, Festinger also identified that dissonant feelings are reduced through changing the environment that created the

dissonant feelings, or the attitude or belief about what triggered the dissonance. Festinger's work is foundational for understanding gender dissonance and sets the stage for the theory to emerge.

Gender dissonance takes Festinger's (1957) cognitive dissonance theory and relates it to how gender plays a role in the formation of dissonant feelings. According to M. Ryder and Briles (2003), gender dissonance is the "subconscious discomfort, uneasiness or anger that men may feel when they work or interact with women" (p. 29). There are possible behaviors females exhibit in the context of work that cause their male colleagues to feel dissonance (Simpson & Stroh, 2004). When females demonstrate qualities outside of gender role expectations, male gender dissonance may take place, creating potential barriers to female advancement to leadership positions (M. Ryder & Briles, 2003).

Theoretical Framework

An understanding of gender theory helps explain how gender dissonance occurs in educational administration. The five theories presented provide an understanding to the interactions between men and women, gender expectations, and the perception of gendered behaviors by each gender.

Expectation states theory. Bales (1950) introduced expectation states theory to discuss status hierarchies. Expectation states theory provided a foundation for forthcoming social and gender theories to follow. The theory explains that men benefit from the influence, participation, and prestige that occurs in a small group setting as a result of their hierarchical gender status (Berger, Cohen, & Zelditch Jr, 1972). The

theory reinforces societal stereotypes and their impact on gender roles and expectations. There is a hierarchical expectation that men are the dominator and women should be dominated.

Social role theory. In the social role theory model, A. Eagly (1987) described a way to understand gender differences and similarities in societal gender roles and how women are expected to act in a social context. Social roles impact the gender division of labor, gender roles, and gender hierarchy (A. H. Eagly, Wood, & Diekman, 2000). Social role theory also explores how stereotypes are used to categorize people by gender (A. Eagly, 1987). Men and women will adjust to sexual roles and societal expectations, which can impact sex-differentiated behavior (A. H. Eagly et al., 2000). Social role theory helped define gendered social role expectations and brought light to the sex division of labor.

Role congruity theory. Similar to social role theory, role congruity theory expands on the societal view of gender roles. There is a prejudice that may occur against females obtaining leadership roles, as this is incongruent to societal stereotypes (A. H. Eagly & Karau, 2002). Role congruity theory discusses the violation of traditional social roles and the possible fallout that may occur as a result. In leadership, when females display masculine traits such as ambition, prejudice may occur (A. H. Eagly & Diekman, 2005). Women are faced with a challenge in obtaining leadership roles as masculine traits are determined necessary for leadership (A. H. Eagly & Carli, 2007). If women violate social roles by displaying masculine traits, this could result in a barrier to obtaining a leadership position.

Expectation violations theory. Burgoon and Hale (1988) describe expectation violations theory as anticipated communication methods that align with social role expectations. When a speaker violates the expectations of an audience, there may be positive or negative reactions based on the way it is received (Burgoon & Walther, 1990). Females can violate the expectations of an audience through communicating in a way that violates societal gendered expectations (Burgoon & Hale, 1988). Such violation can have a negative impact on the way information is perceived.

Gender role strain. The final gender theory presented is Joseph Pleck's gender role strain first introduced in 1981. The theory discusses how men feel when addressing gender roles and masculinity (J. H. Pleck, 1995). Pleck describes three types of strain men may experience as discrepancy, trauma, and dysfunction (J. H. Pleck, 1995). This theory may provide insight into the way men behave toward women in the workplace and will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter II.

Women in Education

Education has been perceived as a caretaking profession; supporting and promoting the role of women in society (A. H. Eagly & Wood, 2011). The role women played in early schools was closely aligned with their societal roles in the community. In the 1800s women cared for and taught children in school rooms, while a male principal handled disciplinary issues (Hoffman, 2003). Early female pioneers such as Catherine Beecher persisted to transform the traditional perception of women, working to increase opportunities in educational administration (Lewis, 2009). Despite the efforts of early female pioneers, women continue to be outnumbered in some areas of administration (Goldring et al., 2013). Many women have moved up the ranks to leadership capacities,

breaking the proverbial glass ceiling in educational administration. Such as in the business world, the gender gap is prevalent in educational leadership.

Women High School Principals

The educational workforce consists primarily of women, while most school administrators at the secondary level are men. Despite the increase in the number of women obtaining positions in educational leadership, it is yet to be representative of their overall numbers in the profession (Sanchez & Thornton, 2010). Women dominate the ranks of teachers at approximately 75% of the teaching force which is not proportionate to the number of women represented as high school principals in the United States at 30% (Goldring et al., 2013; National Center for Education Statistics, 2007, 2013; Sanchez & Thornton, 2010). Women are more equitably represented as elementary at 64% and middle school principals at 42%; however, women continue to be underrepresented as high school principals (Goldring et al., 2013). Women that aspire to advance to the role of high school principal face gendered barriers that continue to persist despite progress made.

The role of a high school principal is complex and ever-changing in the new era of educational reform requiring a leader equipped with the skills and abilities to effectively lead and change school culture regardless of gender. Eckman (2004) found there is no considerable variance in the leadership styles of male and female high school principals. Others have found the leadership styles of women are more collaborative, which have the potential to transform an organization (Buckner, 2011; Eckman, 2004; Grogan & Shakeshaft, 2010; Snedden, 2013). Researchers suggest that although women are the minority in the high school principalship, they are qualified and capable of

advancing to this position (Eckman, 2004; Hansen, 2014; Helterbran & Rieg, 2004; Jones, 2017; Kruse & Krumm, 2016; Malveaux, 2017).

Barriers to Advancement for Women in Educational Leadership

Women possess leadership skills necessary to be successful leaders; however, they face barriers to advancement. Despite women climbing the proverbial ladder and attaining leadership positions at higher rates, they continue to face challenges such as criticism over management styles, receiving less support from their (male) colleagues, and issues regarding work-life balance (Hurley et al., 2016). Both internal and external barriers including stereotypes, inequity in hiring practices, and work-family conflict impact potential female advancement to the position of high school principal.

Stereotypes. According to literature, there are barriers and challenges women face in advancing to positions in educational administration. Sanchez (2010) states that women "often have to work harder to prove themselves as leaders" (p. 5) due to the barriers and challenges that they face such as gender stereotypes. Society defines gender roles and stereotypes and categorizes males and females based on perceived gender differences. Results from numerous studies such as Baker (2014) and Sanchez on the topic of gender stereotypes lead to the conclusion that gender stereotypes negatively impact potential female eligibility for advancement to the position of principal.

Inequity in hiring practices. According to Sanchez (2010), there are "persistent inequities" (p. 3) in hiring practices that continue to exist because males in leadership positions make employment decisions. According to literature, one inequity is there are more males in decision making positions, such as central office superintendents and school board presidents which contribute to the existence of the "good-ol-boy network"

(Wallace, 2015, p. 46). Additionally, a study by Olsen (2007) found that school boards have a "think manager, think male" mindset that hinders females aspiring to the high school principalship (M. K. Ryan et al., 2016). Women aspiring to the position of high school principal need to overcome inequity in hiring practices that favor males to climb the ladder to obtain positions in educational leadership.

Work-family conflict. Literature also identifies work-family conflict as a gendered barrier for women aspiring to educational leadership positions. Experts agree that women have a higher tendency to put their families first at the expense of their career aspirations (Kelsey, Allen, Coke, & Ballard, 2014; Sanchez & Thornton, 2010). Loder (2005) suggests that women bear more responsibility in regards to the household and childcare than men. As a result, work-family conflict becomes a gendered barrier for women looking to advance their careers (Loder, 2005). Additionally, Loder suggests making the workplace more agreeable in regards to family care and policy to create equity and meet the needs of women. An emphasis on family policy in education is one strategy suggested by experts to overcome work-family conflicts for women.

Lack of mentors, sponsors, and networking. Mentors, sponsors, and networking are vital to the success of women in advancing to positions of leadership. Helterbran and Rieg (2004), suggest providing more mentors for female administrators. More women than men report having a mentor (Ibarra, Carter, & Silva, 2010). According to Ibarra, Carter, & Silva (2010) mentoring fails women because they are not leading to as many promotions as there are for their male counterparts. Rather, they suggest sponsorship. Sponsors go beyond giving career advice and feedback, sponsors help their mentees gain visibility which propels them to the next level of leadership

(Ibarra et al., 2010). Sponsorship within leadership organizations will create an inclusive culture where both males and females succeed (Ibarra et al., 2010). According to Sachs and Blackmore (1998), networking is often more challenging for females due to the need to consider and balance the demands of work and home. With fewer opportunities to network than their male counterparts, females continue to face barriers in obtaining new leadership opportunities.

Female misogyny and the queen bee. Female misogyny occurs when women begin to treat others negatively at work (Mavin, 2006). Women find it more problematic to relate and support other women in senior leadership positions and are frequently tougher on other women than men are (Mavin, 2008). According to Mavin (2008), women who have obtained senior management positions have destabilized the gender order by moving up the ranks. Many times, at work women hold other women to a double standard. They expect women to fulfill unrealistic expectations (Mavin, 2008). There is an expectation for a female that climbs the ladder to be a nurturer, rather than fall into the category for cruel female boss, causing sex role incongruity (Mavin, 2008). Bad behavior is expected from men, which reinforces the rightful place of men (Mavin, 2008). Women are expected to help one another succeed while men are expected to compete against one another (Mavin, 2008).

Queen bee may be the result of gender discrimination. As a result, the gendered experience and discrimination can hinder women in their advancement to positions of leadership (Derks, Ellemers, Van Laar, & De Groot, 2011). The queen bee is more likely to act like a man, taking opportunities from other women, as a result, making both male and female colleagues feel discontent (Mavin, 2008).

Four Conceptual Areas

Four conceptual areas based on areas of dissonance was presented in the previous work of M. Ryder (1998) and followed by Garzaniti (2017). Situations in which females exhibit behaviors that may prompt males to demonstrate behaviors associated with gender dissonance will be examined, aligning with the four conceptual areas presented.

Role confusion. As women assume more leadership roles in educational administration, the shift to encompass both male and female leadership styles can result in possible discontent and discomfort. Dissonance in the workplace may occur because males are uncertain how to act around women in the workplace (Annis & Gray, 2013). Annis and Gray (2013) describe that males are more comfortable around other males and may display feelings of hesitation in interacting with women in the workplace. Such confusion is amplified when women are considered for leadership roles, as this violates the male-dominated leadership structure (Campbell, Mueller, & Souza, 2010). Such dissonance may occur when women do not adhere to socially assigned roles.

Communication differences. Communication in the workplace is important to the way an organization functions. The way men and women communicate is different, as is the perception of the communication (Annis & Gray, 2013). Annis and Gray (2013) describes that men do not understand how women communicate, which is a cause of dissonance in the workplace. Also, incongruity may occur when females demonstrate masculine methods of communication such as self-promotion or bragging (Smith & Huntoon, 2014). In the workplace, misunderstood or unclear communication can result in dissonance.

Cultural differences. The preferred societal model of leadership is built around a masculine leadership capacity (Jonsen, Maznevski, & Schneider, 2010). This preference for masculine leadership gives males the dominant cultural advantage. When females are authentic in the workplace, they may face dissonance as a result of the lack of masculine traits in a male-dominated workforce (Annis & Gray, 2013). Although education is a female dominated industry, males dominate such roles as high school principal and superintendent (Gill & Jones, 2013). For females that aspire to positions in educational leadership, the male-dominated culture may work as a barrier.

Women's personal power. Women are impacted by internal barriers such as an absence of confidence, self-esteem or experience (Briles, 1996; M. Ryder & Briles, 2003). Women's personal power creates feelings within women that may result in feelings of dissonance in the workplace. To overcome such feelings, women need to overcome internal barriers though increasing confidence (Leo, Reid, Geldenhuys, & Gobind, 2014). Through increasing personal power, dissonance in the workplace should dissipate.

Statement of the Research Problem

Women have made progress in the achieving gender parity in the workplace, yet the gender gap persists in educational administration. According to the CDE (2017), 73.3% of teachers in 2016 are female. Subsequently, the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that in 2017, women represented 65.1% of education administrators. Although women appear to be achieving gender parity in the profession, a gender gap is prevalent at the high school level administrative level. According to the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics population survey in 2017, 60.5% of high school level teachers are women,

while in contrast, only 30% of high school principals are women (as cited in Goldring et al., 2013; National Center for Educational Statistics, 2013). Researchers agree that the education workforce consists primarily of women, yet the majority of high school administrators are male (Goldring et al., 2013; Helterbran & Rieg, 2004; Kruse & Krumm, 2016; Sanchez & Thornton, 2010; Superville, 2017).

Educational leadership is primarily seen as a 'man's world' where women are working with male administrative colleagues leading a predominantly female teaching staff (Helterbran & Rieg, 2004). Although researchers have identified that men may be recognized as more effective leaders (Carroll, 2006; A. Eagly, Makhijani, & Klonsky, 1992), others have found that female leadership traits are preferable (Conlin, 2003; R. Williams, 2012). And yet, Eckman (2004) found that there is no significant difference in the leadership styles of male and female high school principals. There is a continual stereotype that being a manager or leader is synonymous with being male (M. K. Ryan & Haslam, 2007), which puts women at a disadvantage when aspiring to the position of high school principal. Although women are the minority in the high school principalship, they are qualified and capable of advancing to this position (S. L. Gupton, 2009).

Women are more prepared for the position of high school principal because of instructional and curricular expertise due to more years in the classroom as teachers than their male counterparts (Glass, 2000; Helterbran & Rieg, 2004; Klein et al., 2014). These factors contribute to female principals serving as stronger instructional and educational leaders than their male counterparts (Costellow, 2011; Hallinger, Dongyu, & Wang, 2016; Krüger, 2008; Loder & Spillane, 2005; Teaching & Environments, 2009). Women tend to have a more democratic and collaborative leadership style (A H. Eagly & Carli,

2007). Researchers have found that the collaborative leadership styles of women, are preferable and have the potential to transform an organization (Buckner, 2011; Eckman, 2004; Grogan & Shakeshaft, 2010; Snedden, 2013). There is no lack of available, talented, and educated women that are capable of leading schools (S. L. Gupton & Del Rosario, 1998).

Women that aspire to advance to the role of high school principal face gendered barriers that continue to persist despite progress made. Despite women attaining leadership positions at higher rates, they continue to face challenges such as stereotypes, inequity in hiring practices, work-family conflict, lack of mentors, and female misogyny which impact potential female advancement to the position of high school principal. Results from numerous studies such as Baker (2014) and Sanchez (2010) lead to the conclusion that gender stereotypes negatively impact female potential eligibility for advancement to the position of principal. Experts agree that gender stereotypes negatively impact females aspiring to obtain leadership positions (Baker, 2014; Kelsey et al., 2014; Madsen & Longman, 2014). Because of gender stereotypes, women are not regarded as capable of holding and maintaining administrative positions, and these barriers have a direct impact on the number of women serving as principals (Young & McLeod, 2001).

Women are not afforded the same opportunities as their male colleagues in regard to obtaining positions in educational leadership (Young & McLeod, 2001). In the educational arena there are more males in decision making positions, such as central office superintendents and school board members which often contribute to the existence of the "good-ole-boy network" (Wallace, 2015, p. 46). Inequities in hiring practices

continue to exist because males in leadership positions often make the majority of employment decisions (Sanchez & Thornton, 2010), which perpetuates the hiring of men over qualified women. Male gender dissonance in educational administration has the potential to impact females' access to top positions of leadership since males hold the power to hire and are more comfortable working with other males (Annis & Gray, 2013).

Despite numerous studies that demonstrate that women bring leadership strengths to the table in educational administration, few studies have identified behaviors female high school principals exhibit that may prompt male high school principals with whom they work in California public education to demonstrate behaviors associated with gender dissonance (Buckner, 2011; Garzaniti II, 2017; Glass, 2000; Grogan & Shakeshaft, 2010; S. L. Gupton, 2009; Krüger, 2008; M. Ryder, 1998; Snedden, 2013). In addition, no research has been conducted to determine what impact these dissonant behaviors may have on women's potential eligibility for advancement to the position of high school principal in California.

Purpose Statement

The first purpose of this qualitative replication study was to discover what behaviors female administrators exhibit that may prompt male administrators with whom they work in California public education to demonstrate behaviors associated with gender dissonance.

The second purpose of this study was to determine what impact these dissonant behaviors may have on women's potential eligibility for advancement to the position of high school principal in California.

Research Questions

The following research questions were used to guide this research:

1. What behaviors exhibited by female administrators are perceived by selected high school principals as prompting male administrators with whom they work in a public education environment to demonstrate behaviors associated with gender dissonance?
2. How do selected high school principals feel dissonant behaviors exhibited by female administrators impact women's eligibility for advancement?

Significance of the Problem

Many questions remain unanswered after three decades of research regarding the underrepresentation of women in school administration. Researchers have presented evidence of underrepresentation and barriers women face in aspiring to positions of leadership. However, there is limited research regarding gender and the high school principalship. In addition, research is limited in providing insight into how gender roles impact women in advancement. Subsequently, there is limited research on the impact of male gender dissonance on the advancement of women to key positions of leadership. This study will contribute to the existing landscape of research and provide a greater understanding.

The effects of male gender dissonance impact females in the workplace because the discomfort felt causes males to be drawn toward working with other males (Annis & Gray, 2013). When women display qualities outside of the gendered norm, males feel a "subconscious discomfort" (M. Ryder & Briles, 2003, p. 29) which results in gender dissonance. Women that display masculine leadership qualities to assimilate into the

male dominated work environment violate role expectations (Campbell et al., 2010), which is another cause of male gender dissonance. In educational administration, this fosters the creation of the "good-ole boy network" (Wallace, 2015, p. 46) and creates an environment that excludes women based on gender. Women are underrepresented in the role of high school principal as a result of male gender dissonance.

Gender roles are thoroughly ingrained in our societal norms, and despite the amount of literature and studies that have brought awareness to such inequities, males continue to benefit from the system. According to Rosin (2012), "Men have been in charge for forty thousand years, women have been inching up for the last forty- there are still obstacles to be overcome" (p. 135). Despite progress, women are still underrepresented as high school principals. To close the gap, women need to leverage their gender strengths and challenge traditional gender expectations.

This replication study of M. Ryder's (1998) dissertation focuses on possible behaviors female leaders exhibit that cause their male colleagues to feel dissonance. M. Ryder concluded that gender dissonance is real and has an impact on women's potential advancement to leadership positions. M. Ryder sought to provide an awareness of dissonant behaviors so female leaders would not face barriers because of such actions; and therefore, be provided the same opportunities as their male counterparts. M. Ryder recommended that the study is conducted with principals to determine if the experiences are the same with a population in a different capacity and whether this would identify additional behaviors that would prompt gender dissonance.

The literature regarding gender dissonance is still minimal; however, has been updated since M. Ryder's (1988) study by Garzaniti in 2017. Garzaniti found that 18

years later, Dr. Ryder's findings were still valid. More importance needs to be placed on gender dissonance and the impact it has on dynamics within the workplace. In order to create an equitable working environment, both males and females need to gain awareness of dissonant behaviors and societal gender expectations in order to change perceptions and attitudes and avoid future dissonant feelings and behaviors.

Definitions

The following terms and their definition will be used in this study:

Agentic behavior. Behavior that is assertive, competitive, independent, and ambitious. Agentic traits are typically viewed as masculine and aligned with the role of a leader (Rudman & Glick, 1999).

Barrier. A condition or situation that presents an impediment, which could potentially hinder a woman from advancement to a position of leadership.

Communal behavior. Behavior that is kind, nurturing, emotionally expressive, and collaborative. Communal traits are viewed as feminine (Koch, D'Mello, & Sackett, 2015).

Communication. The verbal and nonverbal expression between people to exchange and share information, meaning, and ideas.

Culture. A set of characteristics, knowledge, beliefs, and attitudes of a group of people acquired over a period of time.

Female Misogyny. The concept of female misogyny differs from that of sexism in that is not about the hatred or contempt toward women, but rather, about controlling females that pose a challenge to male dominance. Misogyny can be manifested through male privilege, hostility, and exclusion.

Gender. A reference to males and females in regard to cultural and social differences rather than biological (Oxford Dictionary, 2018).

Gender Dissonance. The uneasiness or discomfort that males and females may feel when working together (M. Ryder & Briles, 2003).

Gender Roles. Behaviors that are set by society and culture that determine functions are appropriate to a particular gender. Conflict may occur when there is a discrepancy between the ideal concept of what is culturally associated with gender and the real self is portrayed (O'Neil, 1981).

Gender Stereotypes. Discrimination or bias based solely on characteristics, roles, or attributes assigned based on membership to a gender group. Stereotypes are qualities attributed to a group of people which can lead to beliefs about how members of a specific group should behave (Koch et al., 2015).

Glass Ceiling. A metaphor describing the invisible obstacle that precludes women from being promoted to upper levels of management regardless of their achievements or qualifications.

Glass Cliff. A metaphor describing situations where women are more likely than their male colleagues to achieve positions in which they are promoted to positions where there is greater chances for failure and criticism due to an organization in crisis or distress.

Glass Elevator. A metaphor describing situations where males acquire promotions to positions of management and climb the ladder in female-dominated professions (such as education and nursing) at a rapid rate.

High School. A comprehensive educational facility designed to educate students in grades 9-12 with the purpose of preparing students for college and career. In this study, high schools refer to comprehensive educational facilities, not alternative education, charter, or continuation schools.

Male Gender Dissonance. The uneasiness or discomfort that males feel when working with women. When females demonstrate qualities outside of gender role expectations, male gender dissonance may take place (M. Ryder & Briles, 2003). Gender dissonance can be exhibited in behaviors such as anger, frustration, confusion, anxiety or resentment.

Mentor. An individual who holds a level of expertise that guides and educates a less experienced person in their learning and development within an organization.

Principal. The person with the highest authority on a school site. Principals are approved and hired by the school board and report directly to the superintendent of the school district.

Sponsor. An individual that identifies high potential employees within the organization and assumes the responsibility for assisting that person with gaining recognition and credibility through promoting and increasing their visibility.

Delimitations

This study was delimited to California high school principals. Only principals who: (a) had a minimum of one full year experience as a comprehensive high school principal, (b) were knowledgeable of women's issues in educational leadership, and (c) exhibited strong verbal and non-verbal communication skills were asked to participate in this study. Furthermore, the study delimited to principals geographically located in

Riverside County, California. All interviews for this qualitative phenomenological study were conducted in person or via telephone and relied on the forthright communication of all participants in response to interview questions. Due to these restrictions, findings from this study were only generalizable to this specific population.

Organization of the Study

This qualitative phenomenological replication study was organized into five chapters with complementing references and appendices. The study was comprised of two research questions that provided the basis for a series of interview questions that were posed to participants at a location of their choosing. Chapter I of this study provided an overview of the social and historical context of the study as well as presented the significance of the problem, the problem statement, and the research questions. Chapter II provided an analysis of literature that pertains to female leadership at the high school level and the central purpose of the study. A review of gender theories and conceptual areas laid the foundation for upcoming chapters. Chapter III describes the methodology and design of the study. The chapter outlined study participants, methods utilized, instrumentation, data collection, study limitations, as well as data analysis. Chapter IV includes an analysis of the data collected in the study. Chapter V concludes the study with a discussion of the researcher's findings, conclusions, and recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter will situate this study within existing literature pertaining to women as high school principals and provide a historical perspective on women in the workforce and in positions of leadership. Despite the dissipation of the disparity between men and women in respect to representation in the workforce, females remain underrepresented in executive leadership roles (Jardina & Burns, 2016; Hurley et al., 2016). Women possess leadership skills necessary to be successful leaders; however, they face barriers in advancement (Buckner, 2011; Eckman, 2004; Grogan & Shakeshaft, 2010; Snedden, 2013).

Although women have historically been regarded as teachers, many have moved up the ranks to leadership capacities, breaking the proverbial glass ceiling in educational administration (J. L. Martin, 2011). Women dominate the ranks of teachers at approximately 75% of the teaching force, yet despite the number of women educators, the increase in the number of women obtaining positions in educational leadership is yet to be representative of their overall numbers in the profession (Sanchez & Thornton, 2010). Statistical data has been presented to provide evidence to the gender discrepancy in high school principal positions nationally. Women are more equitably represented as elementary at 64% and middle school principals at 42%; however, women continue to be underrepresented as high school principals at 30% (Goldring et al., 2013).

This review of literature addresses five gender theories as a theoretical framework to provide an understanding of how gender dissonance occurs in educational administration. Situations in which females exhibit behaviors that may prompt males to

exhibit behaviors associated with gender dissonance will be examined. Additionally, the goal of this literature review is to describe a historical perspective of women in the workforce and educational leadership and look at possible barriers impacting women's potential eligibility for advancement to the position of high school principal.

Gender Dissonance

The concept of gender dissonance is derived from cognitive dissonance theory, first introduced by Festinger (1957). In his research, Festinger identified that, "inconsistencies capture our interest primarily because they stand in sharp contrast to the backdrop of consistency" (p. 1). Festinger replaced the term "dissonance" to "inconsistency" to describe the circumstance that occurs internally when an individual does not feel internal "consistency" and seeks to ratify this feeling. Festinger's research identified that dissonance is the feeling of being psychologically uncomfortable. Dissonance occurs when information or an experience is incongruent with a person's prior beliefs (Drill, 2014). In order to respond to dissonant feelings, one must remain flexible and adaptive in order to resolve the discrepancy between their prior expectations and reality (Macrae & Bodenhausen, 2000). While dissonance results in avoidance, Festinger also identified that dissonant feelings are reduced through changing the environment that created the dissonant feelings, or the attitude or belief about what triggered the dissonance (Festinger, 1957). Festinger's work is foundational for understanding gender dissonance and sets the stage for the theory to emerge.

Festinger's (1957) research identified that it is easier for people to change their own personal attitude or beliefs. In the last decade, there has been an increase in the number of top management journals that explicitly cite Festinger's cognitive dissonance

theory to explain the effect of dissonance on management, decision making, and organizational behavior changes (Hinojosa, Gardner, Walker, Cogliser, & Gullifor, 2017). Additionally, as a result of his research, the concept of how to reduce dissonance through changing attitudes or beliefs has been the subject of a number of studies.

Gender dissonance takes Festinger's (1957) cognitive dissonance theory and relates it to how gender plays a role in the formation of dissonant feelings. According to M. Ryder and Briles (2003), gender dissonance is the "subconscious discomfort, uneasiness or anger that men may feel when they work or interact with women" (p. 29). There are possible behaviors females exhibit in the context of work that cause their male colleagues to feel dissonance (Simpson & Stroh, 2004). According to Caplow (1954), interacting with women in the workplace is a cause of anxiety for men. As a result, when females demonstrate qualities outside of gender role expectations, male gender dissonance may take place, creating potential barriers to female advancement to leadership positions.

Women in the Workforce

Women have played a critical role in the American workforce. Despite women historically being raised to believe their place was in the home, they entered the workforce as early as the 1900s for a plethora of reasons (Freedman, 2003; Roosevelt, 2017). Whether for a financial or personal purpose, women left the home to pursue jobs (Acemoglu, Autor, & Lyle, 2004). In the early 1900s, women only represented 18% of the workforce (A. H. Eagly & Carli, 2007). At this time, women in professional positions were viewed as an anomaly, with titles including their roles as females such as "female physician" (Collins, 2009). It was not until the 1960s that women started to shift their

vision for the future and began to envision their lives with careers (C. Goldin, 2004; C. Goldin & Katz, 2000).

The feminist movement of the 1970s created a push to eliminate the unequal treatment of women in the workforce, resulting in the creation of legislation to create gender equity (Ferree & Hess, 2002). In 1967, Title VII of the Civil Rights Act made it illegal in the United States to discriminate based on sex for employment bringing a change to discriminatory hiring practices (A. H. Eagly & Carli, 2003). The role of women in the workforce continue to transform beyond the feminist movement (Freedman, 2003). Women now represent 46.5% of the workforce; however, they are underrepresented in positions of senior leadership (Wan Ismail & Al-Taee, 2012). Women have increased their presence in the workforce from 32.7% in 1948 to 56.8% in 2016 (U. S. Department of Labor, 2016). This percentage is higher in female dominated professions such as the education and healthcare sector where they account for 77.4% (Johns, 2013). Although women have increased their presence in the labor force, few women have moved into blue-collar occupations such as construction, maintenance, and transportation (A. H. Eagly, 2009).

Since the mid-20th century, women have come into male dominated roles in vast proportions (A. B. Diekman & Goodfriend, 2006). Some occupations are deemed feminine, such as nursing, teaching, and secretarial work, and are occupied by more females than males (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014). Men have not entered female dominated professions at the rate at which females have entered male dominated professions, and as a consequence, the roles of women have changed more than male roles have changed (A. B. Diekman & Eagly, 2000). Although the gap is closing, and

women are represented almost equivalently in the workforce, they remain underrepresented in leadership roles.

Women in Leadership Roles

In the later part of the 20th century, women were represented in the workforce at greater rates, yet societal expectations of masculinity in leadership positions contributed to the gender inequity in higher levels of leadership (A. H. Eagly & Wood, 2011). Data from 2015 demonstrates, "only 24 percent of the CEOs of Standard and Poor's (S&P) 500 companies are women" (Hurley et al., 2016, p. 250). This shows that female CEOs are underrepresented, and the top is still male (Rosin, 2012). Despite the success women have had in mid-level management, few women persist to positions in the highest echelons of management (Cheung & Halpern, 2010; A. H. Eagly & Karau, 2002; A. H. Eagly & Wood, 1999; Ridgeway & Correll, 2004). Management roles in the United States have gained a more androgynous view in recent years (A. H. Eagly & Carli, 2003). While it is not abnormal to find gender balance in the workplace, women at the top are viewed as an irregularity, not the norm.

The underrepresentation of women in leadership positions has been attributed to barriers such as societal expectations and perceived gender roles. According to A. H. Eagly and Wood (2011), gender disparity in leadership roles exists due to the perception and expectation that leadership roles are masculine. This disproportion exists in large part to societal expectations which created the "glass ceiling" phenomenon preventing women from advancing to positions of leadership (Hurley et al., 2016). Women in leadership tend to face more scrutiny than their male counterparts. Female leaders that have seen success have a tendency to seek roles that do not provoke opposition to their

authority (A. H. Eagly & Carli, 2003). According to A. Eagly, Makhijni, & Klonsky (1992), women are evaluated less favorably than males when performing at the same level. In addition, some workers prefer to work for a male leader (A. Eagly et al., 1992). Preconceived expectations about women as leaders serve as a potential barrier because there is a perception that women are not able to meet the demands needed to be an effective leader (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014). In addition, there is a perception that there is a lack of women that are qualified and willing to lead.

There is a growing trend of higher educational achievement for women. Women are more likely than men to receive high school diplomas, bachelor degrees, as well as advanced degrees, and are represented at every level of higher education at a higher rate than males (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Koch et al., 2015). Women are more educated, earning 58% of bachelor's degrees, making them better situated to work in leadership positions (Cheung & Halpern, 2010; Ginder, Kelly-Reid, & Mann, 2016; Hurley et al., 2016). Additionally, females outnumber males in obtaining post-secondary degrees in all categories since May 2005 (Marklein, 2005). Education is crucial for females to obtain positions of leadership (Cheung & Halpern, 2010).

Although research has revealed that men may be perceived as more effective leaders (Carroll, 2006; A. Eagly et al., 1992), others have found that female leadership traits are preferable (Conlin, 2003; R. Williams, 2012). To complicate the issue, some organizations are seeking a "feminine" style of leadership, giving women a possible gender advantage (Conlin, 2003; R. Williams, 2012). Rosin (2012) found that women are well matched with the qualities that make a good leader. According to Paustian-Underdahl, Walker, and Woehr (2014), women are undervalued as effective leaders and

as a result they are underrepresented in elite positions of leadership. Experts agree that women are now reaching leadership levels in organizations and have more career options than previous generations (Hacker & Kleiner, 1993; J. M. Tallerico & Blount, 2004).

According to A. H. Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt (2001), males have dominated leadership roles and as a result of this, they have defined the styles and roles of a leader (A. H. Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001). Equally important, leader effectiveness should be based on the individual and not the gender of the person (Appelbaum, Audet, & Miller, 2003). Women that obtained leadership roles found the work meaningful and climbed the ladder one rung at a time (Cheung & Halpern, 2010). Some of the barriers that have previously existed prohibiting women from positions of leadership have eroded (A. H. Eagly & Carli, 2003). In the United States, progress toward achieving gender equality continues to be made (Koch et al., 2015). Although women are closing the opportunity gap, achieving gender equity in education remains an issue.

Women in Education

Women constitute the majority of teachers at all levels, dominating the teaching profession (Sanchez & Thornton, 2010). According to a recent U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics population survey in 2017, 60.5% of high school level teachers are women, compared with 78.5% at the elementary and middle school level (California Department of Education [CDE], 2017). Women have dominated education, perhaps due to the perceived societal role of women as caring, nurturing, and collaborative (A. H. Eagly & Carli, 2007; A. H. Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Krüger, 2008; Weiler, 2009).

Education has been perceived as a caretaking profession; supporting and promoting the role of women in society (A. H. Eagly & Wood, 2011). The role women

played in early schools was closely aligned to their societal roles in the community. In the 1800s women cared for and taught children in school rooms, while a male principal handled disciplinary issues (Hoffman, 2003). Early female pioneers such as Catherine Beecher persisted to transform the traditional perception of women, working to increase opportunities in educational administration (Lewis, 2009). Despite the efforts of early female pioneers, women remain outnumbered in some areas of administration (Goldring et al., 2013). Many women have moved up the ranks to leadership capacities, breaking the proverbial glass ceiling in educational administration (J. L. Martin, 2011). Next to business, education is one of the most sex segregated fields of employment (Bon, 2009). Such as in the business world, the gender gap is prevalent in educational leadership.

Women High School Principals

In education, women have been historically regarded as teachers, and not leaders. Women represent approximately 75% of the teaching force (Kruse & Krumm, 2016; Sanchez & Thornton, 2010; Superville, 2017), which is not proportionate to the number of women represented as high school principals in the United States at 30% (Goldring et al., 2013). Women are more equitably represented as elementary principals at 64% and middle school principals at 42%; however, women continue to be underrepresented as high school principals (Goldring et al., 2013; SASS, 2012).

In 2012, 30% of public high school principals were female, which has doubled from 1994 at 14% (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2007). The number has demonstrated a steady increase over the last two decades from 22% in 2000 to 26% in 2004 to 30% currently (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2007). The percentage of female school principals at all grade levels increased from 20% to 48% from 1988 to

1998 (Helterbran & Rieg, 2004). Women continue to face gender barriers when aspiring to the role of high school principal even though they are the dominant gender in the field.

Females have fewer entry points into the high school principalship, which impact career pathways into higher levels of educational leadership. In her book, *Women in Educational Administration,* Shakeshaft (1989) shares three career pathways for women in educational leadership. Figure 1 shows the career pathways presented by Shakeshaft for males and females in educational administration.

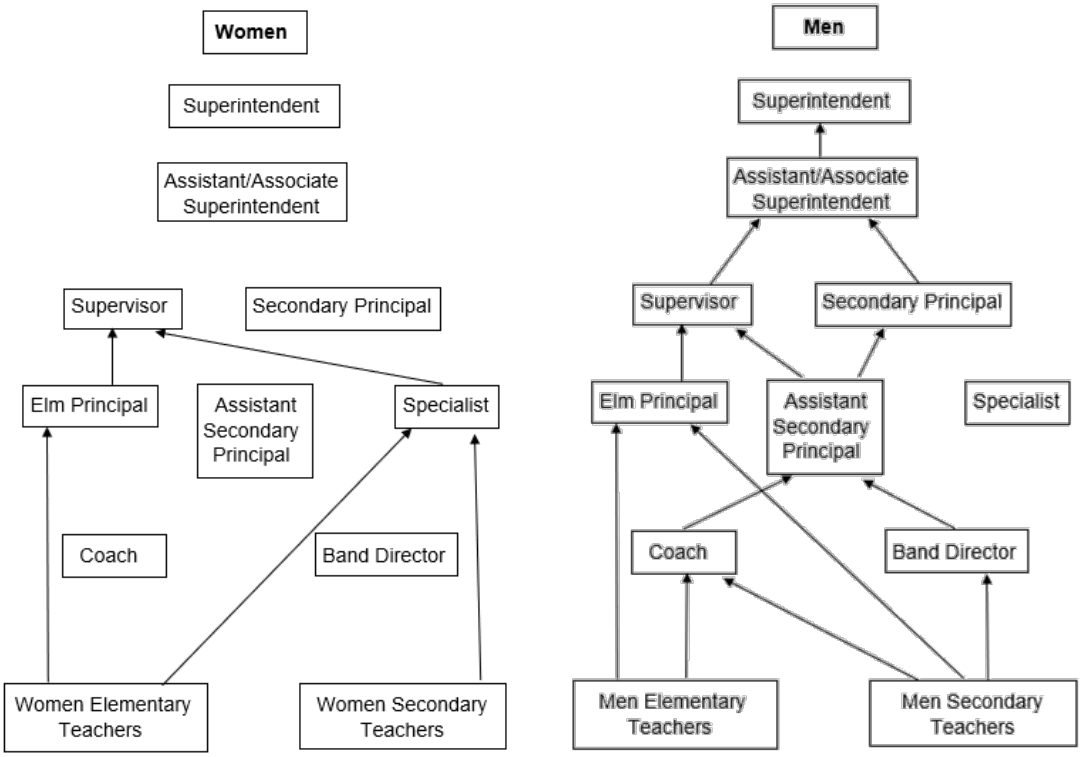

Figure 1. Pathways to Educational Leadership. Adapted from "*Women in Educational Administration,"* by C. Shakeshaft, 1989, p. 49. Retrieved from ERIC database. (ED341126)

There are three potential career pathways for females. The first leads to an elementary principal position, while the other two lead to a specialist position. The pathways depicted do not lead to secondary principal, assistant superintendent, or superintendent positions. On the other side, the male career pathway presents more

opportunities to reach secondary principal, assistant superintendent, or superintendent positions. One of these pathways includes coaching. Coaching provides an early stride toward administration, giving teachers the experience and opportunity to demonstrate leadership skills necessary for administration (Glass, 2000). In 2014, 22% of all head coaches for male and female sports were female in American intercollegiate sports (Acosta & Carpenter, 2014). This statistic is mirrored in most public high schools. Sixty-three percent of male superintendents previously served as coaches which bolsters the argument that coaching offers access to leadership positions such as the high school principalship (Brunner & Kim, 2010; Glass, 2000).

In order to eliminate barriers women face in educational administration, in the 1970s and 1980s equal employment policies were implemented and developed (Hakim, 2000). Federal legislation such as Title IX, Women's Educational Equity Act, and the Equal Pay Act have assisted in making educational administration more accessible to women (S. L. Gupton & Del Rosario, 1998). There is no lack of available, talented, and educated women that are capable of leading schools (Allred, Maxwell, & Skrla, 2017; S. L. Gupton & Del Rosario, 1998; Superville, 2017; Taylor, 2017). Women in education earn more doctoral degrees than their male counterparts and earn bachelor and master's degrees proportionate to their representation in the field (Allred et al., 2017). Despite progress made, women that aspire to advance to the role of high school principal face gendered barriers that continue to persist.

The role of a high school principal is complex and ever changing in the new era of educational reform. As education changes focus to encompass more than student achievement, high school principals have focused less on managerial tasks and more on

vison and leadership (Jackson, 2014; Jones, 2017; Tirozzi, 2001). A variety of initiatives including Every Student Succeeds Act of 2015, Common Core State Standards, Next Generation Science Standards, college and career readiness initiatives, the Local Control Funding Formula and Local Control and Accountability Plan, and reforms in discipline procedures currently impact the role of the high school principals and how they lead their schools (Jackson, 2014; Jones, 2017; Warren, 2014). This requires a leader equipped with the expertise and abilities to effectively lead and change school culture regardless of gender. According to Superville (2017), the pool of talent is deep with women. Women are educated and prepared for the position of high school principal. Currently, women represent over 50% of high school teaching personnel in the United States (Goldring et al., 2013). In addition, they earn advanced degrees proportionate to their representation in the field qualifying them for the position of high school principal (Allred et al., 2017). Although there have been significant improvements in recent decades, inequality persists in women in education (Ridgeway & Correll, 2004).

Impact on Eligibility for Advancement to Principal

Women face added barriers to obtaining leadership than men do, particularly in male dominated professions (A. H. Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001). In addition, despite women climbing the proverbial ladder and attaining leadership positions at greater rates, they continue to face challenges such as criticism over management styles, receiving less support from their (male) colleagues, and issues regarding work-life balance (Hurley et al., 2016). Both internal and external barriers including stereotypes, inequity in hiring practices, and work-family conflict impact potential female advancement to the position of high school principal.

Stereotypes

Stereotypes are qualities attributed to a group of people which can lead to beliefs about how participants of a specific group should behave (A. Eagly, 1987; Koch et al., 2015). In addition**,** stereotypes can restrict opportunities from members of groups that are identified as disadvantaged. Stereotypes also perpetuate social and societal arrangements identified (A. B. Diekman & Eagly, 2000). According to A. H. Eagly & Karau (2002), stereotypical expectancies can yield behavior conformation. Stereotypes are automatically activated (A. H. Eagly & Carli, 2003), and gender stereotyping is a natural process built on an individual's view of expectations and norms of society (Skelly & Johnson, 2011).

Experts agree that gender stereotypes negatively impact females aspiring to obtain leadership positions (Baker, 2014; Kelsey et al., 2014; Madsen & Longman, 2014). According to Gill and Jones (2013), to advance to high levels of leadership, females still need to confront stereotypes. One stereotype introduced by Kelsey (2014) builds the case that "successful leaders should portray masculine behaviors" (p. 3). In some cases, women have made the assumption that they need to model their leadership qualities after that of men (Baker, 2014). Assuming this, some women model their behaviors after qualities of their male counterparts, rather than leveraging their own leadership strengths (Baker, 2014; Kelsey, 2014).

Males differ from women in that they stereotypically strive for hierarchical positions, which implies a social structure where people differ in status (A. H. Eagly, 2009). Men are stereotypically more assertive, confident, powerful while women are typically more trustworthy, likable, and pleasant (Rudman & Glick, 1999). Men are

more likely than women to hold traditional stereotypes. In addition, males are more likely to interpret leadership as more masculine than feminine (Koch et al., 2015). Generally, males are more closely aligned with the stereotypical leadership role, which puts women at a disadvantage (Rudman & Glick, 1999).

In the professional setting, social roles play a significant role (Skelly & Johnson, 2011). Management roles have a common perception and stereotype of being masculine (Skelly & Johnson, 2011). Women are less likely than men to be perceived to hold the socially expected qualities of a leader, which creates a gender disadvantage (Skelly & Johnson, 2011). Male roles are more consistent with the role of a leader which can lead to bias and prejudice against women in leadership (Ayman & Korabik, 2010). However, when males and females hold the same leadership roles within an organization, the behavior is less stereotypical (A. H. Eagly & Johnson, 1990).

Stereotyping in hiring practices can occur well before promotion to a management position occurs. Stereotypes can come into play during the evaluation of resumes (Skelly & Johnson, 2011). When there is incongruence between the stereotypical requirements of job and gender expectations that can lead to gender bias (Koch et al., 2015).

Additionally, stereotypes influence the perception of work division such as the "feminization of clerical work" (Eddy & Cox, 2008, p. 70) which tends to exclude women, and therefore, work against women aspiring to obtain leadership positions. According to Young (2001), societal stereotypes contribute to women not having the same opportunities as men in regards to obtaining positions in educational leadership. Individuals are expected to conform to particular actions based on their gender, economic status, or demographic features (Skelly & Johnson, 2011).

Because of gender stereotypes, women are not regarded as capable of holding and maintaining administrative positions, and these barriers have a direct impact on the number of women serving as principals (Young & McLeod, 2001). Women may internalize their stereotypical role and as a result be less attracted to leadership roles (Eagly & Karau, 2002). When women fail to achieve positions in the highest ranks of management, this is referred to as the "glass ceiling" (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Skelly & Johnson, 2011). In the 1990s the glass ceiling phenomenon took flight as a metaphor to explain why women and minority groups lacked access to positions of leadership (Ayman & Korabik, 2010). The barriers identified in this literature review all serve to prevent females from advancing to the position of high school principal.

Inequity in Hiring Practices

There are inequities in hiring practices that continue to exist because males in leadership positions make employment decisions. According to literature, one inequity is there are more males in decision making positions, such as central office superintendents and school board presidents which contribute to the existence of the "good-ol-boy network" (Wallace, 2015, p. 46). Men generally have more authority which makes them more influential than women (Garcia-Retamero & López-Zafra, 2006). Males in decision making positions are more likely to exhibit a pro-male bias (A. H. Eagly, Karau, & Johnson, 1992; Koenig, Eagly, Mitchell, & Ristikari, 2011). Decision makers rely heavily on stereotypes to make hiring decisions (Koenig et al., 2011). In addition, men occupy a disproportionate number of positions relative to women in regard to power and authority (Dovidio, Brown, Heltman, Ellyson, & Keating, 1988; Garcia-Retamero &

López-Zafra, 2006). Because women have fewer opportunities for power or advancement, that is reflective of their lack of power (A. H. Eagly & Johnson, 1990).

Additionally, a study by Olsen (2007) found that school boards have a "think manager, think male" mindset (Eagly & Carli, 2003; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014; M. K. Ryan et al., 2016) that hinders females aspiring to the high school principalship. Boards are seeking to hire the 'ideal worker,' one who is not distracted by familial responsibilities (Mahitivanichcha & Rorrer, 2006). According to Mahitvanichcha and Rorrer (2006), children and families can be viewed as a liability to school boards. Women that are highly qualified still are less likely than men to be hired (Koch et al., 2015). As a result, women continue to be underrepresented in occupations of high pay and power (Carli & Eagly, 2001; Koch et al., 2015). Studies suggest that women aspiring to the position of high school principal need to overcome inequality in hiring practices that favor males in order to climb the ladder to obtain positions in educational leadership (Fuller, Pendola, & LeMay, 2018; Jones, 2017; Karamanidou & Bush, 2017; Watson, Hodgins, & Brooks, 2016; Weiner & Burton, 2016). Organizations are now becoming less hierarchical and more focused on results, seeking the most qualified people for positions. This works to eliminate "good ol boy" networks and other discriminatory or biased practices (Eagly & Carli, 2003).

Work-Family Conflict

Literature also identifies work-family conflict as a gendered barrier for women aspiring to educational leadership positions. Experts agree that women have a greater tendency to put their families first at the expense of their career aspirations (Kelsey et al., 2014; Sanchez & Thornton, 2010). There is a cultural belief that mothers are there for

their children at all times and this perception can serve to create an internal and external barrier for women aspiring to positions of leadership (Ridgeway & Correll, 2004). Mothers may face biases in the workplace more than women without dependent children. The stereotypes mothers face are more intense than those that women face in general (Borelli, Nelson, River, Birken, & Moss-Racusin, 2017; Ladge & Greenberg, 2015; Ridgeway & Correll, 2004).

The shortage of women in leadership positions has been attributed to the familial responsibilities that women hold or lack of motivation to obtain a position of leadership (Eagly & Karau, 2002). According to a study conducted by the Harvard Business Review, the gap of women in leadership is not because they are opting out of leadership roles to care for their families (as cited in Riordan, 2018). According to the study, the fact that mothers do not want demanding careers and that they value their careers less than their male counterparts is false (Riordan, 2018). In fact, only 11% opted to stay home and care for their family full-time (Riordan, 2018).

Child rearing is associated with women, while paid employment is associated with men (Eagly & Karau, 1991). Pregnancy and childbearing can have an impact on the division of labor due to responsibilities that women have for childcare and associated tasks during infancy (Johannesen–Schmidt & Eagly, 2002). Loder (2005) suggests that women take more responsibility in regards to the household and childcare than men. Culturally, women tend to shoulder more of the family work, putting in more time at home than their husbands (Risman & Davis, 2013). Although women that work spend more time in childcare and household tasks than males, women now spend less time on household responsibilities than they did 30 years ago (Barnett & Hyde, 2001).

One barrier for working women is a lack of spousal support (Cheung & Halpern, 2010). As a result, work-family conflict becomes a gendered barrier for women looking to advance their careers (Loder, 2005). Parenthood does not impact men as much as women in the workplace (Ridgeway & Correll, 2004). Women continue to take the primary care responsibility for children and household roles (A. H. Eagly, 2009). Working women work a "second shift" taking on familial responsibilities and tend to spend more time daily on household tasks than their male counterparts (Cheung & Halpern, 2010; Galinsky, 2005; Risman & Davis, 2013).

Motherhood provides a barrier for women aspiring to become high school principals. According to Glass (2000), many mothers choose to stay in the classroom and forgo a principalship while their children are young. Mahitvanichcha and Rorrer (2006) found that some women face discrimination for being married and having young children because this responsibility can compete with the high demands of a role in educational leadership. A lack of motivation for women to pursue leadership positions could stem from the reality of home and family responsibilities (Dunshea, 1998). According to Hoff, Menard, and Tuell (2006), 68% of female administrators waited to pursue principal positions until their children were grown due to challenges balancing requirements of the job and family life.

Having supportive family and friends is critical for women aspiring to obtain leadership positions or take on leadership roles (Cheung & Halpern, 2010; Superville, 2017). Although family remains the priority for women in leadership positions, success at work remains a critical element as it contributes to the support and well-being of their families (Cheung & Halpern, 2010). Additionally, Loder (2005) suggests making the

workplace more agreeable in regards to family care and policy in order to create equity and meet the needs of women. An emphasis on family policy in education is one strategy suggested by experts to overcome work-family conflicts for women.

Lack of Mentors, Sponsors, and Networking

Mentors, sponsors, and networking are vital to the success of women in advancing to positions of leadership. Experts agree that another strategy for women to overcome challenges and barriers is the examination and utilization of mentoring systems and networks for women (Brunner & Kim, 2010; Muñoz, Pankake, Ramalho, Mills, & Simonsson, 2014). According to Muñoz et al. (2014), a powerful mentorship network can position women to gain access to leadership positions. Munoz et al. assert that the "strength, value, and effectiveness" (p. 780) of mentorship programs should be explored in order to have the greatest impact. As a result of participation in effective mentorship networks, women find support, encouragement, and connections that can impact career trajectories for women aspiring to positions in educational leadership.

A recent study by Development Dimensions International (DDI) found that 80% of women in senior leadership roles had served as a formal mentor while only 63% of these women had a mentor themselves (as cited in Warrell, 2017). Helterbran and Rieg (2004), suggest providing more mentors for female administrators. More women than men report having a mentor (Ibarra et al., 2010). A study by Egon Zehnder in 2017 found that only 54% of women have access to a mentor or sponsor in their career (as cited in Warrell, 2017). According to Ibarra et al. (2010) mentoring fails women because they are not leading to as many promotions as there are for their male counterparts. Rather, they suggest sponsorship.

Sponsors go beyond giving career advice and feedback. Sponsors help their mentees gain visibility which propels them to the next level of leadership (Ibarra et al., 2010). A sponsor is someone on the inner circle that can advocate and influence decision making. Sponsors may put their reputation on the line to endorse someone for a position (Blade, 2017). The sponsor relationship can be built from trust in ability and potential and continuous positive interactions (Blade, 2017). According to research by McKinsey & Co., women in America tend to have fewer interactions with colleagues in senior leadership positions (as cited inHuang, 2016). Sponsorship within leadership organizations will create an inclusive culture where both males and females succeed (Ibarra et al., 2010). Social capital can be difficult for those outside of the power center (women and minorities) to gain (Riordan, 2018).

According to Sachs and Blackmore (1998), networking is often more difficult for females because of balancing the strains of work and home. With fewer opportunities to network than their male counterparts, females continue to face barriers in obtaining new leadership opportunities. According to a recent Women in the Workplace study by LeanIn.org and McKinsey & Company, only 44% of women think the best opportunities at work go to employees that deserve it the most (as cited in Blade, 2017). Women's networks are beneficial, but sometimes do not connect directly with influential decision makers within an organization (Blade, 2017). Women are more five times more likely to rely on a network that is primarily female (Roepe, 2017). According to the research by McKinsey & Co. most women's networks are female dominated (as cited in Huang, 2016). For both men and women, having someone higher up in the organization to help you make career decisions, guide you, make introductions, and navigate internal politics

is beneficial (Warrell, 2017). Research conducted and published by the Harvard Business Review suggest that women's conferences can increase income and positivity of attendees (as cited in Gowland, 2018). The research also revealed that women who attend women's conferences are twice as likely to receive a promotion within the year as women that do not attend (Gowland, 2018).

Female Misogyny and the Queen Bee

Female misogyny occurs when women begin to treat others negatively at work (Mavin, 2006). Female misogyny is defined as an inter-gender competition between women to gain a competitive advantage at work (Elliott & Stead, 2017). As a result, women find it more difficult to relate and support other women in senior management and are often harder on other women than men (Mavin, 2008). According to Mavin (2008), women who have reached positions in senior leadership have destabilized the gender order by moving up the ranks. Many times, at work women hold other women to a double standard expecting women to fulfill unrealistic expectations (Mavin, 2008). There is an expectation for a female that climbs the ladder to be a nurturer, rather than fall into the category for cruel female boss, causing sex role incongruity (Mavin, 2008). When a woman progresses in an organization or expresses a desire for advancement, this can invoke negative reactions (Elliott & Stead, 2017). These negative reactions can include exclusion, mistrust, and hostility in the workplace (Elliott & Stead, 2017). Bad behavior is expected from men, which reinforces the rightful place of men (Mavin, 2008). Women are expected to help one another succeed while men are expected to compete against one another (Mavin, 2008).

Queen bee may be the result of gender discrimination. The queen bee is a female personified as someone that stings others when their power is threatened (Elliott & Stead, 2017). As a result, the gendered experience and discrimination can hinder women in their advancement to positions of leadership (Derks et al., 2011). The queen bee is more likely to act like a man, taking opportunities from other women, as a result, making both male and female colleagues feel discontent (Mavin, 2008). The title of queen bee proves to be problematic, as it places women in a difficult position. While some women understand and acknowledge the barriers placed upon women's advancement to positions of leadership, they do not want to take the responsibility upon themselves and prefer an individualist approach (Mavin 2006).

Theoretical Framework

Gender roles can have an impact on the roles carried out by members of each sex (Eagly & Wood, 1999). People have a tendency to behave consistently with their gender roles and perceived gender roles have been internalized by society (A. H. Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001 ; A. E. Eagly & Wood, 1991). There are physical attributes between sexes that influence role assignments and the sexual division of labor (A. E. Eagly & Wood, 1999). Gender roles become internalized as part of personalities of concepts of males and females (A. E. Eagly & Wood, 1991).

An understanding of gender theory will help explain how gender dissonance occurs in the educational administration. The five theories presented will provide an understanding to the interactions between men and women, gender expectations, and the perception of gendered behaviors by each gender.

Expectation States Theory

Bales (1950) introduced expectation states theory to discuss status hierarchies. Expectation states theory provided a foundation for forthcoming social and gender theories to follow. The theory explains that men benefit from the influence, participation, and prestige that transpires in a small group setting as a result of their gender hierarchical status (Berger et al., 1972). The theory reinforces societal stereotypes and their impact on gender roles and expectations. There is a hierarchical expectation that men are the dominator and women should be dominated.

Expectation states theory describes how expectations are formed (Koenig et al., 2011). The theory emphases how the evaluation of others can impact their behavior in a self-fulfilling manner (Ridgeway & Correll, 2004). Sex has traditionally been aligned with power, prestige, and status. The social expectations of men and women can create a self-fulfilling prophecy where genders confirm the expectancy aligned with their perceived gender roles (Dovidio et al., 1988).

According to Wagner (1997), men are regarded as rational, dominant, and independent and women are regarded as emotional, submissive, and dependent (Wagner & Berger, 1997). Men are focused on task completion while women focus on the interpersonal aspects of interaction and relationships (Wagner & Berger, 1997). According to expectation states theory, women are found to be held to a higher standard than men and judged more harshly (Correll & Ridgeway, 2006). In addition, women who break the status hierarchy established by taking on an assertive role, are more likely to be

ignored by members of the group (Reid, Palomares, Anderson, & Bondad-Brown, 2009). As a result, women must perform better than men in order to be judged equally (Ridgeway & Correll, 2004).

Some tasks are viewed as female and others are considered male. An example of a feminine task would include sewing or childcare, while a masculine task would consist of automobile repair or construction. When performing a feminine task, females tend to have the advantage. On the other hand, when performing a male task, males have the advantage and can be reflected in their higher status (Wagner & Berger, 1997). In an interaction between mixed sexes, men typically have the higher status (Wagner & Berger, 1997). Males often emerge as task leaders, while women are socioemotional leaders (Wagner & Berger, 1997). Men tend to assert their status and use their work within a group to leverage gains from the activities and outcomes (Wagner & Berger, 1997). In work, women have a preference for equality, while men prefer equity (Wagner & Berger, 1997).

Strong emotions such as anger can indicate that an individual is more competent, therefore, entitling them to more power and a higher social status (Brescoll & Uhlmann, 2008). It is expected socially that males should not cry, and females should not demonstrate anger (Brescoll & Uhlmann, 2008). The gender system is ever-changing and redefines who men and women are and what they do, ultimately maintaining the supposition that men are more powerful (Ridgeway & Correll, 2004).

Social Role Theory

In the social role theory model, A. Eagly (1987) described a way to understand gender differences and similarities in societal gender roles and how women are expected

to act in a social context. Social roles impact the gender division of labor, gender roles, and gender hierarchy (A. B. Diekman & Eagly, 2000). According to social role theory, there are shared behavioral expectations applied to individuals based solely on their sexually assigned social gender roles. Based on this, people are expected to conduct themselves in a manner aligned with the gender roles assigned to their sex by society (Karau & Eagly, 1999). Social role theory also explores how stereotypes are used to categorize people by gender (A. Eagly, 1987). Men and women will adjust to sexual roles and societal expectations, which can impact sex differentiated behavior (A. H. Eagly et al., 2000). Social role theory helped define gendered social role expectations and brought light to the sex division of labor.

According to social role theory the distribution of males and females into gender roles stem from expectations of individuals as a man and woman (A. B. Diekman & Goodfriend, 2006). There is a connection between the actions people engage in and the way they perceive life (A. H. Eagly & Karau, 2002). Gender roles are derived from the perception of what people witness in society. In everyday life, people witness males engaging in more paid employment and females engaging in domestic work (A. H. Eagly, 2009). According to social role theory, some people prefer occupations that favor qualities depicted by their gender which creates a self-actualization of gender roles. This explains why men and women are more attracted to occupations as a gender. For example, 98% of secretaries are women, while 98% of automobile mechanics are men (Cejka & Eagly, 1999). Women are traditionally aligned with family roles such as homemakers (Karau & Eagly, 1999). On the other hand, men are concentrated in roles of greater status and power (Karau & Eagly, 1999).

Leadership roles compete with gender roles. Social role theory predicts that sexually assigned roles should recede in a management perspective because the roles of an organization should precede gender roles (A. H. Eagly & Wood, 1991). In their meta-analysis, A. H. Eagly, Karau, & Makhijani (1995) discovered that leaders were more effective when they were in a leadership role that was congruent to their perceived gender role.

The concept of communal and agentic association with genders is a worldwide cultural understanding (A. H. Eagly, 2009). Women are associated as communal and men are viewed as more agentic (A. H. Eagly & Karau, 1991; A. H. Eagly et al., 2000; Karau & Eagly, 1999; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014; Ridgeway & Correll, 2004; Rudman & Glick, 1999). Agentic traits include being competent, assertive, confident, aggressive, and task-oriented (Karau & Eagly, 1999). Communal qualities include being friendly, unselfish, concerned with the feelings of others, and interpersonal (Karau & Eagly, 1999). According to A. H. Eagly (2009), communion refers to the connection with others and agentic refers to self-assertion (A. H. Eagly, 2009).

According to A. H. Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt (2001), in the workplace agentic behaviors include influencing others, speaking in an assertive manner, initiating the assignment of tasks, and vying for attention. Communal qualities in the workplace include speaking in a tentative capacity, accepting direction from others, supporting others, and assisting with relational and interpersonal concerns (A. H. Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001). Males are more agentic, dominant, ambitious, dependent, and confident (A. H. Eagly & Karau, 2002; Koch et al., 2015). In addition, men tend to be more aggressive and agentic in their social behavior (Amanatullah & Morris, 2010).

The agentic qualities assigned to males is aligned with a higher social status, and as a result, communal qualities are not as favorably selected (A. H. Eagly, 2009).

Women are more socially sensitive and pleasant and have a propensity to bond with others and develop caring relationships (A. H. Eagly, 2009; A. H. Eagly & Johnson, 1990). In addition, females are also affectionate, expressive, and express interdependence with others (A. H. Eagly, 2009). Women are viewed as less competent but better at less respected communal tasks (Ridgeway & Correll, 2004). Women must display masculine, agentic, qualities to qualify for stereotypically male roles, yet, they may be discriminated against for doing so (Koch et al., 2015). A woman who possess too many agentic qualities may be viewed as too masculine (A. H. Eagly & Carli, 2003). Some researchers propose that although women are not losing their feminine qualities, they are becoming more masculine and agentic in their attributes (A. H. Eagly & Carli, 2003).

If women engage in agentic behaviors that are incongruent with their gender roles, it could result in feelings associated with dissonance. On the other hand, when women engage in communal behaviors, it is viewed as incongruent with the role of a leader (Karau & Eagly, 1999). There is inconsistency between communal qualities assigned to their gender role, and the agentic qualities necessary to succeed as a leader (A. H. Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001). When a woman negotiates on behalf of herself, it is viewed as incongruent with the communal aspects of the gender role (Amanatullah & Morris, 2010).

When a woman in management leads with agentic traits or asserts authority, they may face resistance or hostility in the workplace as an implicit bias (Ridgeway & Correll,

2004). Women who are effective leaders generally display agentic qualities in violation of their gender role and as a result can be unfairly judged for their lack of communal attributes (A. H. Eagly & Karau, 2002). Female dominated professions favor a more communal style (A. H. Eagly & Wood, 1999). Women are rare in occupations such as firefighter, police officer, and soldier which are agentic driven occupations that are designed to protect and serve the community. Women tend to dominate communal occupations, such as teaching, nursing, and social work, which emphasize caring for people (A. H. Eagly, 2009). Women have become more agentic as they have stepped into more leadership roles (A. H. Eagly, 2009). Female leaders may face a form of prejudicial reactions as a result of leader stereotypes being incongruent with communal qualities associated with females (A. H. Karau & Eagly, 1999).

Since agentic traits are typically viewed as more aligned with the role of a leader (Rudman & Glick, 1999) women are at a disadvantage because they are stereotypically viewed as less agentic than men (Rudman & Glick, 1999; Skelly & Johnson, 2011). In order to achieve high status within an organization, agentic qualities such as assertiveness is desired (A. H. Eagly & Carli, 2003). Furthermore, because leadership is traditionally agentic (Karau & Eagly, 1999), there is a notable incongruity of the gender expectation of communal qualities, and the expectation of assertive, agentic qualities from leaders (Karau & Eagly, 1999). Characteristics of an upper level management position are often aligned with agentic qualities which can lead to gender bias for women (Koch et al., 2015).

Role Congruity Theory

Role congruity theory comes from social role theory which argues that gender role expectations stem from the sex-based division of labor (A. Eagly, 1987; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014; Wood & Eagly, 2012). Similar to social role theory, role congruity theory expands on the societal view of gender roles. Role congruity theory takes social role theory a step further maintaining that individuals are often penalized when they fail to obey expectations that society puts forth (Skelly & Johnson, 2011). There is a prejudice that may occur against females obtaining leadership roles, as this is incongruent to societal stereotypes (A. H. Eagly & Karau, 2002). Because of the incongruity between the female gender role and the masculine leadership role, role congruity theory posits that there is a prejudice against female leaders as a result (Garcia-Retamero & López-Zafra, 2006).

Role congruity theory discusses the violation of traditional social roles and the possible fallout that may occur as a result. In leadership, when females display masculine traits such as ambition, prejudice may occur (A. H. Eagly & Diekman, 2005). As a result women are faced with a challenge in obtaining leadership roles as masculine traits are determined necessary in leadership (A. H. Eagly & Carli, 2007). If women violate social roles by displaying masculine traits, this could result in a barrier in obtaining a leadership position.

Women will avoid behaviors that are incongruent with their gender roles in order to abstain from backlash, yet they do not put themselves in position of power to do so (Amanatullah & Morris, 2010). When females exhibit dominant behavior, they are viewed as hostile or irrational, and are less likely than males to be regarded positively

(Amanatullah & Morris, 2010; A. B. Diekman & Goodfriend, 2006). The literature reports that women that succeed at masculine tasks are perceived as hostile and less likable (A. B. Diekman & Goodfriend, 2006). In addition, when women self-promote or speak in a dominant manner, there is a greater chance for negative penalties as a result of the violation (A. B. Diekman & Goodfriend, 2006). Role congruity theory is applied to men in cases where males occupy roles that are highly communal, which is incongruent with agentic, masculine qualities associated with the gender role (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014). When there is a mismatch between beliefs about how a group should behave and the attributes of a social group, role incongruity may occur (A. H. Eagly & Diekman, 2005).

Role congruity theory suggests that there is a prejudice against female leaders due to an incongruity between what the perceived gender roles and characteristics of women are and the qualifications of a successful leader (A. H. Eagly & Diekman, 2005; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014). According to role congruity theory, males may be viewed as more effective in male dominated positions due to the masculine expectation on the role (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014). On the other hand, Foschi (2000) asserted that a female that achieves a top-level position in a male dominated profession demonstrates she is competent to have succeeded to the high-status role, which speaks highly to her competency and success.

When there is a misalignment with perceived gender roles, role congruity theory predicts there will be a devaluation as a result. When characteristics align with social roles, social role theory predicts rewards as a result (A. B. Diekman & Goodfriend, 2006). Role congruity theory helps to describe how gender roles and leadership roles

converge to generate prejudice against females in leadership and an inclination for male leaders (Ritter & Yoder, 2004).

Expectancy Violations Theory

Expectancy violation theory sets a general expectation for how others behave and as a result, how social information is processed (Johnson & Lewis, 2010). Burgoon and Hale (1988) describe expectancy violation theory as anticipated communication methods that align with social role expectations. When a speaker violates the expectations of an audience, there may be positive or negative reactions based on the way it is received (Burgoon & Walther, 1990). Females can violate the expectations of an audience through communicating in a way that violates societal gendered expectations (Burgoon & Hale, 1988). Such violation can have a negative impact on the way information is perceived.

Expectancies frame interactions between individuals. People plan for a communication encounter with another person based on the communication style they expect from that person (Burgoon, 1993). General expectations for behavior are based on social norms. For example, a general expectation is that people say thank you after receiving a gift (Johnson & Lewis, 2010). The content of expectancies must be specific to a culture, while structure is common to all cultures (Burgoon, 1993).

There are a variety of factors associated with expectancy violations. These include the speaker's sex, the relationship between the speaker and the listener, and the formality of the situation (Johnson & Lewis, 2010). When someone is attractive or familiar, they are more likely to be accepted in close proximity. On the other hand, a

stranger or undesirable person is deemed as threatening, and close proximity is unwelcome (Burgoon, 1993).

In expectation states theory, individuals are judged on expected beliefs of what is considered appropriate behavior for a given situation (Myers & Sadaghiani, 2010). When a communicator engages in behavior that is in violation of what is expected, expectancy violations theory claims that the violation will distract from the issue at hand towards the violation and the violator (Burgoon, 1993). Behavior that falls outside of the expected range can result in either positive or negative outcomes. When a violation occurs, attention can be drawn to the violation, away from the conversation resulting in a social evaluation of the person committing the violation (Johnson & Lewis, 2010). In addition, when there is a violation, further responses toward the person making the violation are affected (Myers & Sadaghiani, 2010).

Stereotypically, women are expected to be more modest and kind than their male counterparts and when women violate these feminine norms, they can evoke negative responses from others (Brescoll & Uhlmann, 2008). When people act against their stereotypical roles, they break expectancy violations which can provoke negative reactions (Brescoll & Uhlmann, 2008). Because of gender role violation, women have a greater tendency to face greater levels of disapproval and negative reactions than males (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014). When both men and women fear they have violated their prescribed gender roles, they tend to hide their behavior from others around them to avoid potential backlash (Amanatullah & Morris, 2010). In addition, expectancy violation theory states that individuals that are in violation are evaluated in a harsher

manner. According to this theory, females that outperform expectations could be evaluated more harshly (Skelly & Johnson, 2011).

Gender Role Strain

The final gender theory presented is Joseph Pleck's gender role strain first introduced in 1981. The theory discusses how men feel when addressing gender roles and masculinity (J. H. Pleck, 1995). Gender role strain is tension caused by gender role conflict displayed as either physical or mental (O'Neil, 1981). Gender role conflict occurs when there is a discrepancy between the ideal concept of what is culturally associated with gender and the real self-portrayed (O'Neil, 1981). In addition, role conflict occurs when there is an occasion when a person is out of place in a situation (West & Zimmerman, 1987). As a result, gender role strain provides negative emotions (Joon Jang, 2007). Females are more likely to have strain related to gender discrimination (Joon Jang, 2007).

When both men and women work, it is reported that men only do a fraction of household tasks (J. H. Pleck, 1977). Men are more likely to assist in childcare than other household tasks (J. H. Pleck, 1977). According to O'Neil (1981), men may face gender role conflict when performing domestic tasks such as housework or childcare. There is a demand to equitably share family work as more women hold higher status positions (J. H. Pleck, 1977). Historically, males were validated by being the breadwinner in the household, which support the masculine gender role. As a result, women are segregated into lower paying, lower status positions that perpetuate the gender role (J. H. Pleck, 1977).

Four Conceptual Areas

Four conceptual areas based on examples of dissonance was presented in the previous work of M. Ryder in 1998. Situations in which females exhibit behaviors that may prompt males to demonstrate behaviors associated with gender dissonance will be examined, aligning with the four conceptual areas presented.

Role Confusion

As women assume more leadership roles in educational administration, the shift to encompass both male and female leadership styles can result in possible discontent and discomfort. Dissonance in the workplace may occur because males are uncertain how to act around women in the workplace (Annis & Gray, 2013). Annis and Gray (2013) describe that males are more comfortable around other males and may display feelings of hesitation in interacting with women in the workplace. Such confusion is amplified when women are considered for leadership roles, as this violates the male dominated leadership structure (Campbell et al., 2010). Such dissonance may occur when women do not adhere to socially assigned roles. See Appendix A which outlines the role confusion concept and provides further background into its dissonance areas.

Expressions of sexuality. Women may feminize their behavior to increase their likeability and influence (A. H. Eagly & Carli, 2003). The use of overtly feminine characteristics or use of a sexual edge may be a cause of dissonance for males at work. Males may see this as a way for women to get something from them, and this may cause discomfort, negative feelings, or anger. This may also include wearing provocative attire such as sheer or low-cut tops. Current leadership studies conducted report that women should not act or dress overtly cute or sexy at work in an effort to maintain

professionalism (Gurung, Punke, Brickner, & Badalamenti, 2018; Howlett, Pine, Cahill, Orakçıoğlu, & Fletcher, 2015; Sanz, 2016) and avoid feelings of dissonance in the workplace. M. Ryder and Briles (2003) also suggest that women eliminate the use of sexually suggestive behaviors to get and stay ahead in their careers.

Research conducted at Harvard Medical School found that people evaluate a person's competence and trustworthiness based only on their appearance in a quarter of a second (as cited in Gowland, 2017). Many professional women seek to change their appearance to achieve an "executive presence" in hopes they will be judged on their work and substance and not their sexuality or appearance. Women may adjust their appearance to be advantageous for their audience. For example, when meeting with more conservative men, a woman may dress more feminine. Women may also adjust their appearance to address other biases such as age, race, or gender presentation (Gowland, 2017).

Men worry about sexual harassment and may worry about what constitutes sexual harassment at work. Some men are faced with apprehensive feelings around working with women that can surface at any moment (Annis & Gray, 2013). According to a Gallup poll in October 2017, 42% of women said they had been a victim of sexual harassment (as cited in Bowman, 2018). The numbers change when there is a focus on harassment within the workplace. In an ABC News/Washington Post poll in October of 2017, 23% of women polled said they had experienced sexual advancement from a man who had influence over their work situation (as cited in Bowman, 2018). The definition of harassment is viewed in similar terms by both genders. Harassment is viewed as aggressive, threatening, or lewd behavior (Bowman, 2018). On the other hand, flirtation

in most cases is not viewed as harassment (Bowman, 2018). According to a survey, 29% of women believe that a man commenting on her attractiveness is viewed as harassment compared with 25% of men (Bowman, 2018). Sexual harassment laws have hindered women in the workplace to some degree. There is now concern over innocent gestures being misconstrued as harassment. The 2017 #MeToo Movement has increased awareness for the treatment of victims of sexual harassment in the workplace. The #MeToo Movement has had negative implications for men and women in the workplace as a result of a lack of training and understanding of what constitutes inappropriate behavior in the workplace (Riordan, 2018). In addition, professional relationships between men and women are under scrutiny for fear of what outsiders will think. The uncertainty, fear, and distrust are could lead to dissonance in the workplace. Policies exploring how we can eliminate gender friction need to be explored (Dunshea, 1998).

Sex role socialization. Men have been socialized by society to be the providers for their families and aspire to leadership roles. This is consistent with traditional gender socialization (Glass, 2000). For example, males value material success where females value relationships (Joon Jang, 2007). In addition, women are viewed as more nurturing than men (Barnett & Hyde, 2001). According to Garcia-Retamero & Lopez-Zafra (2006) qualities of leadership have been most often aligned with men. There are inherent roles that women play in society that are barriers to achieving positions in leadership (Cheung & Halpern, 2010). According to Mavin (2008), masculinity and femininity are not fixed concepts, but rather change depending on the cultural and historical meaning we assign to the situation. When they are culturally assigned as polar opposites, it perpetuates the gender sex role stereotype (Mavin, 2008).

Educational leadership is largely seen as a ‘man's world’ where women are working with male colleagues leading a predominately female teaching staff (Helterbran & Rieg, 2004). The research is clear; men are more comfortable working with other men (Annis & Gray, 2013; Gino, 2017; Levy, 2017). As a result, women tend to downplay their gender role when obtaining leadership positions in the presence of men in order to assimilate (M. K. Ryan & Haslam, 2007). In addition, women must develop commonalities with their male colleagues to fit in (Bryans & Mavin, 2003). Research also demonstrates that women are often judged at a higher standard than their male colleagues (Johns, 2013).

Anger in a woman is viewed as internal, caused by a lack of control. On the other side, anger in males is viewed as external, something that is instigated by an outside situation. Because of this, when a woman demonstrates anger, it is a part of her personality, however when this occurs in a male, it is a result of an external circumstance out of their control (Brescoll & Uhlmann, 2008). In the workplace, a woman that demonstrates anger can be perceived as less competent because her personality is not capable of dealing with situations within the workplace (Brescoll & Uhlmann, 2008).

Differing leadership skills between men and women. Femininity and leadership are no longer considered incompatible. Females fall under pressure to assume the stereotypical leadership styles of males (A. H. Eagly & Johnson, 1990), because leadership has been historically a male endeavor, requiring masculine qualities (A. H. Eagly & Carli, 2003). Despite organizational forces requiring similar outcomes from leaders, male and female managers may act differently (A. H. Eagly & Johnson, 1990). Male principals are more assertive whereas female principals are more caring (Oplatka &

Atias, 2007). According to Oplatka and Atias (2007), males lead with control and punishment. Males have a more task-oriented leadership style, while women have a more interpersonally focused style (A. H. Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt , 2001). Women are more democratic in their leadership than men are (A. H. Eagly & Wood, 1991).

Research shows that female principals have a more nurturing style and tend to involve teachers and develop others professionally than male principals (Krüger, 2008). In addition, female principals focus on building a positive culture whereas males tend to be more focused on administrative tasks (Krüger, 2008). Women are often more cheerful, sophisticated, thoughtful of the feelings of others, which are traits associated with managerial success (M. K. Ryan & Haslam, 2007). Female principals are stronger instructional and educational leaders than their male counterparts (Kruger, 2008). According to Ylimaki (2007), principals need to have strong instructional experience in order to impact student achievement.

Women have a more democratic and collaborative leadership style (A. H. Eagly, 2007). Women have a leadership advantage because they have adopted a collaborative leadership style which is in contrast to the command and control power that male's exhibit in leadership (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014). Leadership roles that require high levels of collaboration and participation are considered highly feminine (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014). Female leaders have a preference for cooperation over competition which supports the needs of modern organizations. Women have a tendency to be less hierarchical than their male equivalents (A. H. Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001). A more equality based leadership model as opposed to hierarchical is preferred (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014).

Females lead through cooperation, collaboration, intuition, and empathy and are more sympathetic and concerned for the feelings of others (A. H. Eagly & Johnson, 1990). In contrast, male principals have a more aggressive leadership style aimed at gaining power and support from those internally and creating external contacts (Kruger, 2008). Men are viewed as being in control of their environment (A. H. Eagly & Johnson, 1990). Female leaders have a tendency to be less hierarchical and more collaborative. They also have a tendency to encourage and increase the self-worth of others (Garcia-Retamero & López-Zafra, 2006).

Previous studies and research on this topic have changed preconceived bias about the leadership abilities of females (Johns, 2013). Women are viewed as having greater transformational leadership skills (Ayman & Korabik, 2010; A. H. Eagly & Carli, 2003; A. H. Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001). Transformational leaders appeal to followers in that they establish relationships and gain trust and confidence (A. H. Eagly & Carli, 2003). They spend the time to mentor and empower followers and help others, and the organization, achieve their full potential (A. H. Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001).

Women are more effective leaders for modern organizations as evidenced by their effective transformational leadership styles (Denmark & Paludi, 2018; A. H. Eagly & Carli, 2003; J. Martin, 2015; Ngunjiri, 2015; Stempel, Rigotti, & Mohr, 2015). In contemporary organizations, female leadership qualities such as collaboration, teamwork, empowerment, support, and engagement are preferred (A. H. Eagly & Carli, 2003). A coaching model is another approach modern organizations are seeking in leadership. This includes the reduction of a hierarchical model (A. H. Eagly & Carli, 2003). These

factors may create an inversion of the female disadvantage in the form of the female leadership advantage (A. H. Eagly & Carli, 2003). Males are relying on an antiquated leadership style (A. H. Eagly & Carli, 2003), and leadership stereotypes depicting a

masculine preference are diminishing (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014) (see Figure 2).

Figure 2. Leadership Style Differences. Adapted from "*Breaking the Unwritten Codes of Gender Conduct*," by Association of California School Administrators Women in Leadership Conference, 2016. Newport Beach, CA.

Communication Differences

Communication in the workplace is important to the way an organization functions. One of the most important tools of power people possess is communication (M. Ryder & Briles, 2003). The way men and women communicate is different, as is the perception of the communication (Annis & Gray, 2013). Annis (2013) describes that men do not understand how women communicate, which is a cause of dissonance in the

workplace. In addition, incongruity may occur when females demonstrate masculine methods of communication such as self-promotion or bragging (Smith & Huntoon, 2014). In the workplace, misunderstood or unclear communication can result in dissonance. See Appendix B which outlines the communication differences in conversational styles and rituals.

Different conversational styles. There is a double standard for gender communication differences. Women are typically warmer and mitigate conversations more than their male counterparts. This communication style can be perceived as indicative of lowered abilities of females. On the other hand, when females display male traits of assertion, competitiveness, and independence, they can be penalized. Anything contradictory to stereotypical roles can have an impact on influence and likability (Johns, 2013).

Self-promotion is viewed as an agentic quality and works well for men. Women who use self-promotion are less successful than males who do the same (A. H. Eagly & Karau, 2002). When women self-promotes, they are viewed as braggarts (Smith & Huntoon, 2014). Women that are self-promoting are evaluated highly in terms of performance but lower in likability (Amanatullah & Morris, 2010). Self-promoting women are viewed as more confident, yet less likable (Reid et al., 2009). For women and communication, it is important to take opportunities to speak up without being viewed as a braggart (Council, 2018).

Women need to be "tenacious and assertive" to get promoted (Eakle, 1995). However, being assertive is not a dominant communication style of professional women (Mathison, 1986). Women may feel a lack of confidence in their ability to communicate

assertively. When they feel dissonance between what reality is and what is possible, there may be a loss in confidence or self-esteem (Mathison, 1986). Rather than emulating male qualities, female leaders have embraced feminine qualities such as caring and tenderness paired with assertiveness to achieve a style all their own (Cheung & Halpern, 2010).

Women use indirect speech and hinting more often than men. Men are more direct in their speech, while women use suggestives to communicate. For example, rather than saying they are too hot, a woman may ask "Is it too hot in here?" Women may be too shy to assert their own desires (M. Ryder & Briles, 2003). Women use indirect speech and hinting more often than men.

When women use tentative language, they are viewed as incompetent. On the other hand, the use of tentative language makes them more likeable with males in the workplace (Reid et al., 2009). When tentative language is used, women can be excluded from serious discussions because they are not viewed as competent (Reid et al., 2009). Women who use tentative language are seen are more influential despite being viewed as less intelligent and competent (Reid et al., 2009). However, if women use tentative language, they can be more influential (Rudman & Glick, 1999).

When women use more direct and assertive language, they are seen as intelligent and competent; however, they are seen as unfeminine. In addition, they are seen as successful managers, yet less likable (Reid et al., 2009). Dominant women are more likely to be endorsed for a position than a submissive woman (Reid et al., 2009). When women are assertive, it is viewed as less desirable to men because it is incongruent to role expectations. Assertive behavior can be perceived as threatening, especially to men,

which can impact the influence a woman has within an organization (Rudman & Glick, 1999). Additionally, women tend to be influenced more by assertive speakers than those that use tentative language (Rudman & Glick, 1999). Women should balance the use of tentative and assertive language (Reid et al., 2009).

Women are often viewed by men as social butterflies (Helterbran & Rieg, 2004). Research shows that women use more words in a day to communicate and connect with others than males do (Annis & Gray, 2013). Men require less words to explain and connect to others than women do (Gurian & Annis, 2008). As a result, dissonance may occur because this interchange can cause friction due to the lack of understanding in this interchange (M. Ryder & Briles, 2003).

Conversational rituals. Women have developed strategies early in their lives to reduce possible negative impressions including apologizing and building relationships (Amanatullah & Morris, 2010). Often, women will acknowledge their inferior status within a group by demonstrating apologetic or tentative behaviors (Wagner & Berger, 1997). Women are more likely than males to use tentative language in order to make them more likable in the workplace (Reid et al., 2009). Apology is typically used as a way to neutralize conflict, not because women are truly sorry (Gurian & Annis, 2008). Some males view the use of apology as irritating, which is a source of dissonance in the workplace. When women display more agentic qualities in the workplace, they are risking violating role congruity and creating feelings of dissonance. On the other hand, if they are more feminine, or communal in their qualities, they stay aligned with prescribed gender roles, and are not viewed as having qualities of a leader.

Some men believe that women use criticism when they communicate. When women are critical or aggressive in the workplace, it can cause dissonance (Annis & Gray, 2013). Women who give criticism are viewed negatively because it violates their feminine gender role to be understanding and forgiving (J. C. Williams & Dempsey, 2018). Women also need to be open to receiving criticism because criticism is imperative to professional growth (J. C. Williams & Dempsey, 2018).

Women are more socially skilled and able to decode non-verbal cues better than men (A. H. Eagly & Wood, 1991). In addition, women can send and receive non-verbal messages more effectively than men (A. H. Eagly & Wood, 1991). Also, in a group setting women tend to laugh more than men (Wagner & Berger, 1997). Laughing and giggling at work can lead men to feel dissonant feelings. Another cause of dissonant feelings is the "power static" (M. Ryder & Briles, 2003). Sometimes verbal and non-verbal messages between men and women are unclear. When the "power static" occurs, it causes confusion and men do not like the way it makes them feel (M. Ryder & Briles, 2003). For example, when men in positions of power interact with women that are timid or indirect in their speech, this could cause tension because this is not associated with power.

Gossip is considered one of the dimensions of women's talk (McKeown, 2015). In addition, gossip is linked with women more often than men (F. T. McAndrew, 2014; McKeown, 2015). Men are more likely to engage in self-promotion, while women are more likely to engage in gossip in an aggressive or competitive fashion (F. T. McAndrew, 2017). Men have a tendency to gossip with their romantic partners, while women are just as probable to gossip with their friends as they are with their partners (F.

T. McAndrew, Bell, & Garcia, 2007). Gossip can also be used to limit or reduce the amount of power women have (McKeown, 2015). Studies have shown that gossip has positive implications in the workplace. Although gossip is primarily viewed as negative (Kuo, Chang, Quinton, Lu, & Lee, 2015), it is also used as a tool that women use to form trusting relationships with other women. Gossip can help to improve trust, reciprocity, and cooperation in the workplace (Kuo et al., 2015). In addition, gossip can be used by women to exert power and influence, increasing social influence (Ferrari, 2015).

Women are more collaborative in their leadership style (Eagly & Carli, 2007; A H. Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Krüger, 2008; Weiler, 2009). Women are more willing to share information which keeps everyone informed and is better for the performance of the organization (Cheung & Halpern, 2010). The collaborative leadership model that women prefer differs from the typical male decision making process that is more decisive and aggressive (Grogan & Shakeshaft, 2010). On the other hand, women are more reluctant to share information that can eliminate problems which can be a source of dissonance (M. Ryder & Briles, 2003).

Cultural Differences

The preferred societal model of leadership is built around a masculine leadership capacity (Jonsen et al., 2010). This preference for masculine leadership gives males the dominant cultural advantage. Gender beliefs impact the idea of inequality and cultural rules assigned (Ridgeway & Correll, 2004). In American society, a gender hierarchy exists that provides males more power and status than females (A. H. Eagly & Wood, 1999). When females are authentic in the workplace, they may face dissonance as a result of the lack of masculine traits in a male dominated workforce (Annis & Gray,

2013). Although education is a female dominated industry, males dominate such roles as high school principal and superintendent (Gill & Jones, 2013). For females that aspire to positions in educational leadership, the male dominated culture may serve as a barrier. Appendix C which shows cultural differences and the factors that may impact the male-female work dynamic.

Women's confrontation of the dominant culture. There is a persistent stereotype that being a manager is synonymous with being male (M. K. Ryan & Haslam, 2007). According to Mavin (2008), women may adopt male attributes to adapt culturally. Cultural patterns can impact equity at work, what is valued, how work is accomplished, and assumptions about competence with a job role (Johns, 2013).

Women are judged differently than their male counterparts. In addition, they face different expectations (Helterbrand & Rieg, 2004). Traditional roles of women are to follow, support, and provide for men. According to Mavin (2008), to fit into traditional masculine culture, women need to silence themselves. Powell and Butterfield (2003) describe an incongruity that occurs when a woman conforms to a managerial role; they are no longer considered feminine, but if they conform to the gender role of femininity, they are not considered managerial. Leadership and management is a place where women need to "learn to fit in or play a different game" (Bryans & Mavin, 2003, p. 111). According to McPherson (2000) "is gender an instrument to be used as an obstacle to be overcome or avoided?" (p. 150).

A token member of a group is the person that is the single representative of a certain social category (A. H. Eagly & Karau, 1991). Female managers are often rare and have the status of token. Being the token female leader enhances one's visibility and can

have implications for treatment (A. H. Eagly & Johnson, 1990). Increased visibility can add scrutiny to job performance and heightened attention direction toward actions. In some cases, this treatment has negative implications and added pressure for performance. Token employees may succumb to additional pressure put to them to perform based on the added visibility of their token status.

Members of a group will hold higher expectations for other members of a group with a higher status (Correll & Ridgeway, 2006). Those with lower expectations and lower status will have fewer opportunities to achieve and frequently have their contributions dismissed. In contrast, higher status individuals will have more opportunities to participate (Correll & Ridgeway, 2006). According to Correll and Ridgeway (2006), women at work often feel that their male coworkers ignore their ideas or credit their ideas as their own. If women accommodate male prejudice, they are more likely to gain influence in the workplace (Reid et al., 2009). When women accommodate to roles with lesser power, it creates subordinate behavior. Subordinate behavior is less aggressive and more cooperative and willing to making concessions. On the other hand, dominant behavior is directive and controlling (A. H. Eagly & Wood, 1999). Dominant behavior would violate perceived gender roles and could be a cause of dissonance.

Culturally, males are expected to be more competent than females while females are expected to be more nurturing (Correll & Ridgeway, 2006). As a result, women are more likely to face backlash at work when asserting authority over subordinates than males in a similar context (Correll & Ridgeway, 2006; A. H. Eagly & Karau, 2002). There is a widely accepted cultural assumption that it is more valuable to be male than female (A. H. Eagly & Wood, 1985). Women in leadership roles often time find it

difficult to lead or direct power over others, regardless of their status or rank within the group (Wagner & Berger, 1997). In American culture, it is common to assign males higher status than females. Because their power and prestige are not legitimized by society, some females find it difficult to gain power or wield control over a group (Wagner & Berger, 1997).

The 2017 #MeToo Movement has had negative implications on women at work. There is a backlash effect of men being cautious with critical feedback at work for women. Because feedback is fundamental for growth and capacity building, this can prove to hinder women in advancing their professional growth (Riordan, 2018). Women need to be encouraged and pushed to their potential. Holding back candor at work out of fear is counterproductive (Riordan, 2018).

Men's competition with women. Women are often celebrated for being successful. On the other hand, when women seek power, money, or influence, it can raise negative feelings. According to Helterbran and Rieg (2004), women have faced "backhanded" comments insinuating that they got their positions because of their gender and not because they had earned their positions. For men, group favoritism takes place in the form of the good ol' boys club (M. K. Ryan & Haslam, 2007). Researchers have identified potential implications of the good ol' boys club and the impact on females not belonging to the same organizations or informal networks as men on their advancement to leadership positions (Eakle, 1995). In addition, competing against men is considered unfeminine.

According to Dunshea (1998), males often tend to patronize women and want to tell them how to do their work. A recent Pew Research Center study revealed that 40%

of Americans say that women face a double standard where they need to do more than their male colleagues to prove themselves (as cited in Tulshyan, 2015). Gender inequity will continue to persist until it is as culturally acceptable for a man to stay home and raise children as it is for women (Warrell, 2017). In Denmark, a country known for gender neutrality, studies demonstrate that 80% of heterosexual men would feel uncomfortable if their partner earned more than them (Warrell, 2017). Until gender parity exists, men's competition with women will persist.

Women's Personal Power

Women are impacted by internal barriers such as a lack of confidence, self-esteem or experience (Briles, 1996; M. Ryder & Briles, 2003). Women's personal power creates feelings within women that may result in feelings of dissonance in the workplace. To overcome such feelings, women need to overcome internal barriers through increasing confidence (Leo et al., 2014). Through increasing personal power, dissonance in the workplace should dissipate. See Appendix D for a detailed view of women's personal power and the factors that may impact workplace dynamics.

Women's self-confidence issues. When women work in an organization where their gender is devalued, it can be construed as a threat to their identity (Derks et. al, 2011). As a result of fewer opportunities to access leadership experience, women may experience a lack of self-confidence in leadership capabilities (Karau & Eagly, 1999). In order to view a woman as competent, they must be perceived by others as demonstrating evidence of great ability and performance (A. H. Eagly & Carli, 2003).

Some women suffer from impostor syndrome, which is a fear of failure. It is a vulnerability that can impact women of all ages at any stage in her career that can make

even the strongest women question why she is a leader (Forbes, 2017). When women are faced with impostor syndrome, they fear being "found out" that they are not capable of holding the position of leadership because they lack the self-confidence. Women fear that men will discover that they cannot do the job (M. Ryder & Briles, 2003). In addition, women may feel the need to prove themselves and believe that they are the "real thing" (M. Ryder & Briles, 2003).

When working in small groups, the contributions of females are more likely to be dismissed or reacted to negatively than males (A. H. Eagly & Carli, 2003). According to Sheryl Sandberg and Adam Grant, when men contribute ideas at work, they are perceived as knowledgeable helpful (as cited in Tulshyan, 2015). On the contrary, when women speak up, they are either barely acknowledged or viewed as too aggressive (Tulshyan, 2015). Tentative women are viewed as more influential (A. H. Eagly & Karau, 2002). As a result, females may have a difficult time with male dominated environments (A. H. Eagly & Carli, 2003). Women also react differently than their male counterparts in confrontational situations. Sometimes women do not give up until their point is driven home. Women can also use aggression to affirm power. They can get assertive or overly confident to make a point. This can sometimes cause anger and frustration with male colleagues (M. Ryder & Briles, 2003).

Women need to be clear on their purpose and show confidence (Council, 2018). Women leaders can defy the constraints of sexualism (Cheung & Halpern, 2010). There is a gendered expectation that women take care of others before themselves. That can mean nurturing their partner's ambitions or serving dinner and eating last. Serving others

first sometimes means lacking confidence or ambition to strive for positions of leadership.

Women's power issues. Women need to possess the confidence and courage to navigate the male dominated world of educational administration (Helterbrand & Rieg, 2004). According to Randstad US, only 31% of women feel they have as many or more opportunities in the workplace as men (as cited in Faw, 2018). Phrases such as "it's a man's world" implies that it is too tough for women (Warrell, 2017). Men and women have equal needs for power. According to Mathison (1986), men build power through aggression and women do this though building interdependent relationships. In addition, there is a form an antagonism faced by both males and females in the workplace (Mavin, 2006). When women feel powerless, they can resort to manipulation, sabotage, and threats (M. Ryder & Briles, 2003). This is a cause of insecurity or low self-esteem for women.

According to scientist and entrepreneur Heidi Dangelmeirer, "the glass ceiling keeps females locked in a paradigm where men hand out the permission slips to female progress" (as cited in Faw, 2018, p. 1). Dangelmeirer also noted that the concept of the glass ceiling holds women in a situation where they are trapped falsely in an image of limited potential (as cited in Faw, 2018). Women can have both grace and grit and be both feminine and fierce (Warrell, 2017).

Education builds self-efficacy and upward mobility of women (Cheung & Halpern, 2010). Women are more educated than males, earning more bachelor's degrees, and making them better situated to work in leadership positions (Cheung & Halpern, 2010; Ginder et al., 2016; Hurley et al., 2016). With more women earning degrees at all

levels than their male counterparts, women gain an educational advantage in most organizations. Educational attainment provides women power they can control.

Male Gender Dissonance and Female Eligibility for Advancement to High School Principal

In order to fully understand the impact of male gender dissonance on the advancement of women to the position of high school principal, one must fully comprehend the impact societal roles have played as a barrier to advancement. When women display qualities outside of the gendered norm, males feel a "subconscious discomfort" (M. Ryder & Briles, 2003, p. 29) which results in gender dissonance. Women that display masculine leadership qualities to assimilate into the male dominated work environment violate role expectations, which is another cause of male gender dissonance. In educational administration, this fosters the creation of the "good-ole boy network" (Wallace, 2015, p. 46) and creates an environment that excludes women based on gender. Women are underrepresented in the role of high school principal which may be a result of the impact of male gender dissonance.

Gender roles are thoroughly ingrained in our societal norms, and despite the amount of literature and studies that have brought awareness to such inequities, males continue to benefit from the system. Despite progress, women are still underrepresented as high school principals. To close the gap, women need to leverage their gender strengths and challenge traditional gender expectations. After three decades of research regarding the underrepresentation of women in school administration, many questions remain unanswered. Researchers have presented evidence of underrepresentation and barriers women face in aspiring to positions of leadership. However, there is limited

research regarding gender and the high school principalship. In addition, research is limited in providing insight into how gender roles impact women in advancement. Subsequently, there is limited research on the impact of male gender dissonance on the advancement of women to key positions of leadership. This study will contribute to the existing landscape of research and provide a greater understanding.

The literature regarding gender dissonance is still minimal; however, has been updated since M. Ryder's (1998) study by Garzaniti in 2017. More emphasis needs to be placed on gender dissonance and the impact it has on workplace dynamics. In order to create an equitable working environment, both males and females need to gain awareness of dissonant behaviors and societal gender expectations in order to change perceptions and attitudes and avoid future dissonant feelings and behaviors.

Summary

This replication study of M. Ryder's (1998) dissertation focused on possible behaviors female leaders exhibit that cause their male colleagues to feel dissonance. Women have made progress in the achieving gender parity in the workplace, yet the gender gap persists in areas of educational administration such as the superintendency and the high school principalship. Researchers agree that the education workforce consists primarily of women, yet the majority of high school administrators are male (Goldring et al., 2013; Helterbran & Rieg, 2004; Kruse & Krumm, 2016; Sanchez & Thornton, 2010; Superville, 2017). Currently, only 30% of high school principals are women, while in contrast, 60.5% of high school level teachers are women (Goldring et al., 2013; National Center for Educational Statistics, 2013).

Educational leadership is primarily seen as a ‘man's world’ where women are working with male administrative colleagues leading a predominantly female teaching staff (Helterbran & Rieg, 2004). Although researchers have identified that men may be perceived as more effective leaders (Carroll, 2006; A. Eagly et al., 1992), others have found that female leadership traits are preferable (Conlin, 2003; R. Williams, 2012). There is a continual stereotype that being a manager or leader is synonymous with being male (M. K. Ryan & Haslam, 2007), which puts women at a disadvantage when aspiring to the position of high school principal. Although women are the minority in the high school principalship, they are qualified and capable of advancing to this position (S. L. Gupton, 2009).

Women are more prepared for the position of high school principal because of instructional and curricular expertise due to more years in the classroom as teachers than their male counterparts (Glass, 2000; Helterbran & Rieg, 2004; Klein et al., 2014). As a result, these factors contribute to female principals serving as stronger instructional and educational leaders than their male counterparts (Costellow, 2011; Hallinger et al., 2016; Krüger, 2008; Loder & Spillane, 2005; Teaching & Environments, 2009). Women tend to have a more democratic and collaborative leadership style (A. H. Eagly & Carli, 2007). In addition, researchers have found that the collaborative leadership styles of women, are preferable and have the potential to transform an organization (Buckner, 2011; Eckman, 2004; Grogan & Shakeshaft, 2010; Snedden, 2013). There is no lack of available, talented, and educated women that are capable of leading schools (S. L. Gupton & Del Rosario, 1998).

Women that aspire to advance to the role of high school principal face gendered barriers that continue to persist despite progress made in achieving gender parity. Despite women attaining leadership positions at higher rates, they continue to face challenges such as stereotypes, inequity in hiring practices, work-family conflict, lack of mentors, lack of sponsors, and female misogyny which impact potential female advancement to the position of high school principal. Because of gender stereotypes, women are not regarded as capable of holding and maintaining administrative positions, and these barriers have a direct impact on the number of women serving as principals (Young & McLeod, 2001).

Women are not afforded the same opportunities as their male colleagues in regard to obtaining positions in educational leadership (Young & McLeod, 2001). In the educational arena there are more males in decision making positions, such as central office superintendents and school board members which often contribute to the existence of the "good-ole-boy network" (Wallace, 2015, p. 46). Inequities in hiring practices continue to exist because males in leadership positions often make the majority of employment decisions (Sanchez & Thornton, 2010), which perpetuates the hiring of men over qualified women. Male gender dissonance in educational administration has the potential to impact females' access to top positions of leadership since males hold the power to hire and are more comfortable working with other males (Annis & Gray, 2013).

Despite numerous studies that demonstrate that women bring leadership strengths to the table in educational administration (Buckner, 2011; Glass, 2000; Grogan & Shakeshaft, 2010; S. L. Gupton, 2009; Krüger, 2008; Snedden, 2013), few studies have identified behaviors female high school principals exhibit that may prompt male high

school principals with whom they work in California public education to demonstrate behaviors associated with gender dissonance (Garzaniti II, 2017; M. Ryder, 1998). In addition, no research has been conducted to determine what impact these dissonant behaviors may have on women's potential eligibility for advancement to the position of high school principal in California. The synthesis matrix utilized to organize research in this study can be found in Appendix E.

CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

Overview

This replication study was developed using a qualitative phenomenological lens to share the lived experiences of high school principals in Riverside, California. This chapter serves to describe the methodology used to address the research questions presented in Chapter I. The purpose statement and research questions are presented again as part of this chapter. A description of the research design is explained in depth. In addition, this chapter provides a description of the population as well as the process for sample selection. A detailed examination of instrumentation which describes the field test process, reliability, and validity of the study is made clear. Following instrumentation, the chapter explains the data collection and analysis process. At the conclusion of Chapter III, the limitations of the study as well as an overall summary are presented.

Purpose Statement

The first purpose of this qualitative replication study was to discover what behaviors female administrators exhibit that may prompt male administrators with whom they work in California public education to demonstrate behaviors associated with gender dissonance.

The second purpose of this study was to determine what impact these dissonant behaviors may have on women's potential eligibility for advancement to the position of high school principal in California.

Research Questions

The following research questions were used to guide this research:

1. What behaviors exhibited by female administrators are perceived by selected high school principals as prompting male administrators with whom they work in a public education environment to demonstrate behaviors associated with gender dissonance?
2. How do selected high school principals feel dissonant behaviors exhibited by female administrators impact women's eligibility for advancement?

Research Design

The methodology selected for this qualitative replication study is phenomenology. Patton (2015) describes this method as "carefully, and thoroughly capturing and describing how people experience some phenomenon – how they perceive it, describe it, feel about it, judge it, remember it, make sense of it, and talk about it with others" (p. 115). Because the purpose of the study is to discover the lived experiences of high school principals and identify female administrator behaviors that may prompt male administrators to experience gender dissonance in the workplace, this methodology fits well. It aims at acquiring a "deeper understanding of the nature or meaning of everyday experiences…" (Patton, 2015, p. 115). The study seeks to identify if the identified behaviors that prompt male administrators to experience gender dissonance may also impact women's potential eligibility for advancement to the position of high school principal.

Qualitative research, according to Patton (2015) is described as research that "inquires into the stories of individuals to capture and understand their perspective" (p.

8). Patton furthers this definition by noting that it is "personal" and the "researcher is the instrument of inquiry" (p. 3). In this study, the researcher conducted interviews in the respondent's natural environment to obtain insight into the lived experiences of high school principals (Patton, 2015). After the interviews were concluded, the researcher analyzed the interview transcripts and coded the data into the conceptual areas. Insights gained from this study will serve to assist women who aspire to become high school principals.

In the United States women only represent 30% of high school principals (Goldring et al., 2013). In Riverside County, of the 55 comprehensive public high schools, only 32% are led by women (Riverside County Office of Education, 2016). In this study, the phenomenological methodology will identify behaviors and challenges that may uncover "taken-for granted assumptions about these ways of knowing" (Lester, 1999, p. 1) regarding women as high school principals.

In the original study, a descriptive approach was utilized to identify female administrator behaviors that prompt male administrators to experience gender dissonance in the educational workplace. The descriptive approach in the original study was appropriate because the researcher was seeking to "offer a comprehensive summary" or accurate account of people and events to identify specific dissonant behaviors (Sandelowski, 2000). According to Pietkiewicz and Smith (2014), phenomenological studies "focus on how people perceive and talk about objects and events, rather than describing phenomena according to a predetermined categorical system, conceptual and scientific criteria" (p. 8). To complement the original study, a phenomenological method was selected to not only identify dissonant behaviors, but also to "to describe rather than

explain" (Lester, 1999, p. 3) the impact these experiences may have on female potential eligibility to the position of high school principal.

Population

Patten (2012) defined a population as "the group in which researchers are ultimately interested" (p. 45). A population is a group of individuals that "generalize the results of the research" (J. H. McMillan & Schumacher, 2014, p. 129). The intended population of this study is designed to include all public comprehensive high school principals, especially those serving in California. In the 2017-18 school year, California's education system was composed of 76 public high school districts and 343 public unified school districts, totaling 1,313 public high schools (Ed Data, 2017). The population consisted of the 1,313 public high school principals serving in California at the time of the study.

Target Population

A target population is the narrowed group of individuals of interest for study, from which the sample can be drawn (J. H. McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). Interviewing all comprehensive high school principals in California was unrealistic because the time and money required to travel to interview 1,313 individuals was excessive. A target population was selected with individuals with requisite qualifications to participate in the study. Those selected to participate in the study were principals who: had a minimum of one full year experience as a comprehensive high school principal and were knowledgeable of women's issues in educational leadership. In addition, participants exhibited strong verbal and non-verbal communication skills and were recognized throughout their county for their continued support to mentor female

educators. The target population for this study is male and female comprehensive high school principals in Riverside County, California.

Sample

Patton (2015) asserts "there are no rules for sample size in qualitative inquiry. Sample depends on what you want to know" (p. 311). The intent of the sample size and population, based on purpose of the study, is to better understand and share the lived experiences of high school principals. According to Starks (2007), "data from only a few individuals who have experienced the phenomenon—and who can provide a detailed account of their experience—might suffice to uncover its core elements" (p. 1375). Therefore, a sample of 12 public comprehensive high school principals was chosen to participate in the study. The sample included six males and six female principals employed in Riverside County. Typical sample sizes for phenomenological studies range from 1 to 10 participants (Marshall, Cardon, Poddar, & Fontenot, 2013; Starks & Brown Trinidad, 2007). The sample of 12 principals is appropriate for the phenomenological study.

The sample of 12 high school principals for the study were chosen from the 55 public comprehensive high school principals in Riverside County and the 1,313 currently employed in California (CDE, 2017; Riverside County Office of Education, 2016). The county selected for the study provided 24 districts with a total of 55 high school principals to identify and select study participants. In addition, Riverside County is similar to the other 58 in the state in regard to ethnic diversity, educational options, and accountability measures.

The researcher used a purposive criterion sampling method. Patten (2012) describes purposive criterion sampling as a technique where a number of criteria is applied to the selection of the sample. The first sampling method was to use the delimiting methods outlined as principals who: had a minimum of one full year experience as a comprehensive high school principal and were knowledgeable of women's issues in educational leadership. The second sampling method was to garner nominations of study participants from Association of California School Administrators (ACSA), the county superintendent, and Riverside school superintendents who could recommend high school principals for this study that were experienced and knowledgeable about diversity and gender quality issues. Nominations would involve naming high school principals that have presented at regional or local conferences on diversity or women's issues, had written any papers or articles about women in leadership or were well known throughout the state for mentoring female educational leaders.

Sample Selection Process

The sample for this study was six female and six male public comprehensive high school principals in Riverside County, California. The researcher began the study by identifying all Riverside County public comprehensive high school principals. This directory was obtained through the Riverside County Office of Education. After identifying 55 public comprehensive high school principals, a list of potential study participants was compiled. The directory was organized by district and by school, representing all Riverside County schools. Under each school, the directory lists administrators for each site. The researcher analyzed this document to identify all male

and female public comprehensive high school principals. The researcher used this document to identify the sample for this study.

In order to meet the delimiting methods outlined as principals who had a minimum of one full year experience as a comprehensive high school principal and were knowledgeable of women's issues in educational leadership, the researcher utilized a panel of experts to nominate study participants that meet the criteria presented.

Participants will be selected for the study as follows:

1. Identify male and female high school principals in Riverside County.
2. Garner nominations of study participants from ACSA, the county superintendent, and Riverside school superintendents who could recommend high school principals for this study that were experienced and knowledgeable about diversity and gender quality issues.
3. Contact Riverside County high school principals selected to participate in the study to secure participation (Appendix F). Provide description of study to participants (Appendix G).
4. Provide confidentiality assurances and informed consent documents (Appendix H) to participants.
5. Schedule and conduct the interviews.

Instrumentation

In qualitative research, the researcher herself is the central instrument in conducting research (Chenail, 2009; Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; J. H. McMillan & Schumacher, 2014). Interviewing is one of the primary ways that qualitative researchers gather data for their studies (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015; Chenail, 2009; Gubrium &

Holstein, 2002; Rubin & Rubin, 2011; Seidman, 2013). According to J. H. McMillan & Scumacher (2014), the researcher is the instrument and should take "critical self-examination" (p. 12) of her role throughout the process. In order to produce a reliable study, the researcher took steps to address the effects of researcher subjectivity and bias.

In this study, interviews are the primary data collection strategy. According to Starks (2007), "in a phenomenological study the objective of the interview is to elicit the participant's story... and asks participants to give accounts of their experience of the phenomenon… to stay close to the lived experience" (p. 1375). The interview questions designed in the original study were designed to identify female administrator behaviors that prompt males in the educational workplace to experience gender dissonance. In addition to identifying behaviors, those which are perceived to have an impact on female potential eligibility to the position of high school principal are examined.

Interview questions and protocols were performed based on the original study. Interview protocols for the study can be found in Appendix I and J. Permission to use the instrument, tables, and charts from the original study can be found in Appendix K and L. An expert panel was assembled to ensure that the four interview questions and probes were relevant. Once questions and probes were refined, field testing was conducted to further obtain feedback on interview techniques and refine questions.

The interview questions were designed to collect detailed information based on the lived experiences of the twelve principals interviewed. The principals were asked to identify female administrator behaviors which they have observed throughout their educational leadership careers to prompt male administrators to express behaviors associated with gender dissonance. In addition, they were asked if these identified

behaviors exhibited by females could impede or limit their advancement to the position of high school principal.

Interviews were conducted face-to face in a location selected by the participant. Prior to the interview, participants received a copy of the four interview questions to review. In addition, each principal was given a definition of gender dissonance to afford them the opportunity to reflect on their experiences prior to the interview. The researcher used the Rev Transcription program to record interviews. Recorded interviews provide the researcher the opportunity to replay the audio to listen for nuances in responses such as vocal inflections and pauses that transcriptions may not reflect. These subtle distinctions may impact the meaning behind a response or influence the use of a probe or follow up question. In addition, the researcher took notes to document non-verbal cues and gestures during the interview process. Once transcriptions were received, the researcher sent a transcription of the interview electronically to each participant to review for accuracy in both substance and meaning. Once the transcriptions were approved by each participant, the researcher analyzed transcripts and coded emergent themes aligned with the conceptual areas.

Expert Panel

The researcher assembled an expert panel to review and refine interview questions to ensure alignment with the research questions. The three expert panel members were selected based on their expertise and knowledge regarding women's issues and their experience using qualitative research design. The three expert panel members reviewed the interview questions and confirmed that the interview questions were in alignment with the purpose statement and research questions. The expert panel

was also used as a precaution against any bias from the researcher's own experience as a female high school administrator.

Expert 1. The first member of the expert panel received her Doctorate in Organizational Leadership from Brandman University. The focus of her research was on Latinas and cultural intelligence. She is familiar with qualitative phenomenological research design. The member works as an associate professor of counseling and is knowledgeable in women's studies as well as leadership.

Expert 2. The second member of the expert panel also received his Doctorate in Organizational Leadership from Brandman University. This member is familiar with the topic of this dissertation. In addition, he is familiar with gender studies, leadership, and qualitative research design. This member was personally recommended to participate in this study.

Expert 3. This third member of the expert panel was also recommended to participate in this study. This member received her Doctorate in Organizational Leadership from Brandman University and conducted her study on women in leadership in a male dominated field. She works as a dean of a college and is well versed in the topic of women's leadership.

Field Test

The interview questions and protocol were field tested to establish validity and reliability. In addition, the field test was employed by the researcher to re-validate the questions and probes from the original study. The researcher conducted a field test with two experienced high school principals, one male and one female that met the study criteria. Conducting the field test provided the researcher the opportunity to ensure

clarity of questions and probes, practice interviewing methods, and determine if experiences align with conceptual areas revealed in the review of literature.

Pilot interviews were recorded using the Rev Transcription program. Following the field test, interview transcriptions were submitted to an expert panel for input. The expert panel provided feedback to what extent the questions and probes were still valid from the original study in representing behaviors observed in the educational workplace based on gender dissonance aligned with the conceptual areas. Changes were made to the questions and probes based on feedback from the expert panel. In addition, feedback was solicited from each of the field test participants. The researcher solicited feedback on interview methods, recording process, question length, and changes were made based on feedback provided.

Validity

In qualitative research, validity demonstrates "how accurately the account represents participants' realities of the social phenomena" (Schwandt, 1997, p. 8). Creswell (2000) impresses the importance strategies to enhance validity plays in "checking how accurately participants' realities have been represented in the final account" (p. 125). Validity in this study is achieved through an external audit to address interviewer bias and validity of interviewing skills through the process of field testing. The external audit of the research questions and process was conducted to ensure that the interview process, questions, and data collection were valid. Field testing was conducted prior to data collection to ensure validity of questions and to practice interview protocols and gather feedback on the process.

Reliability

An assessment is considered reliable when it measures the same phenomenon or experience more than once and consistently achieves the same results (Patten & Newhart, 2017). To address reliability in this study, the researcher used an external audit and the inter-coder reliability method. Inter-coder reliability addresses the validity of the interpretation and analysis of the data collected in the study (Potter & Levine-Donnerstein, 1999). The researcher kept reliable records of the data collection process, including interview transcriptions. The researcher utilized a member checking where study participants were asked to check interview transcriptions for accuracy in an attempt to limit researcher bias and self-reporting errors (Creswell & Miller, 2000). The external audit served to review the methodology of the study as well as the coding process to gain feedback on strengths and weaknesses.

Field testing was conducted to ensure the accuracy and reliability of the instrument and to ensure the interview questions are aligned with the research questions. At the conclusion of the field test, the participants provided feedback on the interview process and protocols. The researcher used the feedback to ensure proper interview protocols and procedures were in place prior to the collection of data for the study. In addition to interview feedback, the expert panel reviewed and critiqued the research instrument and field test to prevent researcher bias and to ensure the safety of the participants.

In addition to inter-coder reliability, triangulation is used to establish reliability in this study. Through the integration of a variety of data sources, a single analysis or perspective can be overcome (Patton, 2015). The use of triangulation can add to the

credibility of the study because it enhances the analysis process. The themes that emerge from the data can provide a deeper perspective and greater confidence in the analysis. In this study, the data was triangulated using interview transcripts, field test data, and data from the review of literature. To support the interrater reliability of the researcher's coding process, one of the expert panel members met with the researcher to compare their independent analyses from samples of the data and made adjustments to increase the reliability of the analysis.

Data Collection

The researcher submitted a request for approval to conduct this study to the Brandman University Institutional Review Board (BUIRB) prior to data collection. Data was not collected for this study until receiving approval from BUIRB. The researcher obtained a directory of all comprehensive high school principals through the Riverside County Office of Education. Participants selected to participate in the study included comprehensive high school principals in Riverside, California that met the following criteria:

- Had a minimum of one full year experience as a comprehensive high school principal
- Knowledgeable of women's issues in educational leadership
- Exhibited strong verbal and non-verbal communication skills

An email was sent to all participants that met the selection criteria providing details on the study, including the purpose and research questions. Confidentiality assurances and informed consent documents were provided to selected participants. All signed consent forms and data were stored in locked cabinets at the researcher's

residence. Following the defense of the study, the researcher shredded and disposed of the documents collected.

The researcher scheduled and conducted 12 face-to-face interviews during the months of July-September 2018 at times and locations convenient to the participants of the study. The interviews were conducted in a face to face manner in an environment that is comfortable to the participant with a desire to yield the most honest responses possible. All participants were asked the same series of questions, and the interviews were recorded to help ensure reliability. During each of the 12 interviews, the researcher started by thanking the participant for participating in the study. Each participant was reminded of purpose of the study, as well as their participant rights. The interview process and protocols were consistent with all participants and encapsulated a formal tone. Each interview lasted approximately 45-60 minutes as established within the protocol.

Interviews were recorded using the Rev Transcription iPad application and were sent to the Rev Processing Center for transcription. The Rev Transcription service emailed the completed transcription to the researcher, and the transcribed interview was sent to each participant to ensure accuracy of content and meaning. Once the transcription was reviewed by the participant, the researcher used NVivo software to code emerging themes aligned with research questions and conceptual areas.

Data Analysis

Patton (2015) explains that qualitative analysis allows the researcher to interpret meaning from interviews in order to draw conclusions. In this study, data was collected through interviews with the purpose of drawing conclusions based on the research

questions presented. In a qualitative study, this is accomplished through the construction of codes in the data. Coding is the method of synthesizing data for ideas and themes and marking transcripts or text with coding labels to determine the frequency of themes (Patton, 2015). In the data analysis process, codes assist in identifying emerging patterns and themes in the data.

Data for this study was triangulated by using the transcripts from the interviews to identify codes and emergent themes from the data (Patton, 2015). Coding of data was completed for each interview transcription and analyzed for frequency of themes using NVivo coding software. Although NVivo software assisted the researcher in organizing and sorting themes (Patton, 2015), the researcher was responsible for identifying and coding the emergent themes. An alignment table for research questions, data, and analytical techniques can be found in Appendix M.

Interviews with each participant were recorded using the Rev Transcription application. Upon the completion of each interview, the researcher sent the recording to the Rev Transcription service for transcription. When the transcription was received and reviewed by the participants for accuracy in meaning and content, the researcher began the data analysis process. Next, the researcher analyzed transcripts and coded emergent themes aligned with the conceptual areas. In addition, coded transcriptions and themes were peer reviewed for accuracy of analysis. Detailed findings are discussed in Chapter IV of this study.

Ethical Consideration

Stuart and Barnes (2005) assert that ethical research "is not just a matter of collecting information, but is concerned with the dignity, rights, safety and well-being of

those who take part in research" (p. 5). Because qualitative research is more personal than quantitative research, it is imperative to follow ethical guidelines (J. H. McMillan & Schumacher, 2014). The researcher took into consideration ethical values to avoid potential harm to participants of the study (Patten & Newhart, 2017). Ethical research protections were utilized during the study to protect participants.

One element to ensure ethical research was protection from mental or physical harm (J. H. McMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Patton, 2015; Patten & Newhart, 2017; Stuart & Barnes, 2005). The researcher discussed benefits and risks of participating in the study to ensure that participants were clear on possible consequences. A second element to ensure ethical research was the right to privacy (J. H. McMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Patton, 2015; Patten & Newhart, 2017). To ensure privacy in the study, the researcher considered how information was accessed regarding participants and how they were contacted to participate in the study. Related to privacy is the right to confidentiality (J. H. McMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Patton, 2015; Patten & Newhart, 2017; Stuart & Barnes, 2005). The researcher ensured that study participants were not identifiable in print by name (J. H. McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). This method of coding was only identifiable to the researcher. In addition, audio recording and transcriptions of interviews were stored in password protected systems and destroyed after the completion of the study.

A fourth element is obtaining informed consent (J. H. McMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Patton, 2015; Patten & Newhart, 2017; Stuart & Barnes, 2005). The researcher informed participants of the purpose of the study verbally and in writing. In addition to reviewing the purpose, participants were informed how the study could help identify

dissonant behaviors and have a positive impact on female advancement to positions in educational administration. Prior to conducting interviews, the researcher reviewed the interview process and procedures with participants. In addition, participants were made aware that they could withdraw from the study at any time. Another element was knowledge of purpose (J. H. McMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Patton, 2015; Patten & Newhart, 2017). The researcher disclosed the purpose of the study to participants prior to securing participation in the study (Patten & Newhart, 2017). Participants were in a better position to determine their willingness to participate in the study with this knowledge.

A final element of ethical consideration was a debrief discussion after participation in the study (J. H. McMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Patton, 2015; Patten & Newhart, 2017; Stuart & Barnes, 2005). The researcher debriefed with participants after the conclusion of the interview to provide reassurances of confidentiality and anonymity. In addition, the researcher presented an offer to share results at the conclusion of the study.

Limitations

Research designs often lead to some limitations. The study is limited to comprehensive high school principals from Riverside County public schools and participants may opt out from participating due to fear that their responses may become public, despite the assurance of confidentiality. Additionally, participants may not be entirely truthful or honest with their responses for a similar reason. Results are limited to the level of open and honest experiences shared during the interview process. If the participants do not share openly and honestly, the results will not be accurate and

reflective of the lived experiences. Further, the inherent bias of the researcher, who currently serves as an assistant principal with aspirations to become a female high school principal could be prevalent in the development of the emerging themes. To mitigate bias, a field test was conducted prior to the start of the study. A last limitation is that the study design involves the use of self-reported data and self-coding.

Summary

This chapter outlines the methodology used to conduct this study. First, Chapter III began with an explanation of the qualitative phenomenological lens to share the lived experiences of high school principals. The purpose statement and research questions were restated from Chapter I. The study population consisted of high school principals from Riverside County in California. The purposeful sample was taken from Riverside County, California, where 55 comprehensive high school principals are employed (Education, 2016).

This chapter also included a description of instrumentation that was used to collect data. The researcher conducted face-to-face semi structured interviews after obtaining approval from participants. Interviews were recorded and transcribed through the Rev Transcription Center. Interviews were coded with the NVivo Coding software to find emergent themes aligned with the conceptual areas. To ensure validity and reliability of the data, data triangulation was performed. In addition, an external audit further ensured validity and reliability of the data. Multiple methods were utilized to ensure the reliability and validity to the findings of this qualitative phenomenological study.

CHAPTER IV: RESEARCH, DATA COLLECTION, AND FINDINGS

Chapter IV presents an analysis of the data collected from the phenomenological study which examines the experiences of high school principals. This chapter reviews the purpose of the study, research questions, research methods, data collection methods, population, and sample. Chapter IV concludes with a presentation of the data, organized by research question through the conceptual framework presented in Chapter II. The chapter will conclude with a summary of findings.

Overview

Chapter IV explains the findings from interviews conducted with 12 high school principals with the purpose of examining the lived experiences of comprehensive high school principals to determine the perceptions of gender interactions between administrators in the workplace, and the behaviors that result from those interactions. In addition, the interviews sought to determine if the behaviors that result from those interactions have an impact for females on advancement to the position of high school principal. With continued underrepresentation of women in high school principal positions, the researcher designed the study to expand the literature on gender dissonance in educational administration, categorizing behaviors around a conceptual framework: role confusion, communication differences, cultural differences, and women's personal power.

Purpose Statement

The first purpose of this qualitative replication study was to discover what behaviors female administrators exhibit that may prompt male administrators with whom

they work in California public education to demonstrate behaviors associated with gender dissonance.

The second purpose of this study was to determine what impact these dissonant behaviors may have on women's potential eligibility for advancement to the position of high school principal in California.

Research Questions

The following research questions were used to guide this research:

1. What behaviors exhibited by female administrators are perceived by selected high school principals as prompting male administrators with whom they work in a public education environment to demonstrate behaviors associated with gender dissonance?

2. How do selected high school principals feel dissonant behaviors exhibited by female administrators impact women's eligibility for advancement?

Research Methods and Data Collection Procedures

The qualitative methodology selected for this study was a phenomenological study exploring the lived experiences of high school principals in California. Because this study sought to examine the lived experiences of principals, the researcher met with male and female comprehensive high school principals and conducted a series of semi-structured interviews as the method to capture the essence of their experience. The researcher conducted face-to-face interviews with six male and six female principals in Riverside County. The interviews were conducted at a time and location selected by the participant during the months of July-September 2018. All participants were provided the research questions in advance as well as a statement of consent and confidentiality.

Interviews were recorded using two devices and then transcribed using the Rev Transcription service. After receiving transcriptions from Rev Transcription, data was coded using the NVivo coding software. Data was coded for frequency of themes aligned with the conceptual framework: role confusion, communication differences, cultural differences, and women's personal power. The researcher utilized inter-coder reliability to establish the reliability of the study through working with a peer researcher to code a portion of the data until a common conclusion was reached (Potter & Levine-Donnerstein, 1999).

Population

The population for this study was designed to include all public comprehensive high school principals, specifically those serving in California. In the 2017-18 school year, California's education system was composed of 76 public high school districts and 343 public unified school districts, totaling 1,313 public high schools (Ed Data, 2017). The population consisted of the 1,313 public high school principals serving in California at the time of the study.

More narrowly, those selected to participate in the study were principals who: had a minimum of one full year experience as a comprehensive high school principal and were knowledgeable of women's issues in educational leadership. In addition, participants exhibited strong verbal and non-verbal communication skills and were recognized throughout their county for their continued support to mentor female educators were included in the target population. The target population for this study was male and female comprehensive high school principals in Riverside County, California.

Sample

A sample of 12 public comprehensive high school principals was chosen to participate in the study. The sample included six males and six female principals employed in Riverside County. The sample of 12 high school principals for the study were chosen from the 55 public comprehensive high school principals in Riverside County (Riverside County Office of Education, 2016) and the 1,313 currently employed in California (CDE, 2017).

To execute this qualitative research study, the researcher used a purposive criterion sampling method. For this study, the first sampling method was to use the delimiting methods outlined as principals who: had a minimum of one full year experience as a comprehensive high school principal and were knowledgeable of women's issues in educational leadership. The second sampling method was to garner nominations of study participants from ACSA, the county superintendent, and Riverside school superintendents who could recommend high school principals for this study that were experienced and knowledgeable about diversity and gender quality issues.

The sample for this study was six female and six male public comprehensive high school principals in Riverside County, California. The researcher began the study by identifying all Riverside County public comprehensive high school principals. This directory was obtained through the Riverside County Office of Education. After identifying 55 public comprehensive high school principals, a list of potential study participants was compiled. Study participants were contacted by email to ascertain interest in participation in the study and schedule the interview.

Demographic Data

With a limited participation of female principals in Riverside County, every effort was made to maintain anonymity and confidentiality of study participants. As a result, names and identifying information was omitted from the findings. The 12 study participants were numerically identified from one through six and are outlined in Table 1. The sample included six male and six female high school principals from Riverside County, California.

Table 1

Demographic Data of Sample

Participant	Gender	Month and Year of Interview
F1	Female	July 2018
F2	Female	July 2018
F3	Female	August 2018
F4	Female	August 2018
F5	Female	September 2018
F6	Female	September 2018
M1	Male	July 2018
M2	Male	August 2018
M3	Male	August 2018
M4	Male	August 2018
M5	Male	August 2018
M6	Male	September 2018

Note. F = Female; M = Male.

Presentation and Analysis of Data

To answer the primary research question, the researcher coded emergent themes from the data into the four conceptual areas from the original study. The four conceptual areas are: (a) role confusion, (b) communication differences, (c) cultural differences, and (d) women's personal power. Additionally, findings were further sorted into themes supported by recent literature that emerged from the gender dissonance conceptual framework.

Perceived Gender Dissonant Behaviors

The first research question of this study sought to answer: *What behaviors exhibited by female administrators are perceived by selected high school principals as prompting male administrators with whom they work in a public education environment to demonstrate behaviors associated with gender dissonance?* The gender dissonance conceptual framework was the foundation for how data was coded in this study. The data was organized to reflect codes that emerged in response to the four conceptual areas of gender dissonance as well as the sub-components in each area. For a review of the gender dissonance conceptual framework see Appendix N.

Role Confusion

The gender dissonance area of role confusion encompasses three categories within the main concept: (a) expressions of sexuality, (b) sex role socialization, and (d) differing leadership skills of men and women. Within these sub-categories, there are examples of behaviors exhibited by women that serve as themes. Data was coded into these sub categories, and Table 2 outlines the behaviors reported related to role confusion as well as the number of principals that reported the behavior and frequency of references.

Table 2

Behaviors Related to Role Confusion that Female Administrators Exhibit that Prompt Males to Exhibit Gender Dissonance as Reported by High School Principals

Situations Related to Role Confusion in Which Females Exhibit Behaviors that Prompt Males to Exhibit Gender Dissonance	Number of Principals who Reported Behaviors			Number of References of Behaviors Reported		
-	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Expressions of Sexuality	4	5	9	16	15	31
Women whose behavior is perceived by men as a potential source of sexual harassment	4	5	9	8	13	21
Women who create sexual tension for men at work	2	2	4	8	2	10
Sex Role Socialization	6	5	11	36	46	80
Women who exhibit behaviors associated with power that are incompatible with men's perceptions of the evolving female sex role	6	4	10	25	18	43
Women who exhibit behaviors that are incompatible with men's stereotype of female work and sex roles	3	5	8	9	28	37
Differing Leadership between Men and Women	4	5	9	6	19	25
Women who exhibit leadership Skills like collaboration, shared power, and relatioship building that are incongruent ot male leadership skills and ocmmand and control.	4	5	9	5	16	21
Women who demonstrate leadership skills such as collaboration, shared power, and relationship building that are viewed as more effective by their organizations than skills of command and control that some males currently use	1	2	3	1	3	4

Note. Number of Principals reporting behaviors, n = 12 (males = 6, females = 6).

Expressions of sexuality. As a sub-category of role confusion, expressions of sexuality focused on two themes: behavior that may be perceived by men as a source of sexual harassment and women who create sexual tension for men at work. With the #MeToo movement as a large media presence at the time of the interviews, sexual harassment was referenced by nine out of the 12 principals. The lack of understanding surrounding what constitutes inappropriate behavior in the workplace is one of the implications of the #MeToo movement (Riordan, 2018). Table 3 provides a breakdown of female behaviors aligned with sexual harassment and resulting male behaviors.

Table 3

Women whose Behavior is Perceived by Men as a Potential Source of Sexual Harassment

Behaviors Exhibited by Females	Behaviors Exhibited by Males	Number of References	
-	-	Males	Females
Women as possible source of sexual harassment by nature of gender	Discomfort, confusion, frustration, fear	4	5
Inappropriate behavior	Discomfort, anger, frustration, fear	2	11

Note. Number of Principals reporting behaviors, n = 9 (males = 4, females = 5).

Women are now viewed as a source of sexual harassment based solely upon their gender, not on their actions. According to Annis and Gray (2013), some men continue to have apprehensive feelings regarding working with women that can surface at any moment. Research demonstrates that men are more comfortable working with other men (Annis & Gray, 2013; Gino, 2017; Levy, 2017). There was a total of nine references of sexual harassment solely on basis of gender. Female Principal 3 expressed frustration with gender discomfort in social setting,

> Males don't know how to in a social setting just engage with a female without either flirting or not engaging at all. It's kind of that put off like I won't talk to them because I don't know what to say because I don't want to be accused of sexual harassment.

Other participant's referenced discomfort being alone with a member of another gender for fear of what others may think. A female principal stated, "*If you're at the bar alone with another teacher, people are going to talk*." One participant, male Principal 3, described the discomfort he felt when working alone with another female administrator,

> It's dark outside and you're in the test room. I had no problem if it was another male AP, you know, it's just like we're hanging out counting tests and doing this and doing that. But when it was a female, I did feel a little awkward. We got along fine. There was no weirdness. We had a perfectly great relationship, working relationship, and there was no physical attraction. Nothing like that. But still it was just the fact that it was another female.

One participant, female Principal 4, shared her knowledge of sexual advancements in the workplace, "*Nothing other than inappropriate sexual behavior. One on one touching and advancements, but that's the max*." In addition, she referenced her knowledge of flirting and inappropriate behavior in the workplace as an administrator, "*Probably more borderline sexual harassment, pretty much flirting, a lot of flirting. Sexual harassment, inappropriate behavior that made the female administrator feel very uncomfortable, several of them*" (female Participant 4).

Two principals shared similar stories of actual sexual harassment claims from principals occurring in the workplace. One male principal referenced a story in which he

went for a position where the principal was fired for sexual harassment. He did not get the position as a result of fear from the community that he would be too similar to the person that held the position before him. As a result, they hired a female. A female principal shared her experience working for a male principal that was known for his inappropriate behaviors with females in the workplace. Although she did not engage in his sexual advances, she was aware of others that did and how he made them feel.

The theme of women who create sexual tension for men at work garnered references from two males and two females. Table 4 provides a breakdown of female behaviors aligned with sexual tension for men at work and resulting male behaviors.

Table 4

Women who Create Sexual Tension for Men at Work

Behaviors Exhibited by Females	Behaviors Exhibited by Males	Number of References	
-	-	Males	Females
Questionable/inappropriate dress	Frustration, anger, confusion	5	0
Perceived inappropriate behavior in social setting	Discomfort, confusion, frustration, fear	1	2

Note. Number of Principals reporting behaviors, n = 4 (males = 2, females = 2).

One participant, male Principal 1, referenced discomfort in addressing females regarding inappropriate dress at work,

> For me, it's very difficult to address a female about the way that they dress and my perception of what is professional and what isn't. Trying to address it without, again, without being accused of being sexist or being a pervert. I've made comments about males and females but probably more females than males just because there's more variation in what's acceptable, or well, what's perceived to

be acceptable. I probably have a more conservative point than some. I'm not going to say ultraconservative, but I've been a part of conversations.

Inappropriate behavior in social settings is another area of concern. Female Principal 5 shared that she was aware of inappropriate behavior in social settings,

> I mean, we just hear stories all the time, inappropriateness. There always is the awareness that you need to be aware of your social situation, especially administrator to subordinate. I would say that obviously the situation is there, because there's an awareness and you can't let yourself go completely. You can't trust completely. You need to be aware in those situations.

Another participant, female Principal 3 shared her experience with gender discomfort in a social setting where males do not quite know how to interact with females,

> Sometimes there's a time or two where somebody has like said something kind of flirtatious or something like that. You can tell it's awkward for them because it's like, 'You're not like ... I don't even know what to do with you right now.' You know what I mean? It's like, 'We're in a social setting. We could be flirtatious, but that's not appropriate because there's those lines but you're still a girl.' It's that. You can feel it. You can watch it. You can feel it. I think as a female administrator being able to be like, 'Of course, I'm good looking.' You know what I mean?

Sex role socialization. In the sex role socialization category, there are two themes: women who exhibit behaviors associated with power that are incompatible with men's perceptions of the evolving female sex role and with men's stereotype of female work and sex roles. Table 5 provides a breakdown of female behaviors aligned with sex

role socialization and resulting male behaviors. There was a total of 80 references in sex role socialization, making it the highest referenced category in the study.

Table 5

Women who Exhibit Behaviors Associated with Power that are Incompatible with Men's Perceptions of the Evolving Female Sex Role

Behaviors Exhibited by Females	Behaviors Exhibited by Males	Number of References	
-	-	Males	Females
Irritability with the feminization of clerical work	Confusion, frustration, uneasiness, discomfort	0	6
Acting overly nurturing or motherly	Confusion, resentment, discomfort	4	3
Showing emotion such as anger, frustration, or sadness in the workplace	Annoyance, discomfort, anger, uneasiness, resentment	1	7

Note. Number of Principals reporting behaviors, n = 10 (males = 6, females = 4).

In the theme for women who exhibit behaviors associated with power that are incompatible with men's perceptions of the evolving female sex role, three behaviors emerged as common themes. The most common referenced was showing emotion such as anger, frustration, or sadness in the workplace with eight references. Males demonstrate frustration when women display emotion in the workplace such as anger or frustration. When a woman demonstrates anger in the workplace, she can be perceived as less competent as a male because her personality is not capable of dealing with situations within the workplace (Brescoll & Uhlmann, 2008). Female Principal 2 shared her experience when a male administrator showed annoyance when she displayed emotion,

> With him, he would say, 'You get hot.' I go, 'What does that mean?' 'Well, you'll get heated,' and yes that's true, but I'm making a decision and he said, 'You know, you're tense all the time.' Because I'm working hard, so there was, you

know, I'm not sitting there kicking my feet up having a cup of coffee. I was irritated. And so his perception of me being heated was, you know.

Most of the references regarding emotion are related to women who cry in the workplace and the discomfort, annoyance, and anger that is felt by males as a result. Female Principal 2 shared an experience another female administrator had with her male supervisor,

> He was a male and she was a female. She got emotional and he was like, 'Why you gotta cry about everything? You're so sensitive.' And yet, I remember looking at her, saying, 'Wow that was really insensitive.' I understood why she cried and he just, he didn't get it. It was, you know, she was crying because a student was shot and killed and he was like, 'Just get over it. He was a little thug gang banger.' She was like, 'But I knew him. I suspended him. I could have done more.' And it was just very insensitive and I think it was because of her caring nature and she had a son the same age.

Another participant, female Principal 3, referenced the discomfort male administrators feel when women cry,

> I would say a lot of times in admin meetings like uncomfortable things come up where you have to be able to come and call people out or whatever. I've seen a couple of females cry in admin meetings and the males are just like, 'I can't even talk to her if she's going to cry like we're not even working together.' They can't handle the crying. They can't handle the sensitivity to some of those issues. Let's just not deal with the issues because we don't want to deal with that, which causes all kinds of problems.

One participant, female Principal 6 spoke about the discomfort a male principal had when she cried at work when he overturned a suspension she had issued,

> He had overturned a suspension that I felt strongly needed to be a suspension, and he had overturned it based on parent pressure. I said, 'This is wrong,' and I got emotional with it, and I cried. And I got mad at myself for crying, because as a woman, you know, then you're just, you're weak. Yeah, and I know that that caused him discomfort, like you could see the visible discomfort.

Males also spoke about the discomfort they feel when women display emotion in the workplace. One male principal shared a story of when there was a female crying in the football office over something that had occurred and how it made him feel uncomfortable. It was also mentioned how a male would not have done that. Another participant, male Principal 3 spoke about his discomfort when people cry in his office,

> I don't like when people cry, especially when they're crying in my office and they're crying about things that are out of their control and then here I am telling them, 'By the way, you're not coming back. We're letting you go.' I mean that's a very, very tough conversation to have with anybody but I had to have it with her knowing what was happening at home with her mom and it was hard. It really was because I knew she was going to cry because she had cried a handful of times before just about behaviors in the classroom with students and I ... like in my mind, her crying was okay. Not okay. It was justified. Does that make sense? But if it was a male crying, would I be as sympathetic?

Both male principals in these examples reflected on how males would react in these situations, indicating a gender difference in behavior and reactions to those behaviors.

There were three females that made a total of six references to their irritability with the feminization of clerical work. Female Principal 4 explained that men will have their clerks do what a woman will just do on her own. This was supported by female Principal 1 who shared her frustration with male administrative colleagues utilizing their clerk to do work she would have done on her own,

> I remember too him calling in the secretary that we shared and having her do all of the PowerPoint and everything that he was supposed to do for a part of that project. And I was sitting in my office working on it and I'm like, 'I didn't know that was an option. I took it home and did it last night, like I didn't know it was an option to give her the work and have her put it together.' I went home that day, I'm like, 'I don't think I'm using my secretary and staff the right way.' They can alleviate stress for us. I'm usually making sure that they're not feeling pressured.

Female Principal 1 shared her frustration with being assigned the clerical roles in a group of administrators,

> It's the roles and expectations that are assigned within that group. Having been the only female, there were a lot of times that I was the one doing the construction, the writing the organization and writing down the big ideas that everybody else was coming up with-the clerical pieces.

The same principal also added her frustration with being the one to complete clerical tasks because she is a female,

> Working on a project comes down to the meticulous staying on task, as filling in the calendar, sending out the emails and memos to everybody but it's that

infamous story about the poster paper ends up on the table and everyone looks to the female at the table to hand through the pen to be the one to write.

Female Principal 3 shared advice she had received from a male mentor in obtaining her role as high school principal, "*Don't ever serve or clean in front of staff. It plays into the female gender role*." She shared that it is difficult for her to not do this sometimes, because it is in her personality to help and care for others.

Three participants noted that acting overly nurturing or motherly was a source of discomfort. Because men have been socialized by society to be the providers for their families and aspire to leadership roles, women that aspire to roles in educational administration are not viewed as able to extend past the role of mother to take on the large role of comprehensive high school principal. This concept is consistent with traditional gender socialization (Glass, 2000). Female Principal 3 shared a conversation regarding a woman aspiring to the position of high school principal,

> Sometimes it's that sports piece. I've asked, I've pushed like 'Why junior high?' 'Well, you know, she's a little more like ... Well, the other piece to that is she can't give away all that time from her family. She's going to take care of the kids.' 'Well, don't you have kids too?' The male administrator and the female administrator could have kids, both have kids and it doesn't matter. She should pay more attention to the fact that she's going to give up more time from her family than he is because they have the same amount of kids, same age vicinity, but junior high would be better because she's got to take care of her family.

One male participant, Principal 4, spoke about how women are more equally represented at middle and high school because they are viewed as more nurturing,

> I think if you go to the middle school level, I think it's probably 50/50. I think that there's ... because it's a different ... the nurturer is probably much more welcomed at the middle school, and definitely the elementary school. Whereas, I'm not sure a nurturer is, I don't know how a nurturer would be perceived as much at the high school level.

The male principal comments on how a more nurturing personality is not perceived as well at the high school level.

Another participant, male principal 1 referenced his resentment with a female administrator and how she was mothering, and he did not perceive she held students accountable,

> There was an assistant principal that was female. We all had our portion of the alphabet to deal with discipline. Speaking for me, I felt that she was, I guess, mothering some of the kids too much and not holding them accountable. As a team, we were expected to be firm, fair, and consistent. I felt like she was making me look bad.

The principal also shared that he felt that females require more care, which can be cause of confusion and frustration for males,

> I think that females typically need more caring. I think males generally are ready to get down to business a little bit quicker. I don't need a plate of bagels and cream cheese and a spread of nice fruits and coffee.

In the theme for women who exhibit behaviors associated with power that are incompatible with men's stereotype of female work and sex roles, three behaviors emerged as common themes with 37 references. Table 6 provides a breakdown of female

behaviors aligned with sex role socialization and resulting male behaviors. The highest referenced theme was women that display assertive behavior and are viewed as a "bitch" resulting in 27 references from four males and four females.

Table 6

Women who Exhibit Behaviors that are Incompatible with Men's Stereotype of Female Work and Sex Roles

Behaviors Exhibited by Females	Behaviors Exhibited by Males	Number of References	
-	-	Males	Females
Women with strong personalities	Anger, annoyance, resentment, frustration	10	1
Women who are assertive and viewed as a "bitch"	Anger, annoyance, resentment, frustration	14	13
Women who act in a direct manner	Uneasiness, confusion, dismissal	1	3

Note. Number of Principals reporting behaviors, n = 8 (males = 3, females = 5).

Four female principals shared similar experiences of being viewed as a bitch when displaying assertive behaviors. Female Principal 1 shared her experience with being direct and assertive in her role,

> I think that there is a personality piece in there definitely but I think that it comes back to, if I'm going to be direct, I understand that I'm bearing the burden of not necessarily being the assertive principal but being the bitchy principal. And sometimes people, that's the reaction that I've received and people are so surprised that I've gotten to that point.

Female principal 3 shared a similar sentiment regarding how females are received in administrative positions,

> I would say, in my experience, I've been in five different districts and what I've seen is anytime you have an assertive female, they're referred to as a bitch and if

> you have a nice female, there's this line it's either the female is kind of flirtatious, she's a pushover or she's a bitch and they fit in those three categories. The females that stand back up, I mean, I've seen guys have even said to me like, 'Dang! She's a bitch.' I'm thinking, 'No, she's not. She's just asserting herself and you don't like it.'

Female Principal 4 shared that she has heard assertive women referred to in a derogatory manner, "*Maybe some words, even profanity, like, 'Oh she was such a B-I-T-C-H.' Something like that*." Female Principal 6 shared a similar experience, "*Oh, she's a bitch. Well, she's very forthright and has opinions. And so, that's automatically, she's a bitch*."

The male participants echoed these sentiments sharing experiences where they have heard women referred to as a "bitch." Male Principal 1 shared his experience hearing about other female administrators that are assertive,

> Typically, it's a female administrator who's pretty hard-nosed and hard-charging may instantly be referred to as a bitch or a hag or a plethora of negative vocabulary that probably a male administrator would get a pass on a lot of it. I believe that I've probably experienced frustration, hearing frustration from male administrators who are being supervised or working for a female administrator be quicker to denigrate that female much quicker than they would a male in the same position. If you've got a guy that's just an asshole, they'll call him an asshole. If it's a female, I've heard 'She's a bitch,' 'She's a hag,' 'It must be that time of the month.' Just a lot more creative ways to put someone down but not to their face.

Male Principal 3 shares a consistent thought that a male would not receive the same label as a female would,

> If they were doing something wrong and some would use the word 'bitchy' or 'moody.' But again, where they say, 'Oh, that's guy is bitchy and he's really moody.' They would never say that, I don't think, about a male. But because she was female, that's kind of how people would describe her.

The same principal went on to describe an experience with a strong female principal that was labeled as bossy. He reflected that the experience would be different for a male, "*She was what some people would describe as being bossy but as I think about it now, if that was a male principal, they'd probably say he's strong. Or not bossy necessarily*" (male Principal 3).

Male Principal 4 shared his perception of how women are perceived in educational administration,

> If females try to be authoritarian, it's probably not as well received as maybe a male that might do that. And that's unfortunate, you know, but there's sometimes females have to be a bitch, if you will, to get to a point. Just because they need to be able to say they're strong and not be able to be trampled on or coerced into doing things. Especially if they're not that way. They sometimes have to be perceived that way. That's sometimes a challenge. And when that's uncomfortable for an individual then that's where that, am I going to be able to sustain leadership, as opposed to be caught just as a short term and have a bright flame, flame out and then where else do I go?

Male Principal 5 reflected on an instance where a woman stood her ground and was assertive, "*Because the woman kind of stood her ground and said what she thought, now she's a bitch. But if a man was to say that, it'd be more like, 'All right. Let's man up*

and talk about things.'" All of the males shared that women are judged in a different capacity than their male counterparts. Men would never be referred to in derogatory terms referring to their assertiveness and leadership qualities, yet women are referred to as a "bitch" comfortably in educational administration.

Women with strong personalities was another source of frustration, anger, and annoyance for males with 11 references. Female Principal 1 shared her experience with discomfort as a result of strong female personalities, "*The reaction to the female department chairs at that time were some strong personalities led to such conflict in the meeting that it was extremely uncomfortable*."

One male participant, male Principal 2, shared a situation regarding staff frustration with a strong female administrator,

> I've had teachers come to me and say, 'I haven't been talked to by the administrator like that since my predecessor was there.' You know? And so I had to kind of pull her back a little bit and try to soften her up a little bit. And I told her that I think sometimes, unfortunately, and this is one of those things that we don't often say but it's there, is that when a male comes on strong, that's okay. When a woman comes on strong we drop the B word, you know? And that she's got to realize that as she bounces into her career, that she's got to really soften up.

Male principal 3 shared his thoughts regarding the perception of strong females, "*So maybe that's the issue that people have with females like they're not supposed to have strong personalities*." Male Principal 4 exclaimed that women need to be comfortable with having a strong personality in the role of high school administration, "*You've got to,*

to me, you've got to have a strong personality. You've got to be comfortable being out there."

A few male participants reflected on their experiences in working with a female with a strong personality. Male Principal 5 reflected on his experience with a female with a reputation for being tough with her staff,

> The perception of the staff was that she was tough, you know? She could get downright nasty sometimes, and I wouldn't say she ever mistreated me like that, but I know of others that she did. But I always kept it at a professional level.

Male Principal 6 shared his experience working with a strong female,

> Very strong, very outspoken, but not outspoken to a point where she's talking nonsense. She'll speak up if she feels there's a better way to do it. If she has a strong opinion about something that should or shouldn't be done or anything, she's going to speak up.

He went on to explain how the staff reacted to the strong personality, and how it would have been perceived differently coming from a male,

> So, some people don't know how to adjust to her comments. It's almost like, 'I would have expected that from a guy but not from a female,' kind of thing. Not that she cares she still says it. I've seen that and they're very similar reactions in both cases because usually it's the facial expression and the posture that you can tell the male is uncomfortable with what was said and the situation with who is around when that was said. (male Principal 6)

Another area of reference is women who act in a direct manner. This area was referenced four times. Female Principal 1 shared her experience with causing uneasiness

to a male colleague by acting in a direct manner. *The principal shared, "I went into his office and I said, 'You know, I think you misunderstand me and I'm going to communicate with you very clearly,' and it made him so uneasy how direct I was*." She went on to describe the interaction and his reaction. Although he demonstrated discomfort, she reflected on the situation, "*After I was that direct with him, it was a little bit better*" (female Principal 1). The principal shared her experience being direct with her staff as a principal,

> Be direct but don't get derailed. And they can be flustered but in a staff meeting, you can't get flustered. You have to be direct. You have to invite them to talk to you about it at the later time but you still own that control. There's been times that that comes across as like, 'Oh, she must ... It's her time a month or she must not be having a good day.' But in any other scenario outside looking in, it would be extremely appropriate for any principal to lay down the law that time. (female Principal 1)

Male Principal 3 reflected on his experience with a female administrator that was direct with staff and was perceived as bossy. It is clear that males and females are held to different standards in sex role socialization.

Differing leadership skills between men and women. In this category, there are two themes: women who display leadership skills incongruent to male leadership skills and women who display leadership skills that are viewed as more effective in their organizations. Table 7 provides a breakdown of female behaviors aligned with differing leadership skills between men and women and resulting male behaviors. There was a total

of 25 references in this category, with the majority of references taking place under women who display leadership skills incongruent to male leadership skills.

Table 7

Women who Exhibit Leadership Skills like Collaboration, Shared Power, and Relationship Building that are Incongruent to Male Leadership Skills of Command and Control

Behaviors Exhibited by Females	Behaviors Exhibited by Males	Number of References	
-	-	Males	Females
Empathy	Annoyance, resentment, frustration	0	4
Collaborative, communal	Confusion, uneasiness, discomfort	3	11

Note. Number of Principals reporting behaviors, n = 3 (males = 1, females = 2).

According to A. H. Eagly (2007), women have a more democratic and collaborative leadership style. Some argue that women have a leadership advantage because they have adopted a collaborative leadership style which is in contrast to the command and control power that male's exhibit in leadership (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014). Women who display a collaborative and communal leadership style was referenced 14 times by five females and three males.

Female Principal 1 discussed how her collaborative style when working with a group is sometimes a source of discomfort,

> Those dynamics on projects, it's really ending up having to pick up some of the pieces as we go through. There's no difference in working on a project with a team as adults than there is when we were students and we were the ones that were like home trying to get everybody else's work done.

Female Principal 4 describes how females tend share power rather than delegate:

> Males tend to delegate more and we as females tend to want to take care of the whole house. You know this is our house, so we want to make sure we sweep the floor, we wipe the windows. I know I had a principal, female, she cleaned the windows because the custodian didn't do it, and she cleaned the windows. Now males on the other hand, my experience here, is that if the custodian made them upset or something and they didn't want to do the work, then the males would stop helping to pick up trash. I had to say, 'No, you can't ... You don't have that privilege or that luxury to hold grudges.' We coach people till they get it right, but if you see trash, don't say, 'Uh, he ain't gonna do it, I'm not ...' no, because this is all ours and we have to own this.

Female Principal 4 also describes how females have a collaborative, coaching, element to their leadership. She describes her experience with how a male handled an issue,

> Yeah, just the intimidation, the harassment, just not good leadership skills, just not good leadership when it comes to coaching. Instead add a coaching component, for example, 'Why didn't you do this?' That administrator would explain, the female administrator would explain, 'Well, I didn't do it because ...' 'Well you should have known better.' So being more belittled. (female Principal 4)

Male Principal 5 shared the strengths in female leaders, and how that can be viewed in a negative capacity,

> They do better at education. They probably push themselves harder than anybody else. That's what makes them so good at doing projects and initiatives and things

like that. They're very good about detail, very detail-oriented people. But along with that comes the thought that people will say they're micromanagers and they see the males as a little bit more easygoing, easier to approach, easier to work with. That's unfortunate that that viewpoint comes across.

Another behavior trait referenced by respondents is the use of empathy by females. Women are often more thoughtful of the feelings of others, which are traits associated with leadership success (M. K. Ryan & Haslam, 2007). Empathic behaviors were referenced four times by female principals. Female Principal 4 shared the differences in how genders may address a situation and the impact,

> I have observed the way a male may address a staff member, not an administrator, but a staff member versus the way a female may address. I always say, 'No matter how many times a person doesn't get it right, you have to keep telling it to them as if it's your first time, because that's our role.' You never get tired, and you have to always do it with compassion, diplomacy and do it with a kind heart. I have to kind of send that balance, I say, 'Whoa, whoa, wait, don't send that email.' I said, 'Can you soften the email up a little bit?' You don't want to talk to people like they're kids. You still have to address them like they're adults. I do see that more often and the micro aggressions in the males a little bit more, get a little upset, red. You can't do that, just kind of get calm, so I'm left trying to balance it to keep them calm.

Female Principal 2 shared her experience working with female administrators. She describes a female administrator as having a "*More caring and loving approach, versus domineering. Why did you do this? Tell me, give me this information. Why is this parent*

mad?" (female Principal 2). Female Principal 6 shared her perspective on males and how they are more likely to get down to business versus females who are more in touch with feelings,

> So when I think about like current other principals at some of my counterpart sites in the district, they're not as like touchy-feely. It's more like, 'Okay, just handle your stuff.' There's not this sense of, 'Oh, let's really talk this through and delve deep on what this means.' So I don't know if that's they're male, or if that's just their personality.

Female Principal 2 also shared her perspective on having a female supervisor. She describes the negative interaction she had with her previous male supervisor, and how the impact of his lack of empathy,

> When he did come into my office, I realized I was a bit traumatized because every time he came into my office, it was something bad and I have a female boss now who's very caring and I never worry when I go to talk to her. It could be something bad, but the way she speaks to me is completely different than the way he spoke to me. And this is the first time I've ever had a female boss. (female Principal 2)

Communication Differences

The gender dissonance area of communication differences outlines two categories within the main concept: different conversational styles and conversational rituals. Within these sub-categories, there are examples of behaviors exhibited by women that serve as themes. Data was coded into sub categories, and Table 8 outlines the behaviors

reported related to communication differences as well as the number of principals that reported the behavior and frequency of references.

Table 8

Behaviors Related to Communication Differences that Female Administrators Exhibit that Prompt Males to Exhibit Gender Dissonance as Reported by High School Principals

Situations Related to Communication Differences in Which Females Exhibit Behaviors that Prompt Males to Exhibit Gender Dissonance	Number of Principals who Reported Behaviors			Number of References of Behaviors Reported		
-	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Different Conversational Styles	4	3	7	4	7	11
Women who boast	0	0	0	0	0	0
Women who talk in an indirect manner	2	3	5	2	5	7
Women who are perceived to talk too much	0	2	2	0	2	2
Women who are perceived to use annoying methods of speech	2	0	2	2	0	2
Conversational Rituals	5	5	10	16	10	26
Women who use apology	1	1	2	1	1	2
Women who criticize others	0	1	1	0	1	1
Women who are overly sensitive to criticism	5	3	8	12	8	20
Women who gossip	1	1	2	2	1	3
Women who ask others' opinions before making a decision	0	1	1	0	1	1

Note. Number of Principals reporting behaviors, n = 12 (males = 6, females = 6).

Different conversational styles. Within this category, there are three themes: women who are perceived to talk too much, women who are perceive to using annoying methods of speech, and women who use indirect methods of communication. Table 9

provides a breakdown of female behaviors aligned with different conversational styles and resulting male behaviors. There was a total of 11 references in different conversational styles.

Table 9

Different Conversational Styles

Behaviors Exhibited by Females	Behaviors Exhibited by Males	Number of References	
-	-	Males	Females
Women who are perceived to talk too much	Annoyance, dismissal, frustration	0	2
Women who are perceived to use annoying methods of speech	Anger, resentment, annoyance	2	0
Women who use indirect methods of communication	Frustration, confusion, annoyance	2	5

Note. Number of Principals reporting behaviors, n = 7 (males = 4, females = 3).

There were 2 references associated with women who are perceived as talking too much. Female Principal 5 reflected on the differences in gender communication,

> The communication piece is definitely unintentional. I mean, it would be a great research study, are the styles of communicating. Can you tell whether you're getting a communication from a man or a woman just by what they write, without knowing the gender? I would think that those things come out of that, but not out of an intentional bias or an intentional, 'I'm better, you're not.' They've never made me feel super uncomfortable, other than, 'Well, do you think you could say a little more because...' yes, no, move on.

Annis and Gray (2013) found that women use more words in a day to communicate and connect with others than males. Males exhibit frustration and annoyance when women talk too much in person or communicate at length in what could be a more brief email. Dissonance may occur because this lack of understanding in this interchange can cause friction between genders (M. Ryder & Briles, 2003). Female Principal 6 referenced frustration felt by males when it takes women longer to communicate,

> Sometimes the men are just more, just, 'Yeah, tell me what I gotta do, and I'll go do it.' Same with like teachers, too. Like it takes more time to communicate with women than it does to communicate with men.

Women who are perceived to use annoying methods of speech is another theme referenced by two male principals. Male Principal 1 shared his experience of annoyance when females speak loud when in conversation,

> Sometimes the female group gets much louder volume-wise than the male group. I've seen people reach out to the group of females and jokingly, but make them aware that 'Hey, I'm uncomfortable with how loud you're getting.' Even if the conversation is completely appropriate, just the sheer volume of the conversation sometimes makes others uneasy.

Male Principal 6 spoke how communication changes when a female is in a group. He discussed how different communication is when a group is male, and how it changes when a female is in the group, "*As soon as you place a female, it does, for most people, become different. The conversation changes, the tone changes, the vocabulary changes, the posture changes. A lot of things change*" (male Principal 6).

Participants referenced women who use indirect methods of communication a total of seven times. According to M. Ryder and Briles (2003), women may be too shy to assert their own desires. Female Principal 1 has felt frustration as a result of her lack of direct communication,

> Sometimes, my team will look at me and say, 'Just tell us what to do."' Like, 'Just tell us what to do. We're here to support you.' 'I know but I want you to know why we're doing it.' 'Okay, we get it. Just give us the directive.' That's more me working through. That's not putting that burden on anybody else or creating on uneasiness. And then communicating with one another. I have to make the decision to be direct. I don't have the ability or freedom, I think, to be direct in a helter-skelter way. I have to be very mindful and plan about my direct response to things.

Female principal 5 also reflected on her conversational methods that are more verbose and less direct,

> When I communicate in writing, I'm very specific, and my emails tend to be really long, whereas I notice men are super short, to the point. Sometimes people are like, 'Well, are they mad? Because they just wrote yes,' or like that. So maybe females are more flowery in their conversation, they're more explanatory on what they're writing, whereas men seem to be very to the point and cut out all the extra stuff.

Female Principal 6 explained that, "*Clear direct communication with men works really well*." When women are less direct, this can cause frustration, annoyance and confusion to males because it is not the style they prefer to communicate in. Male Principal 2

shared that males on his administrative team believe that teachers prefer working with males because they are more direct and get to the point.

Different conversational rituals. Within this category, there are four themes: (a) women who are overly sensitive to criticism, (b) women who are overly emotional, (c) women who use apology, and (d) women who gossip. Table 10 provides a breakdown of female behaviors aligned with different conversational rituals and resulting male behaviors. There were a total of 26 references in different conversational rituals, with women who are overly sensitive to criticism as the highest referenced theme.

Table 10

Different Conversational Rituals

Behaviors Exhibited by Females	Behaviors Exhibited by Males	Number of References	
-	-	Males	Females
Women who are overly sensitive to criticism	Frustration, annoyance, uneasiness, discomfort	12	8
Women who are overly emotional or cry	Annoyance, uneasiness, discomfort	6	6
Women who use apology	Confusion, frustration, annoyance	1	1
Women who gossip	Annoyance, frustration, uneasiness	2	1

Note. Number of Principals reporting behaviors, n = 10 (males = 5, female s= 5).

Women need to be open to receiving criticism at work. Women need to be open to receiving criticism because criticism is imperative to professional growth (J. C. Williams & Dempsey, 2018). Additionally, men need to be comfortable giving criticism to a female. One participant, female Principal 3, referenced an inability for females to take criticism,

> There's this perception that I think is also placed on females that they let themselves get frustrated and can't take criticism for some reason. They feel like it's an attack or the male also comes in and is very rough and abrasive about it and is being critical. It's like the experiences you watch guys all the time. They get in a fight. They punch each other and the next day they're friends again. With girls, it's months and months of just attacks and bitterness.

Six principals also referenced women who are overly emotional or cry and the discomfort and uneasiness that result from this behavior. One participant, female Principal 3, referenced hearing men say, "*She's too emotional about it*." Female principal 5 added,

> Females do cry a lot more than men do. Men tend to get angry and quiet. Women tend to be apologetic and cry. Females do cry a lot more. But I guess being female, it really doesn't bother me.

Male participants also referenced their discomfort with the use of emotion. Male principal 6 shared that he has heard statements such as "*She's too emotional or she needs to be stronger kind of thing*." Male principal 3 shared his discomfort when women cry, elaborating that he continues to feel uncomfortable even if he understands why they are emotional. Male Principal 5 also explained that sometimes women need to analyze conversations less. He explains that "T*here's a tendency on some of the female administrators' parts to over analyze what a conversation entails when, for guys, a lot of them are just sitting there shooting the breeze and it means absolutely nothing*" (male Principal 5).

Another source of frustration is women who use apology. According to Gurian and Annis (2008) apology is used to neutralize conflict, not because women are truly sorry. Female Principal 5 noted that, "*Women tend to be apologetic and cry*." Male Principal 3 shared his experience with a woman that was apologetic,

> I'm like why are you apologizing? But she was like oh my God. I think her concern was like does that jeopardize her job because she's going to take two months off. Two or three months off to have a baby. So she was very apologetic.

Two participants also referenced annoyance or frustration with women who gossip. Female Principal 4 shared that, "*Some people they just draw the drama. They know everybody's business. They know all the ins and out and who's angry with who. I think I missed that train*." Male Principal 1 shared a different take on gossip through the use of social media. He claims that, "*More females typically use social media more than males. Not that males don't use social media*" (male Principal 1). Male Principal 1 added to this statement sharing his frustration with the use of social media to spread gossip,

> There's been frustration on my part with some females because that's just what the group is constituted of. Tendency to post things on social media and put other things out there for the public to see that is counterproductive to what we're trying to accomplish. Saying one thing in the meeting and then doing something else obviously off hours, but putting it in a public forum where anyone can see it that really makes it appear as if not only they, but our team and our school, or saying one thing and doing another.

Cultural Differences

The area of cultural differences outlines two categories within the main concept: women's confrontation of the dominant culture and men's competition with women. Within these sub-categories, there are examples of behaviors exhibited by women that serve as themes. Data was coded into sub categories, and Table 11 outlines the behaviors reported related to cultural differences as well as the number of principals that reported the behavior and frequency of references. All participants reported behaviors aligned with cultural differences.

Table 11

Behaviors Related to Cultural Differences that Female Administrators Exhibit that Prompt Males to Exhibit Gender Dissonance as Reported by High School Principals

Situations Related to Cultural Differences in Which Females Exhibit Behaviors that Prompt Males to Exhibit Gender Dissonance	Number of Principals who Reported Behaviors			Number of References of Behaviors Reported		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Women's Confrontation of the Dominant Culture	6	6	12	24	18	42
Women intrude into previously male dominated areas of work	6	6	12	18	18	36
Women who request and receive special advantages or considerations in the work setting because they are women	2	0	2	6	0	6
Men's Competition with Women	6	6	12	19	47	66
Women who encroach upon men's sense of entitlement, prestige, and power	5	6	11	18	45	63
Women who gain administrative promotions that men perceive are not based solely on qualifications but on gender	0	1	1	0	3	3

Note. Number of Principals reporting behaviors, n = 12 (males = 6, females = 6).

Women's confrontation of the dominant culture. Within this category, there are two themes: women who intrude into previously male dominated areas of work and women who request and receive advantages at work because they are women. Table 12 provides a breakdown of female behaviors aligned with women's confrontation of the dominant culture and resulting male behaviors. There was a total of 42 references in different women's confrontation of the dominant culture, with women who intrude into previously male dominated areas of work as the highest referenced theme with 36 references.

Table 12

Women's Confrontation of the Dominant Culture

Behaviors Exhibited by Females	Behaviors Exhibited by Males	Number of References	
		Males	Females
Women intrude into previously male dominated areas of work	Resentment, confusion, frustration	18	18
Women attempting to fit into the male culture (ie. Sports)	Irritation, confusion, resentment	2	1
Women demonstrating that they know more than males	Resentment, frustration, anger	4	1
Perception that females cannot handle the role of High School Principal	Resentment, discomfort, confusion, annoyance	2	2
Women who perceive that they do more work than their male counterparts	Resentment, frustration, confusion, dismissal	0	4

Note. Number of Principals reporting behaviors, n = 12 (males = 6, females = 6).

There were three references to women attempting to fit into the male culture, and how that created dissonance. Female Principal 5 reflected on her experience trying to connect with males and sports, but being dismissed due to gender,

> There's a lot of conversation about football teams, especially college teams, and a bulk of the conversation happens amongst the men. Females are not a part of that conversation. If they do, it's almost like they're given a dismissal, like, 'Okay, well, thanks for sharing, but we don't want to talk to you because you couldn't possibly know what we're talking about.'

Male Principal 5 shared his perspective on when women try to enter male dominated culture,

> To be fair, quite often, the conversation turns to sports or something more, what we would consider guy-dominated conversations. So, a lot of times, the female will check out or feel like she's not a part of the conversation and leave. That's unfortunate. There's not a real way to change that, because you know, they're not into football.

Five principals referenced situations where women demonstrate that they know more than males and the behaviors that result from that. Male Principal 1 shared frustration when learning at conferences, "*I've heard others express that at conferences where there's a female speaking because again, typically an elementary administrator is female, and 'What does that person know?*'" Male Principal 6 shared a similar experience with a strong female administrator,

> I'm thinking specifically of one female administrator who I respect, but she's very out there but she knows her stuff. Even then, when she gave an opinion, it

> definitely or would usually cause some reaction from a male principal in our principal meetings. The males who have been here know her and because we know her, we respect her opinion, I mean, she knows what she's doing. So, usually, it was male administrators who are new to our district who were like, 'Who is this lady?'

There are also four references made regarding the perception that females cannot handle the role of high school principal. Female principal 3 shared her experience when she was questioned as being the principal,

> 'I'm the principal.' He said to me, 'Huh, a female principal.' I looked at him, 'What does that mean?' "Well, you know, for a sports school, it's interesting that they would hire a female principal.' Just that perception is that a lot of females can't handle the comprehensive high school experience.

The participant went on to add that in the same day, it happened to her twice. It is a common occurrence for her to be second guessed as principal because she is a female.

The male participants added their perspective on females as comprehensive high school principals. Male Principal 1 shared his perspective on a female as principal of a large comprehensive high-profile high school,

> Not that [school name] hasn't had a ton of success athletically, but I believe that the perception that a female may not have the experience, may not have the knowledge, may not be able to speak to many of the parents and/or staff and/or student concerns specifically regarding athletics, which isn't the primary focus of the school and yet is a very big part of my perception of that school's identity.

Male Principal 4 shared his perspective on fit, and the need for a strong leader,

> So, it's fit. It's fit. And I think that there can be high schools that are very well fit for certain females. Then again, this could be the sexist part of me, but, you know, you get a high profile one, you've got to have someone that's really strong, and you know, capable of being out there. And right or wrong, I think more people would follow the male at the high school level than the female. That's just where it is.

Four participants referenced women who perceive that they do more work than their male counterparts. Female Principal 1 commented that,

> There are a lot of times on projects I felt like I can work circles around what my male counterparts were doing. But the way that they advocated for the work that they were doing for their project really came across cynical in a way.

Female Principal 1 added that sometimes when working with males on a project, they do not participate equally. In working on some projects, "*I feel like an inequitable amount of workload. However, in the end, the appearance of everybody having an equal part in the project*" (female Participant 1). This is a cause of frustration and resentment for both males and females in work. Female Principal 2 also shared her experience with feeling that she was doing more work than her male counterparts. In an evaluation, she was evaluated negatively for not being in classrooms more,

> I said, 'Have you pulled the data and seen how many kids I've seen?' Of course I can't been in the classroom every period of the day. I've seen, you know, one day I said I saw like 42 kids that day. I was jamming. He wouldn't get us a designee

if the other assistant principal is at an expulsion or whatever, he just expected us to do it.

Women's competition with men. Within this category, there are two themes: women who encroach upon men's sense of entitlement and women who gain promotions that men perceive are based upon gender. Table 13 provides a breakdown of female behaviors aligned with women's competition with men and resulting male behaviors. There was a total of 66 references in women's competition with men, 63 of which were under women who encroach upon men's sense of entitlement.

Table 13

Men's Competition with Women

Behaviors Exhibited by Females	Behaviors Exhibited by Males	Number of References	
-	-	Males	Females
Women who encroach upon men's sense of entitlement, prestige, and power	Annoyance, frustration	18	45
Women who show frustration with the Good ol boys club	Irritation, dismissal	2	6
Women who are frustrated or upset with harassment or intimidation they receive from male administrators	Dismissal, annoyance, frustration	4	9
Women who are pushy or insistent and viewed as a threat	Irritation, annoyance, frustration, anger	5	4
Women who are frustrated with males take recognition for work that is collaborative or done mostly by the female	Confusion, annoyance, uneasiness	0	5

Note. Number of Principals reporting behaviors, n = 12 (males = 6, females = 6).

Eakle (1995) identified potential implications of the good ol' boys club and the impact this has on females not belonging to the same organizations or informal networks as men on their advancement to leadership positions. Five participants commented on the good ol' boys club and how women do not have the same benefits as men because of their gender. Female Principal 1 shared an experience working with a male administrator, "*Like he is a good ol' boy and if we're not talking about the football team or if I'm trying to engage in other things, the conversation typically doesn't go as far*." Another participant, female Principal 2 shared how her ideas were often dismissed because she was not a male,

> And it didn't matter what [female] or I said, [male] was always the chosen one because he was the man. He would listen to what [male] said and I'd say, 'But no, that's not logical. X, Y, Z. You're not thinking this through clearly.' And then [female] would back me up with either data or whatever and he just would go with what [male] said, it was like a brotherhood between the two. [Male] was constantly in the principal's office and [female] and I were running the school by ourselves, all over the place. We had a fire and those two were having coffee in their office. It's like uh, could we get some support, we're evacuating the building. They had their radios off. The secretary heard it and had to go in. So, yes, it was like they were brothers and her and I were just doing the grunt work.

Female Principal 5 added her experience in administration with the good ol' boys club and the tension that it can cause as a result,

> There are situations where jokes are made, and lots of times they're along the lines of the boys' club type jokes, and they'll say, 'Oh, this isn't a boys' club type thing,'

> or, ‘Oh, that looks like a boys' club type thing.’ That has been prevalent through my career in administration, is the real or unreal, depending on what the situation is and who it's happening to, perception that there is a boys club and what that looks like. Any time there's reference to that, you can feel the tension rise a little bit in the room.

Principal 5 added her experience with being left out of events because of her gender,

> Male friends will be invited to golf tournaments representing the district, whereas females are not. The district would hold at these retreats golf tournaments, and you had to participate even if you didn't golf. For me, I was the drink cart girl with another principal. We had to drive the drink cart around, whether we wanted to participate or not. That was expected. That's what we did.

Male Principal 3 reflected on how a male was permitted to sleep though meetings while a female was called out often,

> The other guy didn't do anything. He literally slept through meetings. He was like 60 something, should have retired 10 years ago, but he literally fell asleep in a meeting. He was never called out for it while it was happening. It's like okay. He's sleeping. Don't wake him up. Literally sleeping during a meeting. And then there was this one female, and he would call her out a lot.

There were 13 references to women who are frustrated or upset with harassment or intimidation they receive from male administrators. Female principal 1 shared a time she evaluated a male, and his perception that she was threatened by him because she was giving him feedback, “*That uneasiness throughout the evaluation translated outside of*

this to me being threatened by him because of how much he knows." Female principal 2 shared her experience with a male leader that harassed her,

> He was male and he's very chauvinistic. He told me that the staff didn't like me and neither did the kids. That I was making all these changes and they didn't like it. What I realized is that it was making him very insecure as a male leader because he had had the school for five years and it was terrible. So I came in with a fresh mindset. Not ironically, but coincidentally he got fired from this district as a principal and the state took over the school that he was at when he portrayed himself as this great principal. So his incompetence rose, but he was very derogatory and demeaning to me.

Female Principal 4 shared,

> Now, I've had an experience where I've seen an administrator negative towards female employees. It was almost like if the female employee wasn't competent that gave them leeway or felt like they had the right or the authority to almost put them in like a bullying situation. But if they weren't competent, it made them feel like instead of coaching that they can be negative or a bully or harass or intimidate.

Female Principal 5 conveyed her experience with an administrator that attempted to intimidate her,

> There is one situation where I had to have multiple improvement conferences with an individual, and he was a very, very, very large African American man who used his height and his ethnicity and his gender to try to intimidate. It didn't work, but it was very interesting at what he thought was normal behavior, and

clearly he had done those things before. He was trying to be a bully. You can only be a bully if somebody lets you bully them, so he was trying, but that didn't work.

The male participants reflected on their experiences where they have witnessed women being intimidated or harassed. Male Principal 3 observed, "*Several incidents I can think of right now where he would just kind of call her out about her being her and never said anything about me*." Male Principal 4 added, "*I've seen where colleagues, not necessarily superiors, I've worked with some guys that you can tell are not great with females, you know. They kind of demeaned a little bit*." Male Principal 5 added his observations regarding the treatment of female administrators,

> I've seen numerous times where the female would speak up in an admin meeting and others would roll their eyes. During the meeting they wouldn't usually say something that would be demeaning to her, but definitely some body language that would indicate it.

Four participants referenced women who are pushy or insistent and viewed as a threat. According to Eagly and Karau (2002), women are more likely to face backlash at work when asserting authority over subordinates than males in a similar context. Female Principal 1 commented on moments where she has had to be more assertive as a leader, "*I've been in meetings where I'm the person in the room and I say, 'You know what? I've heard everybody. This is how we're going to do it.*'" She reflected on the uneasiness in the room when she must be more assertive. The participant added,

> I'm typically not the kind of leader that goes in, closes the door, sits down and says, 'Let me be real, like this is not working. I'm done.' I've had to do that a

> couple of times and what happened when that first time occurred, and it was not a good year because I'm just really was relentless. I'm like, 'This is not okay.' Then, the uneasiness translated as things came back to me as, 'She is afraid of me because of how much I know. She's threatened by me.' And I think that the conversation is different when it's a male coaching up on a male. I even feel uneasy but I have to play the part. You know what I mean? And sometimes, it works out well and sometimes they leave angry. (female Participant 1)

Female principal 6 shared how she needs to work different with male administrators, "*Men are used to being in a position of power. I know I communicate differently to men and women*."

Two male participants shared their experiences with women being viewed as a threat. Male Principal 4 shared his observation when a female took a position from a male, "*Resentment perhaps from someone that was in a position, that a female might have taken that position now. There's been some resentment there, because the female had better skills*." Male Principal 6 shared his experience with a female that would speak out,

> With certain superintendents here over the years who if it's a, what I would view and probably a lot of others, as a strong female presence, very intelligent and so on and so forth, when she would speak out, sometimes I would get the feeling that that part of the male would take it as, she's speaking out of turn or maybe speaking above her pay grade or, 'How dare she say that right now?' I have seen that, yes. You can tell the females comments were taken but were taken like again, 'How dare she say that? Why did she bring that up in front of everyone,' kind of thing.

Women who are frustrated with males that take recognition for work that is collaborative or done mostly by the female was referenced five times by three female principals. Female Principal 1 shared her frustration when she presented with a male colleague,

> The uneasiness from a training we had co-planned, knew everything that we were going to say and then once we got in front of the audience, I couldn't get a word in. Then, I'm watching this individual run with something that's kind of out in left field from the direction that we were focused on, really just basking in the moment of that professional development and finding a way to edge my way in. That was just taking the limelight and not like we're in it for the limelight but that was his intention.

Female Principal 4 shared a similar experience, "*I've been in situation where I pretty much did all the work, but the male got more credit for it*." Female Principal 3 shared her observation when members of her administrative team vie for recognition,

> There are times when I feel like I've had to stop and say, 'Okay. Listen. This is not about being right. This isn't about asserting ourselves. This is about what's best for the team.' Things like that because I think sometimes it can get a little bit jockeying for position. It doesn't feel right between the two, especially when it's a public type thing or a collaborative within schools type thing. It goes back to who's going to get the credit? How was it going to go across?

Women's Personal Power

The area of women's personal power outlines two categories within the main concept: women who need to prove themselves and women's power issues. Within these

sub-categories, there are examples of behaviors exhibited by women that serve as themes. Data was coded into sub categories, and Table 14 outlines the behaviors reported related to women's personal power as well as the number of principals that reported the behavior and frequency of references.

Table 14

Behaviors Related to Women's Personal Power that Female Administrators Exhibit that Prompt Males to Exhibit Gender Dissonance as Reported by High School Principals

Situations Related to Women's Persona Power in Which Females Exhibit Behaviors that Prompt Males to Exhibit Gender Dissonance	Number of Principals who Reported Behaviors			Number of References of Behaviors Reported		
-	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Women who need to prove themselves	5	2	7	9	2	11
Women's Power Issues	6	5	11	8	11	19

Note. Number of Principals reporting behaviors, n = 11 (males = 6, females = 5).

Women who need to prove themselves. Within this category, there are two themes: women with low self-confidence and women who are aggressive or excessively assertive. Table 15 provides a breakdown of female behaviors aligned with women who need to prove themselves and resulting male behaviors. There were a total of 11 references in women who need to prove themselves.

Table 15

Women who Need to Prove Themselves

Behaviors Exhibited by Females	Behaviors Exhibited by Males	Number of References	
-	-	Males	Females
Women with low self-confidence	Annoyance, irritation, discomfort	2	0
Women who are aggressive or excessively assertive	Frustration, resentment, annoyance	7	1

Note. Number of Principals reporting behaviors, n = 7 (males = 5, females = 2).

According to M. Ryder and Briles (2003) women are impacted by internal barriers such as a lack of confidence. As a result, women may feel the need to prove themselves and believe that they are the "real thing" (M. Ryder & Briles, 2003). Women with low self-confidence was referenced twice. Male Principal 4 reflected on his experience with female administrators that struggled with self-confidence,

> In the interview, she talked a good game. She had been in the middle school, hadn't really had a full competence of high school. But we thought she had the skill set. And it was very apparent quickly that she didn't. She was smart but she couldn't handle the pressures. The pressures just consumed her. So, quickly I had to make the switch back because of those pressures.

He added another situation he had observed,

> And it had to do with, I think there was a lot of, she wasn't very sure of herself, and tried to make decisions in a vacuum. Tried to demonstrate strength by making decisions on her own, and making sure people understood, as opposed to finding consensus in working with individuals and trying to come to a decision

collaboratively. It was more of an authoritarian versus a communal type of leadership. (male Principal 4)

Six principals referenced women who are aggressive or excessively assertive. Female Principal 3 shared her observations when females are more assertive, "*The females that stand back up, I mean, I've seen guys have even said to me like, 'Dang! She's a bitch.' I'm thinking, 'No, she's not. She's just asserting herself and you don't like it*.'" Two male participants shared their experience with overly assertive women. Male Principal 4 shared that he worked with a women that was, "*A little bit more authoritarian at times, than probably needed to be*." Male Principal 5 shared his perspective regarding women feeling the need to prove themselves,

> I think females are having to fight and claw their way up, and so often, in my opinion, often it seems like the females feel like they have to take action more. Like, when something's happening, they feel like they have to step in and take action. I think that often, women feel they have to prove themselves

Women's power issues. Within this category, there are two themes: women who act as a queen bee and women who are frustrated when their contributions are ignored. Table 16 provides a breakdown of female behaviors aligned with women's power issues and resulting male behaviors. There was a total of 19 references in women's power issues.

Table 16

Women's Power Issues

Behaviors Exhibited by Females	Behaviors Exhibited by Males	Number of References	
-	-	Males	Females
Women who act as a Queen Bee	Uneasiness, annoyance, confusion	2	2
Women who are frustrated when their contributions are ignored	Confusion, uneasiness, resentment	0	4

Note. Number of Principals reporting behaviors, n = 11 (males = 6, females = 5).

Women who act as a queen bee or display negativity toward other women was referenced by four participants. One participant, female Principal 3, shared, "*It's female on female hate too. Don't forget that*." Female Principal 5 added, "*Females are hard on each other, it seems, even females will choose the more attractive candidate, all things being equal, be it male or female. I think males do the same thing, too*." Male Principal 4 shared his observation working with two female administrators early in his career,

> When I first became an assistant principal there was an older lady who was an AP, very well structured in there, and there was another female. The older AP wasn't all that sensitive to particularly the other female. Had some interpersonal issues. You know she was never married, just was at work all the time. She would come in on Saturdays and Sundays and this older administrator would just make fun of her. Just, you know, no you can't do that, you're just crazy, yada, yada, yada. And I saw it as like, well, I don't know if it's healthy, but for her it's being healthy and so why are we making fun of her? Why not just covet what she does?

Male Principal 2 discussed a situation where a female teacher asked him not to hire a female administrator, "*I had a veteran female teacher who said, 'Please hire a male. I do not want to work for a female, a female administrator*.'"

Three female participants referenced experiences with women and frustration when their contributions are ignored. One participant, female Principal 4, commented, "*How females will say something in a meeting and males will ignore. A male will say the same thing and others will agree it is a good idea*." Female Principal 2 discussed a situation where female administrators were completely ignored by their supervisor,

> So the first day of school I was over ASB as well, and we needed to change school culture and do something a little different. So we worked on this project with a group of teachers and the principal was clueless as to what we're doing. We had told him hey we're going to do this. We're going to have a rally, he was like, 'I didn't know we were having a rally the first day of school.' We're like 'where've you been?' We've been talking about this for three months.

Female Principal 1 shared her experience facilitating a meeting with coaches as a female principal,

> And one coach is like, 'I am not going to sit here and listen to this. This is how we do things. You don't know what we're doing down there. You don't know how we're coaching. I'm not going to sit here.' And I stood up and I said, 'There's not glue under your chair. If you're going to walk out, walk out. But I'm going to run this meeting.' And he kind of just sat back down. And the athletic director, he was like he didn't know what to do. Very easily I could have said,

> ‘You guys, this is not appropriate,’ but I saw him shrink into the role and be on the side of the coaches rather than be on the side of the table with me.

Women that benefit from a more masculine style. One surprising new area that emerged in this study is women that admit that they benefited from a more masculine style. Multiple female participants cited examples of how they are more masculine and how that has played in their favor in obtaining a position as a high school principal. One participant reflected, “*So like I will say, I have benefited in my career from being able to play the part of being one of the boys. Just so sad*” (female Participant 6). Another principal shared comments others have made about her,

> You're not one of those girls that gets offended. You're not going to cry about this. It's like, ‘Okay.’ To me, I function very well because that works to my advantage, but I can see how there is that overcoming that perception because even when they know me, they still check back to make sure, ‘You're good, right?’ I've been told by guys, ‘Well, you're more guy than girl’ and it's like, ‘Maybe I'm just a person and this is how I am but whatever.’ (female Participant 6)

To lead a comprehensive high school, a more masculine personality has helped some women overcome barriers in obtaining their position.

Effects of Dissonant Behaviors

The second research question of this study seeks to answer: *How do selected high school principals feel dissonant behaviors exhibited by female administrators impact women’s eligibility for advancement?* All 12 study participants were asked if they felt that any of the behaviors exhibited by females that they identified could have an impact

on women's potential eligibility to the position of high school principal. Ten out of the 12 study participants believed that these behaviors could limit a woman's eligibility for advancement to the position of high school principal. Table 17 provides a summary of the behaviors each principal identified that could limit a woman's eligibility for advancement.

Table 17

Specific Behaviors that Principals Perceive are likely to limit a Woman's Potential Eligibility for Advancement to a High School Principal Position

Participant	Specific Behaviors Reported by Participant
F1	And I can't tell you how many times I heard, "*Well, you're not going to apply for the position. You're taking care of your family. Your kids are so young. How can you do this and be a mother of four*?"
F2	I think there needs, the personality of a high school principal, if they are female, has to be very strong and domineering because we're in a male dominated world.
F3	There is a skill set with being a comprehensive high school and the beast that is sports and I don't think that's a gender issue because there are males now that are getting positions that don't have a sports background.
F5	I think that there is a gender bias in hiring female principals because of all the things that have to be done. There is a very fine line between being aggressive and doing the job and taking control.
F6	Women are less likely to be involved in those conversations, and so they're less likely to build that rapport and do those politicking pieces, which get you a seat at the table.
M1	It would be a tough, tough place to put anyone, but we're speaking female at this point, a female who didn't have a sports or athletic background or is perceived not to have that knowledge base even though that's not the primary function of that school.
M3	If I'm a superintendent, I'm thinking I've got a large high school, got a lot of pressure to maintain the performance of the district. I need my principal to be at the school. So now you tell me you're going to be gone for three months because you want to have a baby?
M4	I think males get more opportunities to lead at high schools because they fit what people would perceive as strong leadership characteristics than I think females do. But I think maybe there might be, unfortunately, fewer opportunities for a female, at the high school level.
M5	Women probably push themselves harder than anybody else. That's what makes them so good at doing projects and initiatives and things like that. They're very good about detail. But along with that comes the thought that people will say they're micromanagers and they see the males as a little bit more easygoing, easier to approach, easier to work with.
M6	Being too emotional for a female most times people will say, "*Well, because she's crying all the time or too touchy feely*."

Note. F = Female; M = Male.

Female Principal 1 shared her experience as a mother, and how comments were made when she applied for her position. She commented on her insight to not allow things like the glass ceiling stand in the way of her advancement,

> I feel like it didn't limit my chances for consideration. I felt like it required me to be stubborn and just say, 'I'm here.' I've never felt as if my chances have been limited. There has never in my experience in my career been a glass ceiling but sometimes, I've had people tell me, 'But there is. You just like ignored it.'" (female Participant 1)

Female Principal 6 added her perspective on the familial responsibility that women carry. When asking women to apply for positions, she has heard, "*No. Maybe in five years when the kids are in school*." She added, "*Women are less likely to demonstrate that they are hungry for something. They are more likely to wait to be invited into a conversation. They're more likely to wait until they get invited in, which isn't going to happen*" (female Participant 6).

Principal 5 also shared her perspective regarding hiring women with a more masculine style,

> It's not a judgmental thing, but it's a perception thing. Are you hiring somebody who's a woman who's more like a man? So yeah, I mean, it's definitely very interesting. Very, very interesting. Interesting, too, is when we go to meetings, we tend to dress more like a man. We wear a suit. We wear very tailored clothes. You're not wearing your frilly dress or whatever to go to a meeting, because you're not taken seriously.

The participant also added the political piece regarding obtaining a position in educational administration. The benefits of politicking are discussed,

> Like this job, I didn't apply for it, and I didn't interview for it. I was assigned it. Part of that is having background conversations with my superintendent. Women are less likely to do that, and they're less likely to get invited to those things of like, 'Hey, let's play golf.' Or, 'Let's go hang out, and we'll go have a beer after work. Yeah.' Or even just the conversations of like, 'How's your fantasy football team going?' (female Principal 5)

The participant went on to discuss how women miss out on opportunities to network with male supervisors,

> But all of those were moments where he was standing on the sideline when anybody can walk up and talk to him. But you almost have to have that prerequisite of like, what's happening in the game. Because you should be reacting and cheering and somewhat involved. Like yes, it's the time to have that like elbow conversation with the superintendent, but you can't just be disconnected from what's going on around you. (female Principal 5)

Female Principal 2 reflected on the gender disparity in educational administration and personality type,

> So I think that when there's a high school, the high school female principals I have met have all been type A, not type B and passive. Yet I've met many high school male principals that are type B and passive and aren't as intelligent as other females that can do the job, so yes, I think there's a big disparity.

Female Principal 5 adds to this commenting, "*I think people would give a less proficient male the job than a more proficient female, just because of the unknown, right? Females have not had a chance to really show what they can do*."

Two participants that did not feel that dissonant behaviors had an impact on female advancement to the position of high school principal shared why they felt that way. Male Principal 2 believes in gender balance in educational administration. He commented, "*I think that women are a little underrepresented right now at the site level and the principal level in our district*." Female Principal 4 commented, "*Not in our district, because we have three high school principals and one male principal*." Her experience in a district that supports female leaders is reflected in her response.

Findings Related to Research Question 1

Principals in this study identified behaviors exhibited by female administrators that prompt male administrators with whom they work in a public education environment to demonstrate behaviors associated with gender dissonance aligned with each of the four conceptual areas. Key findings are aligned with each of the four conceptual areas.

Role Confusion

Principals in the study have identified female administrator behaviors that prompt male administrators to experience gender dissonance in the educational work environment related to the area of role confusion.

Finding 1: Expressions of sexuality. The impact of the #MeToo movement is starting to make an impact in the educational administration work environment. Over half of participants referenced sexual harassment as a behavior that creates dissonance at work. Males are cognizant of working with females and concerned with what can be

perceived as sexual harassment. They are more careful with their behaviors, and in many cases, feel judged at a higher rate than before. This movement is creating a culture where men are more comfortable working with other men, and this could have implications on the advancement for females to administrative positions.

Finding 2: Sex role socialization. Men show discomfort with an expression of emotion, anger, sadness, and other emotions in the workplace. An overuse of emotions, such as crying in the workplace, creates dissonant feelings in males. It also creates a perception that a woman cannot emotionally handle a position of power. Women are also reported as being less calm than males in situations which is a source of discomfort.

Finding 3: Negative Connotation to describe assertive women. The final key finding for role confusion is also under sex role socialization. Over half of the study participants referenced women who are assertive are labeled as a "bitch." One of the most common referenced word in the study was the word "bitch" to describe a female. Women that are assertive are viewed as a bitch. This is the biggest trend seen by both male and female principals. The use of the word to describe a powerful woman, and in some cases, an overly assertive woman always held a negative connotation.

Communication Differences

Principals in the study have identified female administrator behaviors that prompt male administrators to experience gender dissonance in the educational work environment related to the area of communication differences. There is only one key finding related to the area of communication differences.

Finding 4: Indirect communication styles. The key finding for communication differences is aligned with different conversational styles. Women who use indirect methods of communication are a source of frustration and discomfort for males. Almost half of the participants in the study noted that women talk in an indirect manner, and this is the cause of dissonant behaviors. Women use passive and indirect methods of communication as reported by male participants, and self-reported by female participants. There is a need to be more succinct and direct in communication methods as a leader.

Cultural Differences

Principals in the study have identified female administrator behaviors that prompt male administrators to experience gender dissonance in the educational work environment related to the area of cultural differences. In this area, there are two key findings.

Finding 5: the good ol' boys club. One key finding is aligned with men's competition with women. There is an ongoing frustration with the good ol' boys club for women. As women attempt to participate in male culture, they are restricted access and demonstrate frustration and anger. As a result, it creates dissonance with males in the workplace. Five principals referenced frustration with the good ol' boys club. As more women obtain positions in education administration, there will be more frustration with the restriction to events and conversations reserved for those in the good ol' boys club.

Finding 6: Female harassment by males. Another key finding is also aligned with men's competition with women. Women feel there is a level of harassment or intimidation by male counterparts. This takes place in one on one conversations and in

front of large groups. Over half of the study participants noted that females are harassed or intimidated by male colleagues or supervisors.

Women's Personal Power

Principals in the study have identified female administrator behaviors that prompt male administrators to experience gender dissonance in the educational work environment related to the area of women's personal power. In this area, there are two key findings.

Finding 7: Queen bee syndrome. The first key finding is related to the area of women's power issues. Four participants noted that women serve as a barrier to other women and act as a queen bee. Rather than trying to build other women up, they try and push others down because there is a feeling that there are limited seats at the table.

Finding 8: Aggressive women perceived as threat. Another key finding is related to women who need to prove themselves. Half of the study's participants cited that they felt women who are aggressive or assertive are perceived as a threat. When women are viewed as overly assertive, it is a contradiction to their perceived gender role and the perception of how the message is received can change based on gender.

Unexpected Findings

Finding 9: Females with a Masculine Style Have an Advantage

One unexpected finding is that half of female principals interviewed referenced that they are more masculine in style and therefore, have a greater advantage in their role as principal. They mentioned that having more agentic qualities have helped them not only obtain their current position as principal but be more respected in the position overall.

Finding 10: The Importance of "Fit"

Another unexpected finding is that both genders referenced the concept of "fit" in finding a person for the position of high school principal. Multiple participants also discussed that men have a gender advantage because they have masculine qualities, strong personalities, and a background in athletics which are qualities looked for in a comprehensive high school principal.

Findings Related to Research Question 2

Finding 11: Dissonance Behaviors Impact Women's Career Advancement

Ten out of the 12 principals interviewed reported that dissonant behaviors exhibited by female administrators can have an impact on a woman's eligibility for advancement to the position of high school principal. Three participants commented on motherhood having a potential impact on the eligibility for advancement. One principal was doubted because a male did not know how she would balance being a mom and running a comprehensive high school. A male principal conveyed that a young woman would possibly face bias in obtaining a position as a high school principal because she could potentially start a family and that would impact the school. Another principal commented that she has had conversations with women leaders that hold themselves back because of their role as a parent.

Five participants reported that a high school principal requires a specific skill set and strong personality that often does not match with female qualities. Another principal commented that emotional behaviors that female exhibit can have an impact on advancement. One male principal conveyed that women can be perceived as micromanagers, and that leadership quality causes dissonance for both males and females

and can result in challenges for women regarding advancement. These findings demonstrate that these behaviors can hinder a woman's chances for promotion. In addition, these behaviors can impact a woman's consideration for a position altogether.

Summary

Chapter IV presented the data collected and findings of the qualitative study. This study sought to examine the lived experiences of high school principals. The study aimed to discover what behaviors female administrators exhibit that may prompt male administrators with whom they work in California public education to demonstrate behaviors associated with gender dissonance. In addition, the study ascertained the impact these dissonant behaviors may have on women's potential eligibility for advancement to the position of high school principal in California. The population was high school principals in California, and the target population was principals serving in Riverside County, California. A total of 12 high school principals participated in the study, six males and six females.

The primary research question guided the study, and asked: *What behaviors exhibited by female administrators are perceived by selected high school principals as prompting male administrators with whom they work in a public education environment to demonstrate behaviors associated with gender dissonance?* The second research question asked: *How do selected high school principals feel dissonant behaviors exhibited by female administrators impact women's eligibility for advancement?*

Research participants engaged in an in-depth, face-to-face interview at a location of their choice. All interviews were recorded and transcribed using the Rev Transcription service. The data was coded for emergent themes using NVivo coding software. To

increase reliability, the researcher utilized inter-coder reliability (Potter & Levine-Donnerstein, 1999) through working with a peer researcher to code a portion of the data until a common conclusion was reached.

The four conceptual areas are: role confusion, communication differences, cultural differences, and women's personal power. Findings were further sorted into themes supported by recent literature that emerged from the gender dissonance conceptual framework.

Summary of Findings

- Role confusion/ expressions of sexuality. The impact of the #MeToo movement is beginning to make an impact in the educational administration work environment with concerns of potential sexual harassment claims.
- Role confusion/sex role socialization. Men continue to show discomfort with an expression of emotion, anger, sadness, and other emotions in the workplace.
- Role confusion/sex role socialization. Women that are assertive are viewed as a bitch.
- Communication differences/different conversational styles. Women who use indirect methods of communication are a source of frustration and discomfort for males.
- Cultural differences/men's competition with women. There is an ongoing frustration with the good ol boys club for women.
- Cultural differences/men's competition with women. Women feel there is a level of harassment or intimidation by male counterparts.

- Woman's personal power/women's power issues. Women serve as a barrier to other women and act as a queen bee.
- Women's personal power women who need to prove themselves. Women who are aggressive or assertive are perceived as a threat.
- Unexpected finding. Women that have a more masculine leadership style have a greater advantage in their role as principal.
- Unexpected finding. Men have a gender advantage because they have masculine qualities, strong personalities, and a background in athletics which are qualities looked for in a comprehensive high school principal but there is a belief that those in positions of hiring look for a "fit."

The chapter concluded with an examination of the second research question which demonstrated that 10 of the 12 study participants believed that dissonant behaviors could impede a woman's advancement to the position of high school principal. Each respondent shared behaviors that they believed had an impact on advancement for females.

CHAPTER V: FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

"What's the greatest lesson a woman should learn?

That since day one, she's already had everything she needs within herself.

It's the world that convinced her she did not."

- Rupi Kaur

Chapter V presents the major findings, conclusions, and implications for action based on this phenomenological study. Conclusions and implications were drawn from the key findings of the research of literature and the study. The chapter closes with recommendations for future research and concluding remarks on the topic.

Purpose Statement

The first purpose of this qualitative replication study was to discover what behaviors female administrators exhibit that may prompt male administrators with whom they work in California public education to demonstrate behaviors associated with gender dissonance.

The second purpose of this study was to determine what impact these dissonant behaviors may have on women's potential eligibility for advancement to the position of high school principal in California.

Research Questions

The following questions were used to guide this study:

1. What behaviors exhibited by female administrators are perceived by selected high school principals as prompting male administrators with whom they work in a public education environment to demonstrate behaviors associated with gender dissonance?

2. How do selected high school principals feel dissonant behaviors exhibited by female administrators impact women's eligibility for advancement?

Methodology

This phenomenological study explored the lived experiences of high school principals in California. The researcher conducted face-to-face interviews with six male and six female principals in Riverside County, California at a time and location selected by the participants during the months of July-September 2018. Interviews were recorded and transcribed remotely using the Rev Transcription service. Data was coded using the NVivo coding software for frequency of themes aligned with the conceptual framework: role confusion, communication differences, cultural differences, and women's personal power.

Population

The population for this study consisted of all public comprehensive high school principals, especially those serving in California. The population consisted of the 1,313 public high school principals serving in California at the time of the study. The target population for this study was male and female comprehensive high school principals in Riverside County, California. Those selected to participate in the study were principals who: (a) had a minimum of one full year experience as a comprehensive high school principal, (b) were knowledgeable of women's issues in educational leadership, (c) exhibited strong verbal and non-verbal communication skills, and (d) were recognized throughout their county for their continued support to mentor female educators were included in the population.

Sample

A sample of 12 public comprehensive high school principals was selected to participate in the study. The sample included six males and six female principals employed in Riverside County, California. The sample of 12 high school principals for the study were chosen from the 55 public comprehensive high school principals in Riverside County (Riverside Couty Office of Education, 2016) and the 1,313 currently employed in California (CDE, 2017).

The researcher used a purposive criterion sampling method. For this study, the first sampling method was to use the delimiting methods outlined as principals who: had a minimum of one full year experience as a comprehensive high school principal and were knowledgeable of women's issues in educational leadership. The researcher began the study by identifying all Riverside County public comprehensive high school principals. After identifying 55 public comprehensive high school principals, a list of potential study participants was compiled. Study participants were contacted by email to ascertain interest in participation in the study and schedule the interview.

Major Findings

The major findings of this qualitative phenomenological study are organized in relation to each of the research questions. Major findings are aligned with the four conceptual areas as outlined in the review of literature: (a) role confusion, (b) communication differences, (c) cultural differences, and (d) women's personal power.

Summary of Findings Related to Research Question 1

Research Question 1 asked: *What behaviors exhibited by female administrators are perceived by selected high school principals as prompting male administrators with whom they work in a public education environment to demonstrate behaviors associated with gender dissonance?*

Principals in this study identified behaviors exhibited by female administrators that prompt male administrators with whom they work in a public education environment to demonstrate behaviors associated with gender dissonance aligned with each of the four conceptual areas. Key findings are aligned with each of the four conceptual areas.

Finding 1: Expressions of Sexuality

Seventy-five percent of the study participants referenced sexual harassment as a behavior that creates dissonance at work. The #MeToo movement could have implications on the advancement for females to administrative positions because it is contributing to a culture where men are more comfortable working with other men. There is a discomfort for males working with women, even in the absence of actions on the behalf of females that may be flirtatious or overtly sexual in nature. The discomfort is present in the workplace because there is a fear for men regarding perception as an unintended consequence of the #MeToo movement. Males are concerned with what can be perceived as sexual harassment due to a lack of knowledge and trust. As a result, men are more careful with their behaviors around women. This includes providing feedback which is imperative to the professional development of women at work.

Finding 2: Sex Role Socialization

Two-thirds of the participants referenced an overuse of emotions, such as crying in the workplace. The overuse of emotion was determined to be a cause of dissonant feelings in males in the workplace. Even when males noted that they understood the reason for emotion, the discomfort was still prevalent. Men show discomfort with an expression of emotion, anger, sadness, and other emotions in the workplace. When males feel dissonance as a result of the overuse of emotion, they are less likely to want to provide feedback to women, communicate openly, or work together in some cases.

Finding 3: Negative Connotation to Describe Assertive Women

About 66% of study participants referenced women who are assertive are labeled as a "bitch." Women that display assertive behaviors in the workplace are viewed as a bitch. The use of the word "bitch" in a negative connotation is used to describe overly assertive or powerful women in the workplace. Participants noted that when females are assertive, the connotation is negative. However, when a male is assertive, they are labeled as strong. When females are assertive, it goes against gender expectations, and that creates discomfort.

Finding 4: Indirect Communication Styles

Over 40% of study participants noted that women who use indirect methods of communication are a source of frustration and discomfort for males. Participants noted that women use passive and indirect methods of communication in educational administration. This is a cause of dissonance because males tend to be more succinct and direct in their methods of communication. Female participants noted that they tend to give more information and communicate to build relationships and build understanding.

Males communicate to share information and prefer to be told directly what they are needed to do in a brief way, both in person and through email.

Finding 5: The Good ol' Boys Club

Over 40% of study participants referenced an ongoing frustration with the good ol' boys club for women. When women participate in male culture, it creates dissonance with males in the workplace. The good ol' boys club takes place in educational administration in the form of events and conversations restricted to males only such as golf tournaments, sporting events, and conversations that occur on the sidelines of a football field. As more women obtain positions in education administration, there will be more frustration with the restriction to events and conversations reserved for those in the good ol' boys club.

Finding 6: Female Harassment by Males

Nearly 60% of participants referenced that women feel there is a level of harassment or intimidation by male counterparts. Harassment or intimidation at work takes place in one on one conversations and in front of large groups causing dissonance in those directly involved as well as witnesses. Participants in the study both witnessed and experienced harassment in the workplace and felt discomfort as a result. Both genders noted that they harassment was unwarranted in most cases and females were targeted because of their gender.

Finding 7: Queen Bee Syndrome

One-third of participants noted that women serve as a barrier to other women and act as a queen bee. Some women compete with other women in the workplace, serving as a barrier to success because they believe there is limited room for women in

educational administration. Women will sabotage each other, or push others down because they fear the competition. This takes place in the form of harassment, intimidation, gossip, and intentionally making other women look bad. When women make other women look incompetent or incapable of doing the job, it has negative consequences for all women aspiring to positions. One participant shared that when a woman fails as a high school principal, it makes it more challenging for other women to come into that role to follow because it does not become about the person in that role, but the gender of the person in that role. Women should be building one another up, not tearing each other down.

Finding 8: Aggressive Women Perceived as a Threat

Half of the study's participants referenced that they felt women who are overly aggressive or assertive are perceived as a threat. Women that are overly aggressive or assertive are a cause of dissonant feelings in men because it is a contradiction to their perceived gender role in society. There is a perception that leaders need to be strong and assertive, and for women this goes against perceived gender expectations when they demonstrate assertive behavior. Participants noted that overly aggressive or assertive women are attempting to prove themselves in their position.

Findings Related to Research Question 2

Research Question 2 asked: *How do selected high school principals feel dissonant behaviors exhibited by female administrators impact women's eligibility for advancement?*

In this study, participants shared if they believed that dissonant behaviors exhibited by female administrators have an impact on a woman's eligibility for

advancement to the position of high school principal which is aligned to Research Question 2. The finding is drawn from participant responses and examples of dissonant behaviors.

Finding 9: Dissonance Behaviors Impact Women's Career Advancement

Over 80% of the principals interviewed reported that dissonant behaviors exhibited by female administrators can have an impact on a woman's eligibility for advancement to the position of high school principal. Participants referenced motherhood and women micromanaging others as having a potential impact on the eligibility for advancement. In addition, participants reported that a high school principal requires a specific skill set, strong personality, and controlled emotions. These findings demonstrate that these behaviors can hinder a woman's chances for promotion.

Unexpected Findings

Through the review of literature and the qualitative research study, two unexpected findings were uncovered.

Finding 10: Females with a Masculine Style Have an Advantage

One unexpected finding is that 50% of the female principals interviewed referenced that they are more masculine in style. Because of their masculine style, these women believe they have a greater advantage in their role as principal. Female participants noted that having more agentic qualities has helped them obtain their current position as principal and gain respect in their current positions as high school principal. The participants claim that they get along well with male colleagues, have a knowledge of athletics, and feel they are more masculine than feminine in style. The female

principals felt comfortable on the sidelines of a football field and feel that their male colleagues are completely comfortable around them.

Finding 11: The Importance of "Fit"

Another unexpected finding is the concept of "fit." Multiple participants referenced the concept of "fit" in selecting a person for the position of high school principal. Men have a gender advantage because they have masculine qualities, strong personalities, and a background in athletics which are qualities looked for in a comprehensive high school principal. However, each school has unique needs and the right candidate is usually selected to meet those needs. While some schools may need someone with a strong athletic background, another school may need an instructional leader. The culture of each school and district is different. Some districts had all male high school principals, while others had a higher representation of female principals at the time of the study. Participants noted that they felt that vacancies are filled according to the needs of the school for the most part.

Conclusions

Based on the findings of this study as supported by literature, the following conclusions were contrived:

Conclusion 1: Women Need to Manage their Professional Brand

A conclusion supported by the major findings is that women should consider their professional brand and manage their brand in their role as administrator. Powerful, overly assertive women are often described using a negative connotation. Over half of the study participants referenced women who are assertive are labeled as a "bitch." As a result, women should consider managing their brand effectively without conflict or

damaging relationships to curtail the need for using the word. Managing your brand can include controlling the use of emotion in the workplace as well as the use of over assertive or aggressive behavior. According to Rudman and Glick (1999), assertive behavior can be perceived as threatening, especially to men, which can impact the influence a woman has within an organization. As more women obtain positions of leadership, there needs to be an intentional change of culture to limit the use of the word. In addition, administrators of both genders should evaluate their use of the word "bitch" to describe assertive behaviors.

Conclusion 2: Women Need to Build Each Other Up

It is also concluded, based on finding of this study and supported by literature that women need to focus on building one another up and supporting each other. Women in educational leadership need to reach out as a support system rather than compete with one another. Findings from the study showed that women serve as a barrier to other women and can often act as a queen bee. There is a feeling in educational administration that there are limited seats at the table and women need to compete against one another for a spot. The queen bee makes both male and female colleagues feel discontent when they take opportunities from other women (Mavin, 2008). When discontent and competition is sensed between women in leadership, opportunities to work together will be limited. Women need to encourage and support one another in obtaining positions in educational leadership.

Conclusion 3: Women need to be Decisive in Decision Making

A conclusion supported by findings is that women need to be decisive when making decisions and stand by those tough decisions. Findings from the study found that

women are passive aggressive rather than calm and assertive when making decisions, and this can lead to discomfort. Women need to have inner confidence and a belief in themselves and their abilities as leaders. The traditional decision making process is more decisive and aggressive and women tend to use a more collaborative style (Grogan & Shakeshaft, 2010). In the role of principal, when a decision needs to be made, sometimes it needs to be immediate and decisive. Women need to have confidence in their abilities as leaders and make tough decisions on their own and stand by the decisions that they have made.

Conclusion 4: Men Still View Women as Impostors in the Role of High School Principal

Another conclusion supported by the major findings is that men still view women as imposters in the role of high school principal. Women are confronting the dominant culture by entering a profession dominated by men. As a result, the educational environment has changed. Results of the study showed that men felt women who are aggressive or assertive are perceived as a threat. According to Rudman and Glick (1999) assertive behavior can be perceived as threatening, especially to men, which can impact the influence a woman has within an organization. Until gender parity exists in educational administration, women will continue to be impostors in the role of high school principal.

Conclusion 5: Consequences of the #MeToo Movement and the Impact on Educational Administration

A conclusion supported by findings of the study is that the #Me Too movement has had unintended consequences on the educational administration environment. The

#MeToo movement is creating a culture where men are less comfortable working with women, and this could have implications on the advancement for females to administrative positions. As a result of the movement, males are less likely to give criticism and be alone with a female for fear of crossing a line. Males are more careful with their behaviors, and in many cases, feel judged at a higher rate than before. As a result, both genders need to maintain a level of professionalism in the workplace. If a culture of professionalism, trust, and respect are established, there are fewer opportunities for harassment in the workplace. The absence of trust, professionalism, and ethics breeds issues. Ensuring that the workplace is a place for high ethics, professionalism, and trust for all employees needs to remain a priority.

Conclusion 6: Females Need to Control the Use of Emotion in the Workplace

A conclusion that is made on findings and supported by literature is females need to work on controlling emotions in the workplace. Based on the findings of the study, men demonstrate discomfort with an expression of emotion, anger, sadness, and other emotions in the workplace. An overuse of emotions, such as crying in the workplace, is a source of dissonant feelings in males. When women cry and use emotion in the workplace, it creates a perception that they cannot emotionally handle a position of power.

Conclusion 7: Women Need to be More Direct in their Communication

Based on frequently coded themes that emerged, it can also be concluded that the use of indirect communication for females pose a challenge for men in the workplace. Women who use indirect methods of communication are a source of frustration and discomfort for males. Women use communication to develop relationships while men

use communication for information. As a result, women need to reflect on their methods of communication and the audience. Women in administration need to be more clear and succinct in their communication. There is a need to be more succinct and direct in communication methods as a leader.

Conclusion 8: Women Feel the Need to Prove Themselves

Another conclusion based on findings from the study is women display competitive actions because of the belief that they feel they need to earn a seat at the table. Findings from the study showed that women who try to prove themselves by using aggressive or assertive behaviors are perceived as a threat. There is a perception that women need to prove themselves and work harder than men. Because women need to prove themselves as leaders, they feel they need to do more than their male colleagues (Tulshyan, 2015). In addition, this can create the impostor syndrome, which is a fear that they are not qualified for the position they are in. Women who suffer from the impostor syndrome lack self-confidence in their abilities as a leader. When women try to prove themselves as leaders in educational administration, they can be assertive or appear overly confident, which creates dissonant feelings.

Conclusion 9: The Good ol' Boy Culture is Prevalent and is Impacting Women Advancing to Positions of Leadership

It is also concluded, based on findings of this study and supported by literature that the good ol' boy culture is prevalent in educational institutions and has an impact on women obtaining positions in educational administration. According to M. K. Ryan and Haslam (2007), male group favoritism takes place in the form of the good ol' boys club. Findings from the study showed frustration from women with participation in good ol'

boys activities. When women displayed frustration, men felt discomfort and confusion. When women miss out on conversations, opportunities, and positions because of their gender, this has implications on the future of educational administration.

Conclusion 10: Women Need to Increase Awareness of What Prompts Gender Dissonance in the Workplace

A final conclusion supported by findings and literature is regarding females needing to increase awareness of gender dissonance in the workplace as it may impact their advancement to the position of high school principal. Women need to be more aware of what prompts gender dissonance in the workplace. Findings support the conclusion that dissonant behaviors exhibited by female administrators can have an impact on a woman's eligibility for advancement to the position of high school principal. Dissonant behaviors can not only hinder a woman's chances for promotion, but impact a woman's consideration for a position altogether. Women need to gain awareness of what prompts dissonant feelings in the workplace so they avoid gender dissonance in the workplace.

Implications for Action

Based on the results of the study and a thorough review of literature, the following implications for action are recommended for school districts and professional organizations.

- School districts in California should establish a formal mentor and sponsor program to support women aspiring to positions in educational leadership. Women need mentors to support them in preparing for advancement to positions of leadership. High school principals also need support while on the

job. Evaluation practices should be established by districts to support administrators in their professional growth.

- The Administrative Services Clear Credential program in California should include support on the unique experiences of high school administration particularly for female administrators.
- Hiring practices for high school principals in California school districts need to be examined. It is critical that women have the same opportunities that men have. Opportunities for advancement should be based on qualifications and not gender.
- Mentoring supports should be placed at the assistant principal level particularly for women aspiring to the position of high school principal to navigate issues encountered while working toward serving as a high school principal. Women need support through the use of mentors to help them grow as a professional leader. Through a strong mentoring relationship with someone that works closely with the individual, reflection and professional growth can occur. Women need to be coached and receive feedback. We would not tell players to just go play, they have a coach to support and provide feedback through the process. Leaders in educational administration need the same support structure.
- Practices in school districts should be reviewed to ensure that all assumptions and practices such as the good ol' boys club are revealed and exposed. Individuals need to be hired or considered for advancement based on their ability to do the job. These "unspoken" practices need to be eliminated so the

best candidates are hired for every position. Districts need to look into good ol' boy behaviors to identify and curtail behaviors and events.

- These findings should be presented at conferences for ACSA, to inform members of how gender dissonance has an impact in the workplace. Women should attend conferences such as the Women in School Leadership Forum sponsored by ACSA/AASA to gain feedback and advice to help with advancement. In addition, women need to continue to develop professionally through attending conferences and networking events.
- Findings of this study should be shared with organizations such as the ACSA, school district Boards of Education, county offices of education and various networking groups to educate administrators on the impacts of gender dissonance
- Women's professional networking groups and educational leadership associations should teach women leadership skills and how to manage their professional brand. Women need support with managing their professional brand to ensure that their assertive styles are not damaging relationships. This can be done through attending women's conferences or through the use of mentors.
- Women need to take part in mentoring and sponsoring one another. Also, women should join a women's leadership network or attend women's conferences to develop professionally. In areas without formal or informal women's groups, programs should be established.

- Leaders need to be involved in creating organizations with a culture where there is a process for reporting issues, a culture of trust and respect, and when harassment is reported, it is handled appropriately. There will be implications for future employment opportunities for women if steps are not taken to mitigate the implications of the #MeToo movement.

Recommendations for Further Research

The following recommendations were made for further research based on the findings and conclusions of the study:

- A replication study that focuses on administrators in the private school setting. Examine experiences of private schools administrators because the setting is more aligned with a business model than the public school system.
- A replication study with administrators in the alternative education setting. Females are still underrepresented in alternative educational administration, but not as much as comprehensive high school principals. Compare the experiences of alternative and comprehensive principals.
- A replication study with high school assistant principals that have applied for a high school principal position, but did not obtain the position. Explore if the impact if gender dissonance is more prevalent for those who have not been able to achieve their desired position.
- A replication study that focuses on administrators that are openly LGBT. Examine the experiences of LGBT administrators to determine if they experience gender dissonance in the workplace.

- A replication study with assistant or deputy superintendents in business services. This is another position in educational leadership that is underrepresented by women. Examine the impact of gender dissonance as it relates to this specific department in the district office.
- A replication study with assistant or deputy superintendents in human resources. Human resources is another position in educational leadership that is underrepresented by women. Examine the impact of gender dissonance as it relates to this specific department at the district office level.
- Explore the role that coaching a sport plays in the hiring of comprehensive high school principals.
- Explore the impact of female-to-female support networks and mentorships throughout California.

A Comparative Look at the Original Study

M. Ryder's (1998) original study explored the impact of gender dissonance on K-12 superintendents in southern California. This study was the first to explore the concept of gender dissonance and the impact dissonant behaviors have on workplace relationships between genders. In addition, the study explored the impact of dissonance on the advancement for females to the position of superintendent. Three conceptual areas emerged: (a) role confusion, (b) communication differences, and (c) cultural differences. At the conclusion of the study, a fourth area, women's personal power was introduced.

Through her study, Dr. Ryder found that superintendents experience confusion when women enter the position of superintendent, a position once reserved for males. The study found that when women are overly feminine, have masculine qualities, boast,

over communicate, or try to prove themselves in the workplace, this is a source of dissonance in the workplace for males. Dissonant behaviors include: anger, frustration, confusion, and resentment. Dr. Ryder was also able to determine that dissonant behaviors have an impact for females for advancement to the position of superintendent.

M. Ryder's (1998) study was replicated by Garzaniti in 2017. Garzaniti replicated the study with community college CEO's and found that 18 years later, Dr. Ryder's findings were still valid. Garzaniti discovered what may be another content area, evolution of gender interaction. Findings in this area showed that men have a difficult time relating to women and this is a source of discomfort when males attempt to include women in events. Also, men fear overstepping boundaries with women or providing criticism. In addition, Garzaniti noted that responses from his study were heavily concentrated in role confusion and under cultural differences. As a result, he concluded that workplace communication has improved since the original study.

In her original study, M. Ryder (1998) recommended that the study be conducted with principals to determine if the experiences are the same with a population in a different capacity and whether this would identify additional behaviors that would prompt gender dissonance. The findings from this study closely resemble the findings Dr. Ryder shared 20 years ago. Gender dissonance in educational administration is still prevalent and dissonant behaviors still have an impact on female advancement to positions in leadership.

All four conceptual areas were referenced by participants in the study. Similar to Garzaniti (2017), the area of role confusion and cultural differences were the highest referenced areas. Garzaniti concluded that communication had improved, and that was

confirmed with the results of this study. In order to succeed in educational leadership, women have adapted their communication styles to meet the needs of their audience. Women are more direct, gossip less, boast less, criticize less, and talk less than they did 20 years ago. More women have obtained positions of leadership over the last 20 years and communication styles of males and females have become more similar. The researcher found that under that area of women's personal power, the concept of queen bee is an area of discomfort for both genders according to interviews as well as the review of literature. Compared with the original study, there is less frustration with women who intentionally create sexual tension at work. However, with the #MeToo movement, just being a female is enough to create discomfort and fear of sexual harassment claims.

All researchers agree, more importance needs to be placed on gender dissonance and the impact it has on dynamics within the workplace. In order to create an equitable working environment, both males and females need to gain awareness of dissonant behaviors and societal gender expectations in order to change perceptions and attitudes and avoid future dissonant feelings and behaviors.

Concluding Remarks and Reflections

As a female serving in education as a teacher, middle school assistant principal, and currently a high school assistant principal, I have witnessed the gender disparity in educational leadership despite working in a female dominated profession. I have had the honor of working with many incredible female leaders, and this led me to wonder why females were still grossly underrepresented in positions of educational administration. Literature regarding barriers that women face in educational administration is abundant.

Barriers point to a variety of issues, most of which are systematic and not in the control of women themselves.

I aspired to study something that would provide women information that would empower them to make subtle changes to the way they do things so they can eliminate barriers in advancement. Conducting this replication study offered that opportunity, to explore the impact of dissonant behaviors. In addition, this study provided an opportunity to explore a concept that was new to me, dissonance. Through the review of literature and conducting the study, I became hyper-aware of dissonant behaviors in my own environment. I began viewing the workplace and interactions through a different lens, and as a result, have changed some of my own behaviors.

Conducting interviews with the 12 principals was incredibly fascinating. Some participants admittedly changed their minds when answering the question regarding if they believed female behaviors that caused gender dissonance had an impact on the advancement for females to the position of high school principal after reflecting on answers they provided in their interviews. The process provided them the opportunity to learn about gender dissonance and reflect on dissonant behaviors in their workplace. The 12 principals provided incredible insight to contribute to literature that will provide awareness to dissonant behaviors for both males and females and have positive implications for educational administration as a result.

Dr. Ryder sought to provide an awareness of dissonant behaviors so female leaders would not face barriers because of such actions; and therefore, be provided the same opportunities as their male counterparts. My hope is that 20 years later, proving that the impact of gender dissonance is real, the results of this study will contribute to

positive changes in workplace dynamics. This study is reflective of what I believe education should be, equity and access for all. It should not matter what your gender is, only what you bring to the table. Seats at the table should not be reserved by gender, they should remain open for the best candidate.

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APPENDICIES

APPENDIX A

Role Confusion Concept

Dissonance Category	Situations In Which Females Exhibit Behaviors That May Prompt Males To Exhibit Behaviors Associated With Gender Dissonance	Supporting Literature Updated Conceptual Framework
Expressions of Sexuality	Women whose behavior is perceived by men as a potential source of sexual harassment	Annis & Gray, 2013; Bowman, 2018
Dissonance Category	Situations in Which Females Exhibit Behaviors that May Prompt Males to Exhibit Behaviors Associated with Gender Dissonance	Supporting Literature Updated Conceptual Framework
Sex Role Socialization	Women who create sexual tension for men at work	Annis & Gray, 2013; Dunshea, 1998; Eagly & Carli, 2003; Gowland, 2017; Ryder & Briles, 2003
	Women who exhibit behaviors associated with power that are incompatible with men's perceptions of the evolving female sex role	Annis & Gray, 2013; Eagly & Carli 2003; Eagly & Carli 2007; Garcia-Retamero & López-Zafra, 2006; Joon Jang, 2007; Ryan & Haslam, 2007
	Women who exhibit behaviors that are incompatible with men's stereotype of female work and sex roles	Annis & Gray, 2013; Eagly & Carli 2003; Eagly & Carli 2007; Helterbran & Rieg, 2004; Garcia-Retamero & López-Zafra, 2006
Differing Leadership Skills between Men and Women	Women who exhibit leadership skills like collaboration, shared power, and relationship building that are incongruent to male leadership skills of command and control	Eagly & Carli 2007; Eagly & Carli 2003; Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Gill & Jones 2013
	Women who demonstrate leadership skills such as collaboration, shared power, and relationship building that are viewed as more effective by their organizations than skills of command and control that some males currently use.	Ayman & Korabik, 2010; Eagly, 2007; Eagly & Carli 2003; Eagly & Carli 2007; Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Eagly & Wood, 1991; Garcia-Retamero & López-Zafra, 2006; Gill & Jones 2013; Johns, 2013; Kruger, 2008; Oplatka & Atias, 07; Paustian-Underdahl et al,, 2014; Ryan & Haslam, 2007; Ylimaki, 2007

Note. Adapted from "The Impact of Male Gender Dissonance on Women's Potential Eligibility for Advancement to the Position of Superintendent," by M. Ryer (1998) (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (9913991).

APPENDIX B

Communication Differences in Conversational Styles and Rituals Conceptual Area

Dissonance Category	Situations in Which Females Exhibit Behaviors that May Prompt Males to Exhibit Behaviors Associated with Gender Dissonance	Supporting Literature Updated Conceptual Framework
Different Conversational Styles	Women who boast	Amanatullah & Morris, 2010; Annis & Gray, 2013; Council, 2018; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Reid et al., 2009; Smith & Huntoon 2014
	Women who talk in an indirect manner	Annis & Gray, 2013; Ryder & Briles, 2003
	Women who are perceived to talk too much	Annis & Gray, 2013; Gurian & Annis 2008; Helterbran & Rieg, 2004; Ryder & Briles, 2003
	Women who are perceived to use annoying methods of speech	Reid et al., 2009; Ryder & Briles, 2003
Conversational Rituals	Women who use apology	Amanatullah & Morris, 2010; Annis & Gray, 2013; Gurian & Annis 2008; Reid et al., 2009; Wagner & Berger, 1997
	Women who criticize others	Annis & Gray, 2013; Williams & Dempsey, 2018
	Women who are overly sensitive to criticism	Annis & Gray, 2013; Williams & Dempsey, 2018
	Women who gossip	Annis & Gray, 2013; McAndrew, 2014; McAndrew, 2017; McAndrew, Bell & Garcia, 2007; McKeown, 2015; Ryder & Briles, 2003
	Women who ask others' opinions before making a decision	Annis & Gray, 2013; Eagly & Carli, 2007; Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Grogan & Shakeshaft, 2011; Kruger, 2008; Ryder & Briles, 2003; Weiler, 2009

Note. Adapted from "The Impact of Male Gender Dissonance on Women's Potential Eligibility for Advancement to the Position of Superintendent," by M. Ryer (1998) (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (9913991).

APPENDIX C

Cultural Differences Conceptual Area

Dissonance Category	Situations in Which Females Exhibit Behaviors that May Prompt Males to Exhibit Behaviors Associated with Gender Dissonance	Supporting Literature Updated Conceptual Framework
Women's Confrontation of the Dominant Culture	Women intrude into previously male dominated areas of work	Bryans & Mavin, 2003; Correll & Ridgeway, 2006; Helterbran & Reig, 2007; Mavin, 2008; Powell & Butterfield, 2003; Reid et al., 2009; Riordan, 2018; Ryan & Haslam, 2007; Wagner & Berger, 1997
Men's Competition with Women	Women who request and receive special advantages or considerations in the work setting because they are women	Eagly, & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2011; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Riordan, 2018
	Women who encroach upon men's sense of entitlement, prestige, and power	Dunshea, 1998; Eagly & Carli, 2007; Eagly & Wood, 1999; Eakle, 1995; Ryan & Haslam, 2007; Tulshyan, 2015
	Women who gain administrative promotions that men perceive are not based solely on qualifications but on gender	Eagly & Carli, 2007; Eagly & Karau, 1991; Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Helterbran & Rieg, 2004

Note. Adapted from "The Impact of Male Gender Dissonance on Women's Potential Eligibility for Advancement to the Position of Superintendent," by M. Ryer (1998) (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (9913991).

APPENDIX D

Woman's Personal Power Conceptual Area

Dissonance Category	Situations in Which Females Exhibit Behaviors that May Prompt Males to Exhibit Behaviors Associated with Gender Dissonance	Supporting Literature Updated Conceptual Framework
Women who need to prove themselves	Women who need to prove themselves	Council, 2018; Derks et al., 2011; Eagly & Carli, 2003; Forbes, 2017; Karau & Eagly, 1999; Leo et al., 2014; Ryder & Briles, 2003; Tulshyan, 2015
Women's Power Issues	Women who need to control and dominate	Faw, 2018; Helterbran & Rieg, 2004; Mavin, 2006; Ryder & Briles, 2003

Note. Adapted from "The Impact of Male Gender Dissonance on Women's Potential Eligibility for Advancement to the Position of Superintendent," by M. Ryer (1998) (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (9913991).

APPENDIX E

Synthesis Matrix

	Gender Dissonance	Women in the Workforce	Women in Leadership	Women in Education	Women High School Principals	Impact on Eligibility to	Gender Theory	Role Confusion	Communication Differences	Cultural Differences	Women's Personal Power	Methodology
Acemoglu, D., Autor, D. H., & Lyle, D. (2004)		x										
Acosta, R. V., & Carpenter, L. J. (2014)					x							
Allred, P. D., Maxwell, G. M., & Skrla, L. (2017)					x							
Amanatullah, E. T., & Morris, M. W. (2010)							x		x			
Annis, B., & Gray, J. (2013)								x	x	x		
Appelbaum, S. H., Audet, L., & Miller, J. C. (2003)			x									
Ayman, R., & Korabik, K. (2010)						x		x				
Baker, C. (2014)						x						
Bales, R. F. (1950)							x					
Barnett, R. C., & Hyde, J. S. (2001)			x			x		x				
Berger, J., Cohen, B. P., & Zelditch Jr, M. (1972)							x					
Blade, V. H. (2017)						x						

Blount, JM (1998)				x	x							
Bon, S. C. (2009)				x								
Borelli, J. L., Nelson, S. K., River, L. M., Birken, S. A., & Moss-Racusin, C. (2017)						x						
Bowman, K. (2018)								x				
Boyd (1997)		x										
Brescoll, V. L., & Uhlmann, E. L. (2008)							x	x				
Briles, J. (1996)											x	
Brunner, C. C., & Kim, Y.-L. (2010)					x	x						
Bryans, P., & S. Mavin (2003)										x		
Buckner, K. R. (2011)					x							
Burgoon, J. K. (1993)							x					
Burgoon, J. K., & Hale, J. L. (1988)							x					
Burgoon, J. K., & Walther, J. B. (1990)							x					
Campbell, S., Mueller, K., & Souza, J. M. (2010)								x				
Caplow, T. (1954)	x											
Carli, L. L., & Eagly, A. H. (2001)						x						
Carroll, J. (2006)			x									
Catalyst (2017)		x	x									
Cejka, M. A., & Eagly, A. H. (1999)							x					
Cheung, F. M., & Halpern, D. F. (2010)			x					x	x		x	
Collins, G. (2009)		x										
Conlin, M. (2003)			x									

Correll, S. J., & Ridgeway, C. L. (2006)				x		x	x	x			x		
Costellow, T.D. (2011)						x							
Council, F. C. (2018)										x		x	
Creswell, J. W., & Miller, D. L. (2000)													x
Denmark, F. L., & Paludi, M. A. (2018)									x		x		
Derks, B., Ellemers, N., Van Laar, C., & De Groot, K. (2011)							x				x		
DeWolf (2017)			x										
Dickinson, A. (2017)				x									
Diekman, A. B., & Eagly, A. H. (2000)			x				x	x					
Diekman, A. B., & Goodfriend, W. (2006)			x					x					
DiPrete, T.A., & Buchmann, C (2013)			x										
Dovidio, J. F., Brown, C. E., Heltman, K., Ellyson, S. L., & Keating, C. F. (1988)							x	x					
Drill, K. (2014)		x											
Dunshea, G. (1998)							x		x		x		
Eagly, A. (1987)								x					
Eagly, A. H. (2009)			x				x	x					
Eagly, A. H., & Carli, L. L. (2003)			x	x			x	x	x			x	
Eagly, A. H., & Carli, L. L. (2007)			x					x					
Eagly, A. H., & Carli, L. L. (2007) (2)										x	x		
Eagly, A. H., & Diekman, A. B. (2005)								x					
Eagly, A. H., & Johannesen-				x			x	x	x				

Schmidt, M. C. (2001)												
Eagly, A. H., & Johnson, B. T. (1990)				x		x	x	x	x	x		
Eagly, A. H., & Karau, S. J. (1991)						x	x			x		
Eagly, A. H., & Karau, S. J. (2002)							x					
Eagly, A. H., & Wood, W. (1985)										x		
Eagly, A. H., & Wood, W. (1991)							x	x	x			
Eagly, A. H., & Wood, W. (1999)			x				x			x		
Eagly, A. H., & Wood, W. (2011)			x	x								
Eagly, A. H., Karau, S. J., & Johnson, B. T. (1992)			x									
Eagly, A. H., Karau, S. J., & Makhijani, M. G. (1995)							x					
Eagly, A. H., Wood, W., & Diekman, A. B. (2000)							x					
Eagly, A., Makhijani, M. G., & Klonsky, B. (1992)			x									
Eakle, S. A. (1995)									x	x		
Eckman, E. W. (2004)					x							
Eddy, P. L., & Cox, E. M. (2008)						x						
Education (2016)				x								
Education (2017)				x								
Education (2018)				x	x							
Education, C. D. o. (2017)												x
Education, R. C. O. o. (2016)												x
Elliott, C., & Stead, V. (2017)						x						
Faw, L. (2018)											x	

Ferrari, F. (2015)									x			
Ferree, M. M., & Hess, B. (2002)		x										
Festinger, L. (1957)	x											
Forbes, M. (2017)											x	
Foschi, M. (2000)							x					
Freedman, E. B. (2003)		x										
Fuller, E. J., Pendola, A., & LeMay, M. (2018)						x						
Galinsky, E. (2005)						x						
Garcia-Retamero, R., & López-Zafra, E. (2006)						x	x	x				
Garzaniti II, S. G. (2017)	x		x			x	x	x	x	x	x	
Gill, K., & Jones, S. J. (2013)										x		
Ginder, S. A., Kelly-Reid, J. E., & Mann, F. B. (2016)			x								x	
Gino, F. (2017)								x				
Glass, T. E. (2000)				x	x			x				
Goldin, C. (2004)		x										
Goldin, C., & Katz, L. F. (2000)		x										
Goldring, R., Gray, L., & Bitterman, A. (2013)				x	x							
Gowland, L. (2017)						x		x				
Grogan, M., & Shakeshaft, C. (2010)					x				x			
Gupton, S. L. (2009)				x								
Gupton, S. L., & Del Rosario, R. M. (1998)				x								
Gurian, M., & Annis, B. (2008)									x			
Gurung, R. A., Punke, E., Brickner,								x				

M., & Badalamenti, V. (2018)												
Hacker, M., & Kleiner, B. H. (1993)			x									
Hakim, C. (2000)					x							
Hallinger, P, Dongyu, L., & Wang, W. (2016)					x							
Hansen, J. B. (2014)					x							
Helterbran, & Rieg (2004)			x	x	x	x			x	x	x	
Hinojosa, A. S., Gardner, W. L., Walker, H. J., Cogliser, C., & Gullifor, D. (2017)	x											
Hoff, D. L., Menard, C., & Tuell, J. (2006)						x						
Hoffman, N. (2003)				x								
Howlett, N., Pine, K. J., Cahill, N., Orakçıoğlu, İ., & Fletcher, B. C. (2015)								x				
Huang, G. (2016)						x						
Hurley, D., Hurley, D., Choudhary, A., & Choudhary, A. (2016)			x			x						
Ibarra, H., Carter, N. M., & Silva, C. (2010)			x									
Jackson, N. (2014)					x							
Jardina, A., & Burns, N. (2016)		x										
Johannesen–Schmidt, M. C., & Eagly, A. H. (2002)						x						
Johns, M. L. (2013)								x	x	x		

Johnson, D. I., & Lewis, N. (2010)							x					
Jones, J. (2017)				x	x	x						
Jonsen, K., Maznevski, M. L., & Schneider, S. C. (2010)										x		
Joon Jang, S. (2007)							x	x				
Karamanidou, M., & Bush, T. (2017)						x						
Karau, S. J., & Eagly, A. H. (1999)							x				x	
Kelsey, C., Allen, K., Coke, K., & Ballard, G. (2014)						x						
Klein, S. S., Richardson, B., Grayson, D. A., Fox, L. H., Kramarae, C., Pollard, D. S., & Dwyer, C. A. (2014)				x	x							
Koch, A. J., D'Mello, S. D., & Sackett, P. R. (2015)			x			x	x					
Koenig, A. M., Eagly, A. H., Mitchell, A. A., & Ristikari, T. (2011)						x	x					
Krüger, M. L. (2008)					x							
Kruse, R. A., & Krumm, B. L. (2016)			x									
Kuo, C.-C., Chang, K., Quinton, S., Lu, C.-Y., & Lee, I. (2015)									x			
Labor (2016)				x	x							
Ladge, J. J., & Greenberg, D. N. (2015)						x						

Leo, L., Reid, R., Geldenhuys, M., & Gobind, J. (2014)											x	
Lester, S. (1999)												x
Levy, R. (2017)								x				
Lewis, G. S. (2009)				x								
Loder, T. L. (2005)						x						
Loder, T. L., & Spillane, J. P. (2005)						x						
Macrae, C. N., & Bodenhausen, G. V. (2000)	x											
Madsen, S., & Longman, K. (2014)						x						
Mahitivanichcha, K., & Rorrer, A. K. (2006)						x						
Malveaux, S. (2017)				x	x							
Marklein, M. B. (2005)			x									
Marshall, B., Cardon, P., Poddar, A, & Fontenot, R. (2013)												x
Martin, J. (2015)								x				
Martin, J. L. (2011)				x								
Mathison, D. L. (1986)									x		x	
Mavin, S. (2006)						x					x	
Mavin, S. (2008)						x		x		x		
McAndrew, F. T. (2014)									x			
McAndrew, F. T. (2017)									x			
McAndrew, F. T., Bell, E. K., & Garcia, C. M. (2007)									x			
McKeown, J. K. (2015)									x			
McMillan, J.H., & Schumacher, S. (2010)												x

McMillan, J.H., & Schumacher, S. (2014)												x
McPherson, T. (2000)										x		
Muñoz, A. J., Pankake, A., Ramalho, E. M., Mills, S., & Simonsson, M. (2014)						x						
Myers, K. K., & Sadaghiani, K. (2010)							x					
Ngunjiri, F. W. (2015)								x				
Olsen, J. (2007)						x						
O'Neil, J. M. (1981)							x					
Oplatka, I., & Atias, M. (2007)								x				
Patten, M. L., & Newhart, M. (2017)												x
Patton, M. (2015)												x
Paustian-Underdahl, S. C., Walker, L. S., & Woehr, D. J. (2014)												
Pietkiewicz, I., & Smith, J. (2014)												x
Pleck, J. H. (1977)							x					
Pleck, J. H. (1995)							x					
Potter, W. J., & Levine-Donnerstein, D. (1999)												x
Powell, G. N., & Butterfield, D. A. (2003)										x		
Reid, S. A., Palomares, N. A., Anderson, G. L., & Bondad-Brown, B. (2009)							x		x	x		

Ridgeway, C. L., & Correll, S. J. (2004)			x		x	x				x		
Riordan, K. (2018)						x				x		
Risman, B. J., & Davis, G. (2013)						x						
Ritter, B. A., & Yoder, J. D. (2004)							x					
Roepe, L. R. (2017)						x						
Roosevelt, E. (2017)			x									
Rosin, H. (2012)			x									
Rudman, L. A., & Glick, P. (1999)						x	x		x			
Rutgers (2017)			x									
Ryan, M. K., & Haslam, S. A. (2007)			x			x		x	x			
Ryan, M. K., Haslam, S. A., Morgenroth, T., Rink, F., Stoker, J., & Peters, K. (2016)						x						
Ryder, M. (1998)								x	x	x	x	
Ryder, M., & Briles, J. (2003)	x										x	
Sachs, J., & Blackmore, J. (1998)			x			x						
Sanchez, J. E., & Thornton, B. (2010)					x	x						
Sandelowski, M. (2000)												x
Sanz, C. P. (2016)								x				
SASS (2012)					x							
Schwandt, T. A. (1997)												x
Shakeshaft, C. (1989)					x							
Simpson, P. A., & Stroh, L. K. (2004)	x											
Skelly, J. J., & Johnson, J. B. (2011)						x	x					
Smith, J. L., & Huntoon, M. (2014)									x			
Snedden, E. (2013)					x							

Starks, H., & Brown Trinidad, S. (2007)												x
Starks, H., & Brown Trinidad, S. (2007)												x
Statistics (2017)				x	x							
Statistics: Schools and Staffing Survey (2013)				x								
Stempel, C. R., Rigotti, T., & Mohr, G. (2015)								x				
Stuart, J., & Barnes, J. (2005)												x
Superville, D. R. (2017)			x									
Tallerico, M. (2000)			x	x		x						
Tallerico, M., & Blount, J. M. (2004)			x									
Taylor, D. L. (2017)					x							
Teaching (2009)				x	x							
Tirozzi, G. N. (2001)					x							
Torpey, E. (2017)			x									
Tulshyan, R. (2015)										x	x	
Wagner, D. G., & Berger, J. (1997)							x		x	x		
Walker, T. H. (2014)					x							
Wallace, T. (2015)						x						
Wan Ismail, W. K., & Al-Taee, F. J. H. (2012)		x										
Warrell, M. (2017)						x				x	x	
Warren, P. (2014)					x							
Watson, T. N., Hodgins, D. W., & Brooks, J. S. (2016)						x						
Weiler, K. (2009)				x								
Weiner, J. M., & Burton, L. J. (2016)						x						
West, C., & Zimmerman, D. H. (1987)							x					

Williams, J. C., & Dempsey, R. (2018)										x			
Williams, R. (2012)				x									
Wood, W., & Eagly, A. H. (2012)								x					
Ylimaki, R. M. (2007)									x				
Young, M. D., & McLeod, S. (2001)				x			x						

APPENDIX F

Research Study Invitation Letter

July 2018

Dear Prospective Study Participant:

My name is Kristen Harris and I am currently a doctoral candidate at Brandman University in the organizational leadership program. I am conducting a study that explores behaviors between the genders affect a workplace relationship. This study will fill the gap in the research by using a qualitative analysis to gain a better picture of how behaviors between the genders affect a workplace relationship.

The purpose of this phenomenological study was to discover what behaviors female administrators exhibit that may prompt male administrators with whom they work in a California public education to demonstrate behaviors associated with gender dissonance and to discover any impact these dissonant behaviors may have on women's potential eligibility for advancement to the position of high school principal. Approximately 12 high school principals will be enrolled in this study. Participation should require about one to one and a half hours of your time and is entirely voluntary. You may withdraw from the study at any time without consequences.

I have these criteria to participate in this study:

1. Participant has minimum experience of one year as a comprehensive high school principal
2. Participant is knowledgeable of women's issues in educational leadership
3. Participant exhibits strong verbal and non-verbal communication skills.

In participating in this research study, you agree to partake in an interview. The interview will take a minimum of 1 hour and will be audio-recorded. The interview will take place at a location of your choosing. There are no known major risks or discomforts associated with this research. The session will be held at a location of your choosing to minimize inconvenience. There are no major benefits to you for participation, but a potential may be that your input may help add to the research regarding how behaviors between the genders affect a workplace relationship.

Additional details of the study are provided in the attached Description of the Study. If you have any questions about this study, please e-mail me at kharris9@mail.brandman.edu or call my dissertation supervisor, Dr. Marilou Ryder, at 760-900-0556 or by email at ryder@ brandman.edu.

I very much appreciate your time and consideration in participating in this study.

Very Respectfully,

Kristen Harris Doctoral Candidate,
Organizational Leadership Program Brandman University
STUDY: The Impact of Male Gender Dissonance on Women's Potential Eligibility for Advancement to the Position of High School Principal

Dear Potential Expert Panelist:

This letter is to invite you to participate in a phenomenological research study as a professional expert. My name is Kristen Harris, and I am a doctoral candidate in the Organizational Leadership Doctoral program at Brandman University. I am currently conducting research under the supervision of Dr. Marilou Ryder on the lived experiences of high school principals to identify female administrator behaviors that may prompt male administrators to experience gender dissonance in the workplace.

What is the purpose of this research study?

The purpose of this qualitative phenomenological replication study is to discover what behaviors female administrators exhibit that may prompt male administrators with whom they work in California public education to demonstrate behaviors associated with gender dissonance. In addition, it is the purpose of this study to determine what impact these dissonant behaviors may have on women's potential eligibility for advancement to the position of high school principal in California.

What will your involvement in this study mean?

As a professional expert, your involvement will encompass reviewing and critiquing the research instrument and field test. To prevent researcher bias, and to ensure the safety of the participants, I would like for you scrutinize each of the interview questions and provide feedback on ways to improve the instrument. Upon completion of a field test, I will be sharing the results with you and asking that you review the data to ensure the accuracy and reliability of the instrument and to ensure the interview questions are aligned with the research questions.

If you have any questions regarding this phenomenological research study, please do not hesitate to contact me at 714-943-6316 or by email at kharris9@mail.brandman.edu. You can also contact my dissertation chairperson Dr. Marilou Ryder at 760-900-0556 or by email at ryder@ brandman.edu.

Thank you very much for your interest and assistance in this phenomenological study.
Sincerely,

Kristen Harris

APPENDIX G

Description of the Study

What is this project studying? This study is called "The Impact of Male Gender Dissonance on Women's Potential Eligibility for Advancement to the Position of High School Principal." This study will explore how behaviors between the male and female leaders affect workplace relationships and the potential for female's advancement.

What would I do if I participate? You will be asked to participate in a one-on-one interview with the researcher regarding your perceptions and experiences as a high school principal.

Can I quit if I become uncomfortable? Yes, absolutely. Your participation is completely voluntary. The researcher and the Brandman University Institutional Review Board have reviewed the interview questions and think you can answer them comfortably. You can also stop answering or skip any questions at any time. Participating is your choice. However, we do appreciate any help you are able to provide.

How long will my participation take? The interview should take no more than an hour and half.

How are you protecting privacy? The researcher will protect all participants confidentiality by storing any research materials collected during the interview process in a locked file drawer in which only the researcher has access to. All findings in the study will be reported in the aggregate and participants will not be personally identifiable.

How will I benefit from participating in this study? Besides providing the study with valuable information, you are also contributing to research on a national, intellectual movement that is seeking to assist in achieving equal treatment in educational leadership regarding how behaviors between the genders impact workplace relationships.

How can I participate in this study? You can participate by contacting the researcher to schedule a time to share your perceptions and experiences as a high school principal.

I have some questions about this study. Who can I ask? 1. If you have any questions about this research study, you can contact Kristen Harris through email at kharris@mail.brandman.edu. 2. You may also contact Dr. Marilou Ryder, who is supervising this study, at (760) 900-0556 or by email at ryder@brandman.edu. 3. Brandman University also has a Board, the Institutional Review Board, which protects the rights of people who participate in research. You may contact the coordinator, Jose Carlos Trujillo, with questions by email at buirb@brandman.edu.

APPENDIX H

Letter of Confidentiality and Assurances

RESEARCH STUDY TITLE: The Impact of Male Gender Dissonance on Women's Potential Eligibility for Advancement to the Position of High School Principal

Brandman University
16355 Laguna Canyon Road
Irvine, CA 92618

RESPONSIBLE INVESTIGATOR: Kristen Harris, Doctoral Candidate

TITLE OF CONSENT FORM: Research Participant's Informed Consent Form

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY: The purpose of this phenomenological study was to discover what behaviors female administrators exhibit that may prompt male administrators with whom they work in a California public education to demonstrate behaviors associated with gender dissonance and to discover any impact these dissonant behaviors may have on women's potential eligibility for advancement to the position of high school principal.

This study will fill the gap in the research by using a qualitative analysis to gain a better understanding of how behaviors between the genders affect a workplace relationship. As a product of this qualitative study, it is the hope that this research will provide an increased awareness of how individuals can recognize dissonant behaviors to cause them to become inconsequential.

By participating in this study, I agree to participate in a one-on-one interview with the researcher. The interview will last between one and one and a half hours. Completion of the interview will take place in July-September 2018.

I understand that:

a. There are no known major risks or discomforts associated with this research. The session will be held at a location of my choosing to minimize inconvenience.

b. There are no major benefits to me for participation, but a potential may be that I will have an opportunity to share my lived experiences as a high school principal. The possible benefit of this study to me is that my input may help add to the research regarding how behaviors between the genders affect a workplace relationship. The findings will be available to me at the conclusion of the study.

c. Money will not be provided for my time and involvement; however, I will receive gift of appreciation from the researcher following the interview. .

d. Any questions I have concerning my participation in this study will be answered by Kristen Harris, Brandman University Doctoral Candidate. I understand that Mrs. Harris may be contacted by phone at [redacted] or email at kharris9@mail.brandman.edu.

e. I understand that I may refuse to participate or withdraw from this study at any time without any negative consequences. Also, the investigator may stop the study at any time.

f. I understand that the audio recordings will be used to transcribe the interview. I understand that the recordings will not be used beyond the scope of this project. Upon completion of the study all transcripts and notes taken by the researcher during the interview will be shredded.

g. I also understand that no information that identifies me will be released without my separate consent and that all identifiable information will be protected to the limits allowed by law. If the study design or the use of the data is to be changed, I will be so informed and my consent re-obtained. I understand that if I have any questions, comments, or concerns about the study or the informed consent process, I may write or call the Office of the Executive Vice Chancellor of Academic Affairs, Brandman University, and 16355 Laguna Canyon Road, Irvine, CA 92618, (949) 341-7641. I acknowledge that I have received a copy of this form and the Research Participant's Bill of Rights.

I have read the above and understand it and hereby voluntarily consent to the procedures(s) set forth.

Signature of Participant or Responsible Party		**Date**
Signature of Witness (if appropriate)		**Date**
Signature of Principal Investigator		**Date**

APPENDIX I

Interview Protocol – Interviewer's Copy

Participant: _____

INTERVIEWER SAYS:

Thank you very much for taking the time to discuss with me your perceptions about the working relationships between male and female administrators in the educational environment. Please know that all answers will be held in strictest confidence and any comments you make will in no way be associated with your name or the school you represent.

The majority of working relationships between men and women administrators is positive and productive. This study concentrates on those few relationships between men and women that may result in friction or an uneasy reaction.

The purpose of this interview is to identify female administrator behaviors which may prompt male administrators to express behaviors associated with gender dissonance. Gender dissonance is the conscious or subconscious discomfort or incongruity that men and women feel when they work together.

It would be useful if you could share some behavioral examples of gender dissonance experienced by male administrators with whom you have worked during your career. It is also important for you to identify female administrator behaviors which may prompt male administrators to express these dissonant behaviors. For the purpose of this study, I am not interested in factors that cause women to experience dissonance. This interview will concentrate on three different working relationships between male and female administrators within three contexts:

1. Male administrators who supervise female administrators
2. Male administrators who work together as peers
3. Female administrators who supervise male administrators

There are three things I will focus on in this interview. First, I am most interested in your descriptions of specific situations and behaviors that prompt men to feel gender dissonance; those behaviors exhibited by females that cause men to express dissonant behaviors. If these examples do not fit into these relationships, that's all right. I am interested in hearing the specific descriptions of examples, but in particular the behaviors you have observed. Second, it is also important to explore why you think these behaviors may have occurred as they relate to gender differences between men and women. Please

note that I am also not looking for dissonant behaviors that were prompted by difference in style, age, experience, or personality; for example, two administrators who bring different competence levels to a position because of the experience or age. These differences may cause the male or female to exhibit dissonant behaviors, but they are not gender related. While these differences may cause dissonance between men and women and may be very interesting, they are outside the scope of this study. Last, at the conclusion of this interview, I will ask you to identify which of the behaviors you have described you feel may impede or serve as a barrier to women's eligibility for promotion to the position of high school principal. Research suggests that many factors can limit a woman's eligibility to be included in the pool for promotion.

Please let me remind you that your participation is completely voluntary and will greatly strengthen the study. If at any time you feel uncomfortable or would like to end the interview or not respond to a question, please let me know. Your information will be kept confidential and your name will be changed to protect your identity. In addition, I have provided a copy of the questions that I will ask for your reference; however, I may have follow-up questions if clarity is needed. The duration of this interview will take approximately 60 to 90 minutes. Do you have any questions about the interview process?

CONSENT FORM:

The document I am providing is an informed consent form. It explains much of the information I have shared as well as outlines the benefits and risks of your participation. Please take a moment to read through the form and sign showing your consent. [Interviewee to sign the consent form].

INTERVIEWER SAYS:

As we get started, I would like to record this interview for transcribing purposes and so that I can access it at a later time. I would like to be able to accurately represent you experiences, and at no time will your names be shared. Again, I will make sure that your confidentiality is kept at all times. Do I have your permission to continue with this interview and record it? [Obtain permission and turn on recording devises] Do you have any questions before we begin?

PROTOCOL QUESTIONS:

Male Administrator Supervising a Female Administrator

1. As you reflect back on your career please think about times when you observed a male administrator supervising a female administrator; for example a high school principal supervising an assistant principal.

   Can you describe any situations in which you observed a male administrator expressing a negative or uneasy reaction to something a female did while:

a. In a cabinet or general administrators meeting
b. At a conference or professional staff development situation
c. Involved in a social situation
d. A one-on-one meeting such as an evaluation or improvement conference
e. Working on a project
f. Communicating with one another

Male and Female Administrators Working Together As Peers

2. As you reflect back on your career as an administrator, please think about times when you have observed male and female administrators working together as peers; for example two principals or two vice principals.

   Can you describe any situations throughout your career in which you have observed a male administrator expressing a negative or uneasy reaction to something that a female did while:

   a. In a cabinet or general administrators meeting
   b. At a conference or professional staff development situation
   c. Involved in a social situation
   d. A one-on-one meeting such as an evaluation or improvement conference
   e. Working on a project
   f. Communicating with one another

Female Administrator Supervising a Male Administrators

3. Many women have been promoted to positions of greater authority in public education. As you reflect back on your own experiences, can you describe any instances when a female administrator supervised a male administrator?

   Recalling these experiences throughout your career can you describe any instances of a male administrator expressing a negative or uneasy reaction to something that a female did while:
   a. In a cabinet or general administrators meeting
   b. At a conference or professional staff development situation
   c. Involved in a social situation
   d. A one-on-one meeting such as an evaluation or improvement conference
   e. Working on a project together
   f. Communicating with one another

General Prompts to be Used in Connection with Each Question

1. What did the female administrator do to elicit this behavior?
2. What did the male administrator do when reacting to this particular behavior?
3. What do you think prompted the male to do that?
   a. Was it a personal issue on the part of the male or was it prompted by gender differences?
4. What makes you think this behavior was gender-related?
   a. Could you elaborate?
5. What is another example of this kind of behavior?

4. An increasing number of female administrators possess the credentials, experience, and demonstrated skills to advance to the role of high school principal. However, some critical factors exist that may impede or limit a woman's chances to be included in that pool of those who are eligible to be considered for a high school principal position. One or more of these behaviors exhibited by females that you just described may be one of these limitations.

   During our interview, you described a number of behaviors exhibited by female administrators that prompt male administrators to express behaviors associated with gender dissonance. (REPEAT SEVERAL THAT EACH PERSON HAS IDENTIFIED). How do you feel these behaviors that prompt males to experience gender dissonance may limit a woman's chances to be included in the eligibility pool to be considered for a CEO position? If so, could you comment on what impact these behaviors exhibited by female administrators that prompt males to experience gender dissonance may have on women's advancement to a high school principal position?

Potential Follow-Up Question(s):

1. Are there any final comments you would like to make before we conclude?

Possible probes that can be added to any question, for clarification:

1. "Would you expand upon that a bit?"
2. "Do you have more to add?"
3. "What did you mean by …."
4. "Why do think that was the case?"
5. "Could you please tell me more about…. "
6. "Can you give me an example of ...."
7. "How did you feel about that?"

CLOSING STATEMENT:

These are all the questions I have for you at this time. Thank you very much for your time today and your willingness to allow me to interview you for my dissertation. If you would like a copy of my research at the conclusion of my study, I will be happy to provide that for you. Please accept this as a small token of my appreciation for your participation.

APPENDIX J

Interview Protocol – Interviewee's Copy

Participant: _____

Date: _____

Thank you very much for taking the time to discuss with me your perceptions about the working relationships between male and female administrators in the educational environment. Please know that all answers will be held in strictest confidence and any comments you make will in no way be associated with your name or the school you represent.

The majority of working relationships between men and women administrators is positive and productive. This study concentrates on those few relationships between men and women that may result in friction or an uneasy reaction.

The purpose of this interview is to identify female administrator behaviors which may prompt male administrators to express behaviors associated with gender dissonance. Gender dissonance is the conscious or subconscious discomfort or incongruity that men and women can feel when they work together.

Please consider the questions below for our interview. When we meet, it would be useful if you could share some behavioral examples of gender dissonance experienced by male administrators with whom you have worked during your career. In addition, sharing your observations and the identification of some of the behaviors that female administrators exhibit that may prompt male administrators to experience gender dissonance would be very helpful to the study.

1. There are a number of different working relationships among men and women in the educational work setting. The first one I would like to discuss is the relationship in which a male administrator has the occasion to supervise a female administrator; for example a male principal supervising a female assistant principal. Can you describe any situations during your career in which you observed a male administrator expressing a negative or uneasy reaction to something a female did while:

    a. In a cabinet or general administrators meeting
    b. At a conference or professional staff development situation
    c. Involved in a social situation
    d. A one-on-one meeting such as an evaluation or improvement conference
    e. Working on a project
    f. Communicating with one another

2. As you reflect back on your career as an administrator, please think about times when you have observed male and female administrators working together as peers; for example two principals or two assistant principals. Can you describe any situations throughout your career in which you have observed a male administrator expressing a negative or uneasy reaction to something that a female did while:

a. In a cabinet or general administrators meeting
b. At a conference or professional staff development situation
c. Involved in a social situation
d. A one-on-one meeting such as an evaluation or improvement conference
e. Working on a project
f. Communicating with one another

3. Many women have been promoted to positions of greater authority in public education. As you reflect back on your own experiences, can you describe any instances when a female administrator supervised a male administrator? Recalling these experiences throughout your career can you describe any instances of a male administrator expressing a negative or uneasy reaction to something that a female did while:

a. In a cabinet or general administrators meeting
b. At a conference or professional staff development situation
c. Involved in a social situation
d. A one-on-one meeting such as an evaluation or improvement conference
e. Working on a project together
f. Communicating with one another

General Prompts to be Used in Connection with Each Question

1. What did the female administrator do to elicit this behavior?
2. What did the male administrator do when reacting to this particular behavior?
3. What do you think prompted the male to do that?
    a. Was it a personal issue on the part of the male or was it prompted by gender differences?
4. What makes you think this behavior was gender-related?
    a. Could you elaborate?
5. What is another example of this kind of behavior?

4. An increasing number of female administrators possess the credentials, experience, and demonstrated skills to advance to the role of principal. However, some critical factors exist that may impede or limit a woman's chances to be included in that pool of those who are eligible to be considered for a principal position. One or more of these behaviors exhibited by females that you just described may be one of these limitations.

During our interview, you described a number of behaviors exhibited by female administrators that prompt male administrators to express behaviors associated with gender dissonance. (REPEAT SEVERAL THAT EACH PERSON HAS IDENTIFIED). How do you feel these behaviors that prompt males to experience gender dissonance may limit a woman's chances to be included in the eligibility pool to be considered for a high school principal position? If so, could you comment on what impact these behaviors exhibited by female administrators that prompt males to experience gender dissonance may have on women's advancement to a high school principal position?

Are there any final comments you would like to make before we conclude?

Thank you very much for your time and thoughtful consideration of the questions asked in this interview. I appreciate your valuable input.

APPENDIX K

Permission to Use an Existing Instrument

DATE: 07/09/2018

Dear Dr. Ryder,

I am a doctoral student from Brandman University writing my dissertation tentatively titled, "The Impact of Male Gender Dissonance on Women's Potential Eligibility for Advancement to the Position of High School Principal" under your direction.

I would like your permission to reproduce your instrument and protocols in my replicative research study. I would like to use and print your instrument under the following conditions:

1. I will use this instrument and protocol only for my research study and will not sell or use it with any compensated or curriculum development activities.

2. I will include the copyright statement on all copies of the instrument.

3. I will send my research study and one copy of reports, articles, and the like that make use of instrument data promptly to your attention.

If these are acceptable terms and conditions, please indicate so by signing one copy of this letter and returning it to me via email to kharris9@mail.brandman.edu.

Sincerely,

Kristen Harris Doctoral Candidate

I approve the use of instrument and protocols for this study as indicated above.

Marilee Ryder

7-09-2018

Signature Date

APPENDIX L

Permission to Reproduce Tables/Charts/Figures

DATE: 07/09/2018

Dear Dr. Ryder,

I am a doctoral student from Brandman University writing my dissertation tentatively titled, "The Impact of Male Gender Dissonance on Women's Potential Eligibility for Advancement to the Position of High School Principal" under your direction.

I would like your permission to reproduce figures from:

Ryder, M. (1998). The impact of male gender dissonance on women's potential eligibility for advancement to the position of superintendent. (Order No. 9913991). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. (304485759).

Specifically, I am requesting permission to reprint the gender dissonance conceptual framework in parts or in total:

Figure 2: Conceptual framework used to classify behaviors exhibited by females that may prompt males to exhibit behaviors associated with gender dissonance for the concept: role confusion on page 57.

Figure 4: Conceptual framework used to classify behaviors exhibited by females that may prompt males to exhibit behaviors associated with gender dissonance for the concept: communication differences on page 65.

Figure 5: Conceptual framework used to classify behaviors exhibited by females that may prompt males to exhibit behaviors associated with gender dissonance for the concept: cultural differences on page 72.

Figure 6: Conceptual framework used to classify behaviors exhibited by females that may prompt males to exhibit behaviors associated with gender dissonance for the concept: women's personal power on page 76.

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Sincerely,

Kristen Harris, Doctoral Candidate

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APPENDIX M

Alignment Table

Research Questions	Sources of Data	Analytical Technique
Research Question 1: What behaviors exhibited by female administrators are perceived by selected high school principals as prompting male administrators with whom they work in a public education environment to demonstrate behaviors associated with gender dissonance?	• Interviews with high school principals	• Interview Questionnaire
Research Question 2: How do selected high school principals feel dissonant behaviors exhibited by female administrators impact women's eligibility for advancement?	• Interviews with high school principals	• Interview Questionnaire

APPENDIX N

Gender Dissonance Conceptual Framework

Gender Dissonance Concept	Dissonance Category	Situations in Which Females Exhibit Behaviors that May Prompt Males to Exhibit Behaviors Associated with Gender Dissonance
Role Confusion	Expressions of Sexuality	Women whose behavior is perceived by men as a potential source of sexual harassment
	Sex Role Socialization	Women who exhibit behaviors associated with power that are incompatible with men's perceptions of the evolving female sex role
		Women who exhibit behaviors that are incompatible with men's stereotype of female work and sex roles
Gender Dissonance Concept	Dissonance Category	Situations in Which Females Exhibit Behaviors that May Prompt Males to Exhibit Behaviors Associated with Gender Dissonance
	Differing Leadership Skills between Men and Women	Women who exhibit leadership skills like collaboration, shared power, and relationship building that are incongruent to male leadership skills of command and control
		Women who demonstrate leadership skills such as collaboration, shared power, and relationship building that are viewed as more effective by their organizations than skills of command and control that some males currently use.

(continued)

Gender Dissonance Concept	Dissonance Category	Situations in Which Females Exhibit Behaviors that May Prompt Males to Exhibit Behaviors Associated with Gender Dissonance
Communication Differences	Different Conversational Styles	Women who boast
		Women who talk in an indirect manner
		Women who are perceived to talk too much
		Women who are perceived to use annoying methods of speech
	Conversational Rituals	Women who use apology
		Women who criticize others
		Women who are overly sensitive to criticism
		Women who gossip
		Women who ask others' opinions before making a decision
Cultural Differences	Women's Confrontation of the Dominant Culture	Women intrude into previously male dominated areas of work
		Women who request and receive special advantages or considerations in the work setting because they are women
	Men's Competition with Women	Women who encroach upon men's sense of entitlement, prestige, and power
		Women who gain administrative promotions that men perceive are not based solely on qualifications but on gender
Women's Personal Power	Women who need to prove themselves	Women who need to prove themselves
	Women's Power Issues	Women who need to control and dominate

Note. Adapted from "The Impact of Male Gender Dissonance on Women's Potential Eligibility for Advancement to the Position of Superintendent," by M. Ryer (1998) (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (9913991).